

Derewianka, B. (2003) 'Making grammar relevant to students' lives' in G. Bull and M. Anstey (eds) *The Literacy Lexicon (Second Edition)* NSW: Pearson (ISBN 1 7009 831 5) pp.37-50\*

## **Making grammar relevant to students' lives**

**Beverly Derewianka**

### **Introduction**

Traditional school grammars tend to focus on 'form'. They allow us to identify different 'parts of speech' and to observe how these word classes can be combined into clauses and sentences. This is useful inasmuch as it helps students to start thinking analytically about language and provides labels such as 'noun' and 'prepositional phrase' to talk about the different elements. Traditional grammars also allow us to pinpoint student errors such as lack of agreement between subject and verb ('Me and him was in the kitchen.'). In a society where grammatical accuracy can act as a gatekeeper, this is an important consideration.

Alongside traditional (or 'formal') grammars, there have always been approaches to language that have focused more on 'function' – how we use language to do things, such as persuading people to a particular point of view. The early grammars of the ancient Greek rhetoricians, for example, were concerned with the functions of oral language and what it is that makes spoken discourse effective. (Halliday 1977, 1985) And more recently, in ESL circles, we have had 'communicative' approaches to language that identify various functions for which we use language.

Obviously both these approaches are useful for teachers, but it is difficult to find a grammar that deals with both form and function and that explicates the relationship between them in a principled and systematic way. One such approach is Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) developed by Michael Halliday and colleagues. (Halliday 1985; Martin 2000, 2002; Matthiessen 1995)

In relation to education, the major principles of a functional approach include:

- language is seen as a resource for meaning, not a collection of rules;
- language is a system of choices and the role of the teacher is to extend the students' potential to mean rather than simply correcting grammatical errors;
- our choices are influenced by the context in which the language is being used;
- teaching practice is forward-looking, anticipating future developmental directions and providing the support needed to reach these;
- emphasis is placed on using language to achieve real-life purposes and the grammatical features which are relevant to achieving those purposes;
- meaning is constructed at the level of the text, though smaller units can be focused on within the context of a text.

### **Language development in early childhood**

To get a sense of what is meant by 'functional', we could look at Halliday's research into how babies and toddlers begin to learn and use language (Halliday 1975, 1978, 1979a; Painter 1984,

1989). Right from the start, babies use language to **do** things. The first noises made by an infant are relatively random, but from the age of around nine months, the baby develops its own meaning system, using certain sounds systematically to achieve particular functions:

Function/meaning	Sounding
obtaining material needs (eg 'I want that!')	eg 'yi'
controlling the behaviour of others (eg 'come with me')	eg 'a:ha:'
close social contact with a person (eg 'don't be cross with me!')	eg 'æ'
reflecting and asserting (eg 'that's nice!')	eg 'a yi:'
finding out about the world (eg 'what's that?')	eg 'a d da'
pretend play (eg 'let's pretend to be a lion!')	eg 'ra::o'

From around seventeen months, the child's language development undergoes a dramatic transformation. The child begins to dispense with the 'protolanguage' and to take on the mother tongue. Whereas the protolanguage had only two levels (meaning and sounding), a third stratum is now introduced – 'wording' (or grammar).

Meaning	Wording	Sounding
obtaining material needs	verb + complement	<i>Get ball!</i>

From these early protolanguage functions emerge two 'metafunctions':

- language for reflecting on the world
- language for acting upon the world

The child can now use language to **reflect on experience** (the Ideational function of language). Language is used to construct and expand the child's 'reality'. Through language the child represents the people, animals, and things in his or her life, the activities that they participate in, and the circumstances surrounding those activities ('where?', 'when?', 'how?' etc).

Language can also be used to **act upon the world** (the Interpersonal function of language). The child can now interact more fully with others by asking questions, making statements, giving commands and making requests. Interpersonal subtleties are introduced, such as expressing differing degrees of certainty, being positive or negative, using language to persuade, make judgements, communicate emotions, and so on.

As the child begins to make longer utterances, a third metafunction comes into play:

- language for shaping coherent and cohesive texts

This allows the child to **structure the flow of information** and to **make links** between different elements of the text (the Textual function of language).

These three functions of language (the Ideational, the Interpersonal and the Textual) are now all operating together in any utterance.

## Language development in later childhood

As children grow, these three functions play an increasingly important role in their social and

intellectual development.

It is through the **ideational** resources of language that they come to make sense of the world around them, from the everyday, familiar world through to the abstract, technical world of school and workplace.

It is through the **interpersonal** resources of language that they construct and maintain relationships, reflecting different degrees of distance, power, authority, expertise, intimacy, familiarity, and so on.

It is through the **textual** resources of language that they create both spoken and written texts that are comprehensible and that organise the ideational and interpersonal meanings in accessible ways.

The continua below (after Macken 1993) give an indication of how we might expect language to develop in later childhood in relation to these metafunctions:

*Using language to reflect on the world*

Early childhood	Later childhood
Uses language to construct a world of familiar, everyday, personal, concrete beings participating in a limited range of processes with little detail of the circumstances surrounding these processes.	Uses language to construct increasingly complex worlds, involving more abstract and technical participants that are more highly elaborated. Increasing detail in terms of 'how?', 'why?', 'when?', 'where?', etc.

*Using language to act on the world*

Early childhood	Later childhood
Uses language to interact informally with family and friends in relatively direct ways.	Uses language to construct a number of different roles and relationships with familiar and unfamiliar adults and peers in a range of contexts, drawing on a wider repertoire of interpersonal resources. Can deploy these resources to seek information, make requests, give opinions, persuade, deny, and so on in increasingly subtle and indirect ways.

*Using language to form coherent texts*

Early childhood	Later childhood
Uses language that is spontaneous, exploratory, free-flowing and closely tied to what's going on.	Uses language differently for spoken and written modes, with the ability to craft the flow of the text and make it independent of the physical setting. Language is used not only to explore but to reflect and consolidate, resulting in texts that are denser, compact, and more tightly organised.

In order to see how these language resources develop over the years, we will be analysing three texts – one written by a 5 year old just learning to write, one by a 7 year old, and one by a student about to enter secondary school. In order to compare these texts, however, we need first to look at their social purpose.

## Using language to achieve a particular purpose

A functional approach will generally start by looking at the overall meaning of the text. In particular, it will consider the social purpose and whether in fact the text successfully achieves that purpose. The following texts, for example, all involve the writer in argumentation – a purpose highly valued in academic and social contexts. In achieving its purpose, an argument moves through a number of stages, each performing a particular function in furthering the overall goal.

The introductory stage, for example, will generally include a statement of the position being taken or the issue to be discussed. The subsequent stages present arguments in support of the position (or in the case of Text B, ‘for’ and ‘against’ the issue). Each argument will typically be introduced by making a point, which is then elaborated upon by offering supporting evidence of various kinds. The concluding statement has the function of forcefully restating the position, drawing on the weight of the preceding argumentation to convince the reader of its soundness.

### Text A (Written by a 5 year old)

Schematic structure	Text
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• ‘Position statement’</li> </ul>	My favourite toy is my Sega game.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reason</li> </ul>	It is my favourite toy because the game takes so long.

As an embryonic expository text, this is a useful first step for a child of this age using the written mode. Young children are certainly capable of voicing opinions, but it is more difficult for a novice writer to marshal those opinions in a coherent way into a written text. Although it is simply structured, it contains all the elements needed to build more elaborated written arguments in the future. The student could be encouraged, for example, to develop the argumentation a bit further by providing more than one reason. In the future, topics could be suggested that provide greater scope for developing an argument.

### Text B: Discussion (Written by a 7 year old)

Schematic structure	Text
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Argument ‘for’               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Point 1</li> <li>• Point 2</li> <li>• Point 3</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>Many people believe transport [is] good.</p> <p>They can carry heavy loads and it helps people to meet each other and takes us to our destinations.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Argument ‘against’               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Point 1</li> <li>• Point 2</li> <li>• Point 3</li> <li>• Point 4</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>Many people think transport is a bad thing.</p> <p>Many people drive cars and pollute the air.</p> <p>Transport can kill people and it’s noisy and they cause road rage or they may start fights.</p>

In terms of its schematic structure the text presents points both for and against transport, each position being introduced by a topic sentence. It lacks, however, an introduction to the issue being discussed (either in a title or in an introductory statement). It also lacks a concluding

statement summing up or making a final judgement. In addition, the arguments presented for each side consist simply of points with no elaboration.

**Text C: Should 16 & 17 year olds get “the dole”?** (Written by a 12 year old)

Schematic structure	Text
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Issue</li> </ul>	<p>The Government is considering &lt;&lt; and in fact, is about to take action on&gt;&gt; stopping “The Dole” payment for 16 and 17 year olds.            The reason is [[that the teenagers [[that the Government is paying the “Dole” to]] are always the unemployed and those [[who don’t go to school]] ]].            The Government feels that their families should be responsible for them.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Argument 1</li> </ul>	<p>At this age, teenagers should be doing the HSC.            If they do not do this, then they do not get any money from Austudy.            They should not get the dole and miss out on an important education.            Since the Government is paying “dole” to the 16 &amp; 17 year olds [[who have no education]], the Government wants to encourage the children to go to school and learn things.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Argument 2</li> </ul>	<p>Another reason [[that the Government does not want to spend the money for 16 and 17 year olds]], is [[that the Government could use the money for different purposes, such as education]].            Also, the Government could spend the money on community services, such as family counselling.            This would benefit the whole community, not just the 16 &amp; 17 year olds.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Argument 3</li> </ul>	<p>The Government has been treating the students worse than the people [[who are unemployed]].            It seems [[that the Government is now changing its attitude]].            Teenagers are starting to go back to school.            Now to use the saying:    <i>If you help yourself, then someone will help you.</i>              The Government should care more about students [[who work hard to improve themselves]], than about the unemployed teenagers.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Conclusion (Argument 4?)</li> </ul>	<p>Even though 16 &amp; 17 year olds are teenagers, they can be still considered as children.            When people consider them as children, then their parents should look after them.            It is not the responsibility of the Government.</p>

This text manages to organise a range of points into a sequence of ordered stages. This in itself is an achievement that requires planning and reflection. There is an introductory statement outlining the issue under discussion, followed by three supporting arguments, each containing some elaboration (including examples), with a conclusion that seeks to refer back to the introductory statement.

There is room for further improvement, however. The writer could, for example, be guided towards making the function of each stage more evident for the reader. In the introductory statement, for instance, it is not clear what the writer’s position is. The reader is unsure whether

the text will be an account of the Government's reasons or an argument in defence (or otherwise) of the Government's position. Arguments 1 and 3 could also be introduced more forcefully by shifting the more generalised statements into topic sentence position (ie Argument 1: '[Teenagers] should not get the dole and miss out on an important education'; Argument 3: 'The Government should care more about students who work hard to improve themselves than about the unemployed teenagers.'). The conclusion doesn't pull together the previous argumentation to make a strong case. Rather it simply repeats a point made in the opening statement.

By drawing students' attention to how the structuring of a text is related to its purpose, they are in a position to reflect on how and whether each stage is contributing to the overall fulfilment of that purpose. Students and teachers share an understanding of what makes different types of texts effective and a language for discussing those understandings.

## **Using language to reflect on the world**

Let's now look at these three texts in terms of the ways in which language is functioning to represent the child's experience and interpretation of the phenomena of both the physical world and of the world of inner consciousness. Here the clause construes a 'theory of human experience', representing processes (actions, happenings, events, states and relations), entities that participate in these processes (persons, animate and inanimate objects, institutions, abstractions) and circumstantial features (extent, location in time and space, cause, manner, and so on). (Halliday 1979b)

### ***Text A***

The world being constructed here is a simple one of familiar, particular, everyday objects (My favourite toy, my Sega game). The main grammatical resources are noun groups that describe ('favourite') and classify ('Sega') the game. In terms of developing an argument, the most significant feature is the use of a clause of reason ('because the game takes so long').

Given the limitations of the topic, the child has demonstrated a quite adequate control of the grammatical resources needed to achieve the outcome of stating a preference and giving a reason. Further classwork to build up the field before writing could have resulted in a richer representation of experience (for example, by developing more descriptive noun groups (eg 'my new sega game that my parents gave me for my birthday') or providing further reasons (eg 'and because I can play it with my friends')).

### ***Text B***

The world represented here is a more generalised one – no longer a particular game owned by a specific person, but people in general ('many people') having opinions about a generalised class of things ('transport'). Clauses are used to indicate people's reasoning ('Many people believe/think ...), to describe ('it's noisy'), and to represent what transport does ('can carry', 'helps', 'takes', 'can kill') – all appropriate processes in a text of this type.

The move to generalisation is a significant step in the learning process. The world of this text is not peopled with specific, known individuals. It is still, however, an everyday world filled with concrete participants and activities ('transport', 'loads', 'cars', 'fights'). This world is constructed in a straightforward way, that is, the actions are expressed by basic verb groups (eg 'helps',

‘takes’, ‘starts’) and the participants are represented by relatively unelaborated noun groups (eg ‘heavy loads’). But amid these simple expressions, there is a significant instance of development in the use of ‘to our destinations’. A younger child (using the spoken mode) would probably have said ‘Transport takes us *where we want to go*’. In this text, this has been compacted into ‘destinations’. That is, a clause has been reduced to a noun group. This strategy (‘nominalisation’) is typical of the language of adults in the written mode.

### *Text C*

Again the world here is generalised (‘teenagers’, ‘the unemployed’, ‘the Government’) but, in addition, there has been a critical move towards abstraction (‘attitude’, ‘reason’, ‘purposes’, ‘responsibility’) – an essential characteristic of mature argumentation. Even the verbs are more abstract (‘benefit’, ‘treating’, ‘improve’). It is a world not only of actions, but of thinking (‘considering’, ‘learn’) and feeling (‘wants to encourage’, ‘care’, ‘feels’). There is evidence of technical terminology specific to the field (‘dole’, ‘community services’, ‘family counselling’). And, unlike the previous two texts, there is a fleshing out of circumstantial details (‘at this age’, ‘for different purposes’, ‘on community services’).

Whereas in Text 2, the logical reasoning was expressed only through implicit causal relations (‘...transport is good [*because*] they can carry heavy loads’), in Text 3 there is ample use of a variety of connectives appropriate to argumentation (‘If ... then ...’, ‘Since ...’, ‘Also ...’, ‘Even though ...’, ‘When ...’). More importantly, some of the causal relations have been nominalised. Instead of using the conjunction ‘because’, the writer has used a noun group - ‘the reason’. In this way, it can assume a position of prominence at the beginning of the clause, allowing for the subsequent ‘another reason’.

In contrast to the simple noun groups of the previous two texts, the participants in this text are expressed by highly elaborated groups (‘the teenagers that the Government is paying the dole to’, ‘another reason that the Government does not want to spend the money on 16 and 17 year olds’, ‘the people who are unemployed’, ‘students who work hard to improve themselves’, ‘the responsibility of the Government’). This compacting of information into noun groups makes for tighter argumentation.

Similarly, verbs groups include a greater amount of information, such as being more specific about the timing of an action (‘is about to take action’, ‘starting to go back’).

## **Using language to act on the world**

We will now examine how the writers of these three texts draw on those resources that enable the establishment and maintenance of social relations. Interpersonal grammar is seen as a principle of social action. It is primarily through the interpersonal metafunction that the child intrudes his or her individual self through the expression of evaluation, attitudes, opinions, and the like.

### *Text A*

The young writer of text A establishes a firm presence in the text through the use of the first person possessive ‘my’ – used three times. The feelings of the writer come through in the use of ‘favourite’ (twice). And there is an increased force by the use of ‘so [long]’.

There is no concession by the writer to other possibilities. There is an assertion ('It is my favourite toy') and this is reinforced by evidence ('because it takes so long'). This is reasonable in this case as there are no grounds to dispute this personal opinion. Where the issue might be more contentious, however, the writer will need to learn to be a bit more circumspect, allowing room for negotiation.

### **Text B**

Here the writer has allowed for other possibilities. The assertion is tempered by the use of 'many' (rather than 'all'). The use of modal verbs also opens up the text to negotiation ('transport *can* kill people', 'they *may* start fights'). Small concessions, but an important realisation in terms of effective argumentation.

The person of the writer has been distanced from the text through the use of 'many people believe'. By giving the responsibility to a large number of 'others', the text garners greater authority. (Though of course, later, the student will need to substantiate such claims.)

Unlike Text A, this text expresses the writer's judgement ('transport is good', 'transport is a bad thing') rather than feelings. The rather blunt attitudinal adjectives, 'good' and 'bad', will need revisiting at a later age. To emphasise the negative aspects of transport, the writer has chosen emotive words such as 'pollute', 'kill', 'road rage', and 'fights'. To heighten this effect, the writer could have employed intensifiers ('*very* noisy').

### **Text C**

Through the title of the text, the writer starts interacting with the reader by asking a rhetorical question. The text continues to engage the reader by leaving room for negotiation. Verbs that don't make absolute statements ('the Government is considering', 'It seems that') indicate that the writer is aware of the value of not being overly assertive. On the other hand, the writer is not averse to using high modality to make a strong statement when necessary ('their families should be responsible for them', 'teenagers should be doing the HSC', 'they should not get the dole'). The use of modality is a key resource in argumentation.

The case against the unemployed is developed through the use of negatives ('those who *don't* go to school', 'the 16 & 17 year olds who have *no* education', 'If they do *not* do this, they do *not* get any money from Austudy. They should *not* get the dole.', 'the Government does *not* want to spend', 'It is *not* the responsibility of the Government') while the case for alternative uses of the money is couched in positive terms ('an important education', 'encourage the children to go to school', 'community services, such as family counselling', 'benefit the whole community', 'improve themselves'). Interestingly, the writer has not used correspondingly derogatory terms for the unemployed (eg 'dole bludgers'). This restraint might not have been deliberate, but it does have the effect giving the perception of arguing rationally rather than emotively.

In an effort to recruit support from an external source, the student has included a traditional saying: 'If you help yourself, then someone will help you.'. While this has been inserted in the text in a very clumsy way ('Now to use the saying ...') and is only at the level of 'hearsay', there is nevertheless an awareness of the necessity to cite authorities to substantiate arguments. This could be a point of further development.

## Using language to form coherent texts

The three texts demonstrate development in terms of how language is being used by the writers to construct texts that are cohesive and coherent. The text-forming resources deployed to achieve this include using the beginning of the clause to signal how the text is being developed, and the use of cohesive devices such as pronouns, connectives and lexical items to make links within the text.

### *Text A*

For an early attempt at a written text, this student has achieved a successful transition from speaking to writing. The text is self-contained and readily understood, with no assumption of shared knowledge or reference to the physical setting. It is, perhaps, overly cohesive with the repetition of ‘my favourite toy’, which could have been avoided by collapsing the two sentences.

### *Text B*

This text has many features of the written mode. Related meanings, for example, are organised into paragraphs and some punctuation is used to indicate the boundaries of these units (though this could do with some attention).

Although written, the text also has some characteristics of the spoken mode – typical of the texts of younger writers. The final sentence, for instance, consists of a string of loosely connected clauses linked by simple conjunctions (‘and’, ‘and’, ‘or’). There is also a problem with the use of pronouns referring back to ‘transport’. Because it is a mass noun, the writer is unsure whether to use the singular (‘it’) or the plural (‘they’) and alternates between the two throughout the text.

A strong link is set up in the text by the use of the antonyms ‘good’ and ‘bad’. The two main stages of the text are also linked by the use of a parallel structure:

Many people believe transport is good. ...

Many people believe transport is a bad thing.

While, at this stage, this is probably not due to a conscious crafting of the text, it is nevertheless a useful rhetorical strategy that could be built on in later, more complex texts where a certain symmetry and rhythm might be needed.

The method of development of the text employs a very simple structuring of information, with the beginning of the clause being used to pursue the two main themes: ‘many people’ and ‘transport’. (A minor point of interest, however, is the second use of ‘many people’ in the second paragraph. Here it is not being used to maintain a continuity with the previous mention of ‘many people’ – they are not really the same people being referred to. Rather, the writer at this point needed to shift the focus back to transport, but probably had trouble finding a way of saying ‘*The great number of cars pollute the air*’ and could only reach for the more everyday ‘*Many people drive cars and pollute the air*’.)

### *Text C*

This text displays the qualities of a mature, cohesive written text. The writer has managed to sustain the links over an extended text. Reference is made to ‘teenagers’, for example, by a range of cohesive devices (‘those’, ‘their [families]’, ‘them’, ‘they’). Of greater significance is the use

of words that refer back to a whole stretch of text ('If they do not do *this...*', '*This* would benefit ...'). This is a strategy typical of more adult expository texts.

Relationships are built up between lexical items in a variety of ways:

- repetition ('the Government' is repeated 11 times, reminding us that it is a key participant in this text)
- synonyms ('16 & 17 year olds', 'teenagers', 'the children')
- antonyms ('students', 'the unemployed')
- class/sub-class ('*community services* such as *family counselling*')
- whole/part ('families', 'parents', 'children')
- collocation ('the dole', 'money from Austudy', 'spend the money', 'use the money').

The writer uses the beginning of the clause to indicate to the reader how the argument is being developed by using connectives such as 'also', 'another reason', and 'now'. The beginning of the clause is also used to give prominence to phrases such as 'At this age'.

## **Implications for teaching**

One could argue that much of the above discussion reflects everyday intuitions that teachers exercise daily in evaluating students' language use. And to a certain extent this is true. The value of having a model such as the above lies in the fact that teachers have access to an explicit, organised body of knowledge that can be shared with other teachers and with their students. Extending students' linguistic potential can be done in a more systematic and deliberate way. While students' linguistic ability will develop naturally simply by using language in authentic contexts, an awareness of the language demands of those contexts can help teachers to finetune students' abilities, providing extra support for those not yet able to cope with the demands and extending those who are reaching for higher levels of control.

Drawing on insights about language and language development such as the above, a teacher would be in a position to:

- identify purposes for using language that are critical to students' academic and social progress;
- design activities that focus on developing language resources relevant to those purposes;
- specify language outcomes that are appropriate to the current level of language development of the students;
- assess whether these outcomes are being achieved;
- anticipate areas of future development and provide the necessary groundwork.

At a very broad level, curriculum planning might begin with identifying the language that students will need to control in order to meet the challenges posed by schooling. From a functional perspective, this would involve starting with the relevant purposes and functions of language, asking questions such as:

- What are the social purposes (eg arguing, describing, recounting, explaining, instructing) for which my students will need to use language in order to succeed in school? More specifically, which text types will need to be worked on during the course of the year?
- What linguistic resources do my students need for representing their experience of the world

— the world of everyday experience, the world of the imagination, the technical world of the scientist, the abstract world of the historian, the workplace world, the world of the mathematician, and so on? More specifically, what is the subject-matter that they will need to come to grips with and what is the language specific to such understandings and knowledge?

- What linguistic resources do my students need for interacting in the world in culturally sensitive ways across a range of contexts with people from various discourse communities? How do they use language in developing their subjectivity through their interactions with others? More specifically, are they able to demonstrate flexibility in asking different types of questions, proffering opinions, requesting services, offering to do things, moderating their assertions, expressing emotions and judgement, and so on? And can they recognise how such linguistic resources are being used by others to position them in particular ways?
- What linguistic resources do my students need for constructing both spoken and written texts that are coherent and cohesive? More specifically, are they able to engage in oral interaction, creating meanings effectively and with clarity? Are they able to construct written texts that are carefully crafted, shaping the flow of information in the text and creating cohesive links so that the reader is able to negotiate the intended meaning?

Even if the teacher were never to explicitly teach grammar in the classroom, an understanding of language from a functional perspective provides the teacher with guidance in identifying situational needs; selecting and sequencing relevant language-based activities; drawing students' attention to pertinent instances of language during such activities as Shared Book and writing conferences; perceiving students' current strengths and monitoring their developing control of specific resources. The challenge is then to ascertain whether, if such knowledge is found to be useful by the teacher, it might be productive to share some of it explicitly with the students. Given that language is absolutely integral to everything they do in their daily lives, it would seem appropriate to provide them with tools to reflect on how it works.

## References

- Halliday, M.A.K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1977) 'Ideas about language', In *Aims and Perspectives in Linguistics, Occasional Paper No.1*. Applied Linguistics Association of Australia
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978) 'Meaning and the construction of reality in early childhood.' in H. Pick and E. Saltzman (Eds), *Modes of Perceiving and Processing of Information*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1979a) 'One child's protolanguage' in M. Bullowa (Ed.), *Before Speech: The Beginning of Interpersonal Communication*. Cambridge: CUP
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1979b) 'Modes of meaning and modes of expression: types of grammatical structure and their determination by different semantic functions' in D.J.Allerton, E. Carney and D. Holdcroft (Eds), *Functions and Context in Linguistic Analysis: a Festschrift for William Haas*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1985) *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold
- Macken, M. (1993) 'Literacy and learning across the curriculum' (unpublished paper)
- Martin, J.R. (2000) 'Grammar meets genre: Reflections on the 'Sydney School'', Inaugural lecture, Sydney University Arts Association
- Martin, J.R. (2002 in press) 'Meaning beyond the clause: SFL perspectives' in *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Cambridge
- Matthiessen, C.M.I. (1995) *Lexicogrammatical Cartography: English systems*, Tokyo: International Language Sciences Publishers
- Painter, C. (1984) *Into the Mothertongue: A Case Study in Early Language Development*. London: Pinter
- Painter, C. (1989) 'Learning language: a functional view of language development' in R.Hasan and J.R.Martin (Eds), *Language Development: Learning Language, Learning Culture: Meaning and Choice in Language: Studies for Michael Halliday* (Advances in Discourse Processes, vol.27). Norwood, N.J.: Ablex

Make grammar relevant to your students with this fun exercise that requires them to correct these egregious Facebook errors. Parenting Plan Parenting Styles Good Parenting Teaching Writing In Writing Vocabulary Words Homeschool Curriculum Middle School How To Memorize Things. How to Be Your Child's Partner in Writing A Brave Writer's Life in Brief. After working with parents for years, we have learned that there is often a reluctance to give your own efforts to your child's writing. But kids with parents who are involved in their education get better grades, and as a result, they feel more s The while-grammar stage should facilitate noticing of the new grammar point, and provide meaningful input through contextual examples, pictures, and texts. Finally, the post-grammar stage should provide an opportunity to put grammar to use, and relate grammar instruction to real life situations. There are so many problems facing L2 teachers about teaching grammar. A grammar teacher remains in a state of confusion to decide whether he/ she should follow the old prescriptive approach or the descriptive approach of the Structural Linguists; whether he/ she should aim at the achievement of 3 gramm... Another way to teach grammar effectively is to make it interesting and relevant to the students. Claudia Pesce has a great suggestion on how to teach the past perfect tense. It is one of those tenses that aren't used a lot (most native English speakers don't even use it) and you might wonder why you need to teach it to your ESL students. While we may not use the past perfect tense so often, it is necessary to teach it to our students because it will help them to become more fluent and take their English to a higher level. Previously, she taught online English lessons to students from all around the world and, before that, she lived and taught English to young learners in Taiwan. In her free time, she likes to read, do scrapbooking and grammar quizzes, and travel.