

Universidade Federal de Uberlândia
Curso de Letras/Inglês

**Estudos Linguísticos em
Língua Inglesa III**

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ESTUDOS LINGUÍSTICOS EM LÍNGUA INGLESA IIII

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INTRODUÇÃO

Caro(a) aprendiz,

Seja bem-vindo(a) à disciplina “Estudos Linguísticos em Língua Inglesa III” oferecida pelo curso de Letras: Licenciatura em Inglês e Literaturas de Língua Inglesa a Distância, do Instituto de Letras e Linguística da UFU. Este guia foi elaborado no contexto do Plano Nacional de Formação de Professores da Educação Básica - PARFOR/UFU. O objetivo de todo curso de Licenciatura é contribuir para a qualificação de professores dos Ensinos Fundamental e Médio, por meio de formação acadêmico-pedagógica, desenvolvida a partir de uma relação de autonomia que envolve processos de transformação, em uma perspectiva continuada.

Continuamos, com esse guia, a sequência de disciplinas intituladas “Estudos Linguísticos em Língua Inglesa.” Essas disciplinas apresentam estudos da língua em uma abordagem mais tradicional da Linguística, com foco em aspectos fonéticos/fonológicos, morfológicos e sintáticos, tomando como referência as línguas inglesa e portuguesa.

Os objetivos principais desta disciplina são: introduzir noções de teoria de sintaxe e analisar o funcionamento da estrutura sintática na língua inglesa.

É importante lembrá-lo de que a leitura deste guia deve ser articulada ao Ambiente Virtual de Aprendizagem (*Moodle*). Você também deve estar atento às orientações que receberá ao longo do curso, por meio do (a) seu (sua) tutor (a).

Considerando a ementa e os objetivos da disciplina, organizamo-la nos seguintes módulos:

Módulo 1 – Syntax: background, terminology and perspectives

Módulo 2 – Phrases, clause elements and syntactic functions

Módulo 3 – Clauses and sentences

Módulo 4 – Practical English Usage: some structures and their complexity

Os módulos têm a duração de aproximadamente duas semanas, totalizando em torno de 15 horas de estudos, ou 60 horas ao todo. Ao final do último módulo, haverá uma semana para a revisão e estudo do conteúdo antes da prova presencial.

Adotaremos uma abordagem de avaliação formativa, ou seja, você será avaliado durante o processo de aprendizagem. Para que você tenha uma referência sobre os parâmetros que utilizaremos nas diversas atividades avaliativas, sempre apresentaremos uma lista de critérios denominados “*Performance* cinco estrelas”, composta de cinco enunciados que explicam o que é esperado em cada atividade avaliativa. Uma das atividades apresentará uma lista de critérios com 10 enunciados explicando o que é esperado da atividade e a pontuação será, então, de 10 pontos. As atividades desenvolvidas no Ambiente Virtual de Aprendizagem *Moodle* correspondem a 45% da nota final da disciplina e os 55% restantes referem-se à prova escrita realizada presencialmente, depois de concluídas as atividades do Módulo 4, conforme o calendário do curso.

Ao longo de toda esta nossa disciplina, você terá apoio tecnológico e pedagógico, por meio de seu (sua) tutor(a), para desenvolver as atividades propostas nos diversos materiais didáticos e para esclarecer dúvidas. Fique sempre atento(a), não perca os prazos e não se intimide: indague, colabore, discuta, argumente e pergunte novamente. Participe das atividades colaborativas, envie suas atividades conforme orientação e conheça a agenda dos módulos e o cronograma de sua disciplina:

1ª e 2ª semanas	3ª e 4ª semanas	5ª e 6ª semanas	7ª e 8ª semanas	9ª semana
Módulo 1	Módulo 2	Módulo 3	Módulo 4	Avaliação pre-sencial
04/05 a 15/05	16/05 a 27/05	28/05 a 08/06	09/06 a 21/06	26 e 27/06 Fechamento
15 horas	15 horas	15 horas	15 horas	

Para que você se mantenha permanentemente informado, visite o Ambiente Virtual de Aprendizagem *Moodle* diariamente, leia o quadro de avisos e abra sua caixa de *e-mail* interno com frequência. Esperamos que você se empenhe e que participe deste processo de construção coletiva, com muito entusiasmo, e que tenha sucesso em todas as suas atividades durante este nosso percurso compartilhado. Saiba que poderá contar com toda uma equipe multidisciplinar que está pronta a apoiar o que há de mais importante em nosso curso: VOCÊ!

Agora conheça a agenda geral da disciplina e planeje seu processo de aprendizagem; estabeleça suas metas, organize seu tempo e programe-se.

AGENDA GERAL DA DISCIPLINA

DATAS	MÓDULOS	TAREFAS	AValiação
04/05 a 15/05	Módulo 1 15 horas	Task 1: Video Task 2: Glossary Task 3: Reading Task 4: Forum	Tarefas 2 e 4 Avaliação Formativa
16/05 a 27/05	Módulo 2 15 horas	Task 5: Forum Task 6: Surf and Practice Task 7: Reading Task 8: Questionnaire	Tarefas 5 e 8 Avaliação Formativa
28/05 a 08/06	Módulo 3 15 horas	Task 9: Surf and practice Task 10: Videos Task 11: Forum Task 12: Questionnaire	Tarefas 11 e 12 Avaliação Formativa
09/06 a 21/06	Módulo 4 15 horas	Task 13: Video Task 14: Reading Task 15: Surf and practice Task 16: Forum Task 17: Wiki	Tarefas 16 e 17 Avaliação Formativa

INFORMAÇÕES

Vamos, na sequência, dar início ao Módulo 1, mas antes gostaríamos que você se familiarizasse com os ícones que usaremos no guia impresso ao longo da disciplina para lhe auxiliar nas leituras e em seus estudos. Eles são bem intuitivos e você vai se apropriar deles desde o início. Vamos lá:



Áudio



Vídeo



Leituras
Indicadas



Multimídia



Atividades
Guia Impresso



Atividades
Ambiente Virtual



Saiba Mais



Pare e Pense



Pesquisando
na rede



Referências

CRONOGRAMA

Módulo 1	Módulo 2	Módulo 3	Módulo 4
04/05 a 15/05	16/05 a 27/05	28/05 a 08/06	09/06 a 21/06
15h de atividades no <i>Moodle</i>	15h de atividades no <i>Moodle</i>	15h de atividades no <i>Moodle</i>	15h de atividades no <i>Moodle</i>
De 22 a 25 de junho: período para revisões e preparação para a prova presencial			

Módulo 1: Syntax: background, terminology and perspectives

UNIT 1

Outline of Unit 1

Tasks	Description	Assessment
Task 1 – Video	Vídeo com excerto do filme “Life of Brian” do grupo Monty Python, disponível em: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IIAdHEwiAy8 , para posterior reflexão.	As atividades 2 e 4 serão avaliadas segundo critérios estabelecidos.
Task 2 – Glossary	Compilação de glossário de termos relacionados à Syntax.	
Task 3 – Reading	Leitura de três textos escritos em língua portuguesa e em gêneros diferentes: um texto de blog, um capítulo de uma dissertação e um artigo de revista científica sobre o tema da unidade	
Task 4 – Forum	Discussão do tópico “Grammar and Syntax” com seu tutor e seus colegas após as leituras do guia e dos textos propostos.	

Let's get started!

Dear learner,

We invite you to know in advance what we intend to cover in the first unit of this course which focuses on syntax, so that the goals and the process to achieve these goals become clear. You will find below what we are supposed to do in the first two weeks of this course.

Let's work together! 😊

📄 List of contents:

- Background and terminology of grammar
- Types of grammar
- Adopting a usage perspective on grammar

🎯 Goals:

- Conduct a research activity for a better understanding of the terminology in the field
- Reflect on basic concepts related to syntax
- Discuss with classmates and tutors about the topics presented

🔗 Main resources:

- Textbook; Virtual Learning Environment *Moodle*; *Web*.

🕒 Estimated time to complete this unit:

To complete the reading of this unit in the textbook and the proposed tasks, we suggest you dedicate at least 15 hours.

☑ Criteria for Formative Assessment

1) Glossary – 5 points.

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions and posted a definition of at least one of the words in the list, indicating your name and the name of your tutor at the end of the post.
- ★ You have inserted, at least one comment with a translation and an explanation in Portuguese after the definition posted by a classmate.
- ★ You have followed the expectation of the genre definition and also indicated the source.
- ★ You have demonstrated lexical-grammatical accuracy in your writing.
- ★ You have completed the discussion tasks on time.

2) Participation in the Forum of Discussions – 5 points.

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions for participation without deviating from them.
- ★ Your arguments are theoretically founded, demonstrating you have read the texts and studied the textbook attentively.
- ★ You collaborated with your tutor and with your classmates.
- ★ Your text is appropriate to the demands of academic writing.
- ★ You have completed the discussion tasks on time.

Unit 1 – Syntax: background, terminology and perspectives_____

Sentence structure is the object of interest in the studies of a branch of Linguistics named Syntax, concerned not only with the study of sentence structure but also with the order of its elements. The term “syntax” comes from the Ancient Greek *sýntaxis*, a verbal noun which literally means “arrangement” or “setting out together”. In this course, we are going to focus on the study of this field, which covers the rules that govern the use of natural languages.

1. Why should we study grammar?

In order to reflect upon the reasons why we study grammar, and therefore Syntax, we illustrate with a video from Monty Python, a British comedy group that created a television comedy sketch show and made forty-five episodes over four series.



Task 1 - Video

Let's watch a funny video: “Grammar Lesson” from Monty Python. This is the scene of Monty Python's movie “Life of Brian” (1979) where Brian is given a Latin lesson. Go to: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IIAdHEwiAy8>.

Read the subtitles to help you better understand the movie excerpt:

CENTURION: What's this, then? 'Romanes Eunt Domus'? 'People called Romanes they go the house'?

BRIAN: It-- it says, 'Romans, go home'.

CENTURION: No, it doesn't. What's Latin for 'Roman'? Come on!

BRIAN: Aah!

CENTURION: Come on!

BRIAN: 'R-- Romanus'?

CENTURION: Goes like...?

BRIAN: 'Annus'?

CENTURION: Vocative plural of 'annus' is...?

BRIAN: Eh. 'Anni'?

CENTURION: 'Romani'. 'Eunt'? What is 'eunt'?

BRIAN: 'Go'. Let--

CENTURION: Conjugate the verb 'to go'.

BRIAN: Uh. 'Ire'. Uh, 'eo'. 'Is'. 'It'. 'Imus'. 'Itis'. 'Eunt'.

CENTURION: So 'eunt' is...?

BRIAN: Ah, huh, third person plural, uh, present indicative. Uh, 'they go'.

CENTURION: But 'Romans, go home' is an order, so you must use the...?

BRIAN: The... imperative!

CENTURION: Which is...?

BRIAN: Umm! Oh. Oh. Um, 'i'. 'I'!

CENTURION: How many Romans?

BRIAN: Ah! 'I'-- Plural. Plural. 'Ite'. 'Ite'.

CENTURION: 'Ite'.

BRIAN: Ah. Eh.

CENTURION: 'Domus'?

BRIAN: Eh.

CENTURION: Nominative?

BRIAN: Oh.

CENTURION: 'Go home'? This is motion towards. Isn't it, boy?

BRIAN: Ah. Ah, dative, sir! Ahh! No, not dative! Not the dative, sir! No! Ah! Oh, the... accusative! Accusative! Ah! 'Domum', sir! 'Ad domum'! Ah! Oooh! Ah!

CENTURION: Except that 'domus' takes the...?

BRIAN: The locative, sir!

CENTURION: Which is...?!

BRIAN: 'Domum'.

CENTURION: 'Domum'.

BRIAN: Aaah! Ah.

CENTURION: 'Um'. Understand?

BRIAN: Yes, sir.

CENTURION: Now, write it out a hundred times.

BRIAN: Yes, sir. Thank you, sir. Hail Caesar, sir.

CENTURION: Hail Caesar. If it's not done by sunrise, I'll cut your balls off.

BRIAN: Oh, thank you, sir. Thank you, sir. Hail Caesar and everything, sir! Oh. Mmm! Finished!

ROMAN SOLDIER STIG: Right. Now don't do it again.

[CENTURIONS chase BRIAN]

MAN: Hey! Bloody Romans.



SINOPSIS: On a midnight clear 2,000 years ago, three wise men enter a manger where a babe is wrapped in swaddling clothes. It is an infant called Brian ... and the three wise men are in the wrong manger. For the rest of his life, Brian (Graham Chapman) finds himself regarded as something of a messiah -- yet he's always in the shadow of this other guy from Galilee. Brian is witness to the Sermon of the Mount, but his seat is in such a bad location that he can't hear any of it ("Blessed are the cheesemakers?"). Ultimately, he is brought before Pontius Pilate and sentenced to crucifixion, which takes place at that crowded, non-exclusive execution site a few blocks shy of Calvary. Rather than utter the Last Six Words, Brian leads his fellow crucifixeers in a spirited rendition of a British music-hall cheer-up song "Always Look on the Bright Side of Life." Source: http://www.rottentomatoes.com/m/monty_pythons_life_of_brian/

Of course this is meant to be a comedy, but it may depict how grammar is sometimes treated in schools worldwide: as something to be memorized by students. Anyway, what do you believe grammar is? What is its importance in the process of teaching and learning a foreign language? What should be the approach when teaching it?



Let's reflect on the importance of learning grammar and how it should be learned. Think of the previous questions and jot down some of your thoughts.



We believe English teachers as a foreign or second language should be aware of formal and functional premises so that they are able to make informed choices on how to teach in a contemporary context. Larsen-Freeman (2002) proposes more fluid and dynamic notions of reason-driven "grammaring", which would be the ability to use grammar structures accurately, meaningfully and appropriately. Grammatical knowledge consists of knowing when to use the forms to convey meanings that match our intention in particular contexts and also to understand meanings conveyed by others.

As English as a foreign language teachers, we should know the terminology in the field because it is very difficult to explain a grammar structure without using metalanguage. Also, we should know the structure rules, simply because most learners compare those of English with their native languages. For instance, the proportion of errors caused by native language interference can range from about 30% to 65%. If we can make students aware of the importance of the subject in English, for instance, since all complete sentences, except for command form, contain subjects, the error of a missing subject may be minimized. Also, we should know when and how to teach particular nuances of noun and verb phrases in English, since they may be indefinitely complex once the constituents can be reshaped and reordered to come within phrase structures.

All in all, as teachers, we do not want our students, probably future teachers, to see grammar as a straitjacket. Following Larsen-Freeman's (2002) footsteps, we want them to see it as a flexible, incredibly rich system that enables proficient speakers to express meaning in a way appropriate to the context, to how they want to present themselves, and to the particular perspective they want to contribute. We should think critically no matter what we are teaching and try to foster that in our students too. In Paulo Freire's words¹, "we must adopt a critical view, that of the person who questions, who doubts, who investigates, and who wants to illuminate the very life we live".

2. Understanding terms

Let's remember that a group of definitions or dictionary entry-like texts can form a glossary, also known as an idioticon or vocabulary. A glossary is an alphabetical list of important words from a particular domain of knowledge. It is like a small dictionary meant to give you a quick look up of words from a specific area. It is usually found in the back of a textbook, but when using a virtual learning environment, we can have access to different terms which are important for us at the click of a button.

That is what we are going to do now: produce a glossary. You are going to find below a list of terms belonging to the fields of syntax. You need to select at least one of them and research a definition for it. In case you want to bring a different term that is not in the list, please ask your tutor if this term is appropriate to be added.

LIST OF TERMS

agreement	embedded sentences	predicative
appositive	gerund	proximity concord
aspect	modifier	reported speech
clause	mood	tag question
clefting	modality	tense
collocation	notional concord	valency
compound sentences	participle	voice
complex sentences	phrase	word

We are going to provide an example for you:

Subordinating Conjunction - This is a word that joins (*conjunction*) two clauses in a way that attributes a supporting role to the clause it's in, like this: *After it rained, many mushrooms were found in the forest.* See there? The most important idea is *mushrooms were found in the forest*, the *after* clause tells you a little something more about it. Some other subordinating conjunctions in English are: *although, as if, because, if, when, while*. Source: Available at: http://www.languages.uncc.edu/classics/reading_latin/Reading_Latin/glossary.htm.

Another interesting site to look up terms is: <http://www-01.sil.org/linguistics/glossaryOfLinguisticTerms/>

It is important to remember to mention the source where you have found the definition. Besides that, as the glossary is an activity for all the students studying the course, from all different classes, you have to write your name and the name of your tutor after the definition in order to simplify the assessment process.

1 Available at: <http://writingbrownbag.blogspot.com.br/2009/01/paulo-freire.html>

When you are done posting your term, definition, source and authorship, it is time to take a look at your classmates' posts. You are supposed to choose at least one of the terms defined by a classmate and add a comment to it.

O seu comentário deverá ser a tradução do termo para o português (no exemplo, conjunção subordinada) e uma explicação também em português.



Task 2 - Glossary

Now choose a term to define it, enter our virtual learning environment Moodle. In Unit 1, you will find the link to insert a new item in the glossary. Review the step by step process in Portuguese:

1. *Clique em "Inserir novo item".*
2. *Digite o conceito e sua definição (seguida de fonte, nome e nome do tutor).*
3. *Clique em "Salvar mudanças".*
4. *Vá até o conceito de pelo menos um dos itens postados por um colega e clique em "Comentário". Em seguida, faça seu comentário.*

Congratulations! You have just completed our first collaborative task using our online environment. It will be interesting to keep on inserting new items you find during our course.

3. More on Grammar

According to Yule (1985), words can only be combined in a limited number of patterns. Some of these patterns may be ill-formed or ungrammatical. Thus, we need a way of describing the structure of phrases and sentences which will account for all the ungrammatical sequences. Providing such an account involves us in the study of grammar. We should note, however, that this term is frequently used to cover a number of different phenomena.

TYPES OF GRAMMAR

One might think grammar refers only to the set of structural rules that govern natural languages, but in fact we can identify different types of grammar, in the fields of psychology, sociology and linguistics, which include aspects of morphology, phonology, phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics, besides syntax. Some grammars or style books focused on usage also tend to use the term to refer to spelling and even punctuation.

1. **Comparative Grammar** – focuses on the analysis and comparison of the grammatical structures of languages.
2. **Generative Grammar** – “a generative grammar is a theory of competence: a model of the psychological system of unconscious knowledge that underlies a speaker's ability to produce and interpret utterances in a language.” (PARKER; RILEY, 1994).
3. **Mental Grammar** – a form of internal linguistic knowledge which operates in the production and recognition of appropriately structured expressions in that language. “All humans are born with the capacity for constructing a Mental Grammar, given linguistic experience; this capacity for language is called the Language Faculty (CHOMSKY, 1965).
4. **Pedagogical Grammar** – this type of grammar refers to grammatical analysis designed for second-language students.

These are just a few examples of the types of grammar. Others may argue that **Linguistic etiquette** – the identification of the proper or best structures to be used in a language, for example, is also a way of approaching grammar. The study and analysis of the structures found in a language, usually with the aim of establishing a description of the grammar as distinct from other languages – occupies many linguists, since the concern is with the nature of language, often independently of the users of the language.



For more information on different types of grammar, you may also visit: <https://www.thoughtco.com/types-of-grammar-1689698>

APPROACHES TO GRAMMAR

Although grammar is basically concerned with the rules that operate in the context of natural languages, it may be presented in different ways. Prescriptive grammarians, on one hand, study the rules underlying the use of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. On the other hand, descriptive grammars focus on patterns which reflect the use of language; usage is what governs the grammarian.

The prescriptive approach

The prescriptive or traditional grammar refers to the collection of prescriptive rules and concepts about the structure of the language. “We say that traditional grammar is prescriptive because it focuses on the distinction between what some people do with language and what they ought to do with it, according to a pre-established standard [...] The chief goal of traditional grammar, therefore, is perpetuating a historical model of what supposedly constitutes proper language.” (WILLIAMS, 2005).

This view of grammar as a set of rules for the ‘proper’ use of language is still to be found today and may be best characterized as the prescriptive approach. Some familiar examples of prescriptive rules for English sentences are as follows:

a) *You must not split an infinitive.*

She used to **secretly** admire him. (NO) She **secretly** used to admire him. (YES)

You have to **really** watch him. (NO) You **really** have to watch him (YES).

Although this rule should be followed in formal writing, there is no real reason why this should be so. In fact, if you follow the prescriptive rule, the sentence “You **really** have to watch him” does not have the same meaning as “You have to really watch him” which implies that he has to be watched “very closely” (OXFORD Dictionary).

b) *You must not end a sentence with a preposition.*

Sometimes called “stranded preposition”, this type of construction occurs when a preposition appears at the end of a sentence without a following object. According to traditional prescriptive grammarians this is an example of inappropriate structure. On the other hand, it is widely used, as we can see in Oscar Wilde’s quote: “I love talking about nothing. It is the only thing I know anything *about*.” (Oscar Wilde).



You can read more on preposition stranding at: <https://www.thoughtco.com/preposition-stranding-grammar-1691666>

There are many such rules which generations of English teachers have attempted to instill in their pupils via corrections. It may, in fact, be a valuable part of one's education to be made aware of this 'linguistic etiquette' or the proper use of the language, especially considering it is a social expectation that someone who writes well should obey these prescriptive rules.

However, it is worth considering the probable origins of these rules and one should ask whether they are appropriately applied to the English language.

The descriptive approach

Analysts collect samples of the language they are interested in and attempt to describe the regular structures of the language as it is used, not according to some view on language of how it should be used. This is called the descriptive approach and it is the basis of most modern attempts to characterize the structure of different languages.

Descriptive grammarians use "immediate constituent analysis" as a technique employed to show how small constituents (or components) in sentences go together to form larger constituents. They may also use "labeled and bracketed sentences" (a representation of the constituent structure of a sentence), as in the example below:

[my boss ate soup]	[S]
[[my boss][ate soup]]	[[NP][VP]]
[[my[boss]][ate[soup]]]	[[NP[N]][VP[V]]]



Visit <https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLD44AB23FFAF3647B> for some lessons on the grammar of sentences

Now read this excerpt taken from Lock (1996, p. 1-2) about Formal and Functional Grammars:

There are many ways of describing the grammar of a language. One approach sees grammar as a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language. In this approach, a clear distinction is usually made between grammatical (sometimes called well-formed) sentences and ungrammatical sentences. The primary concern is with the forms of grammatical structures and their relationships to one another, rather than with their meanings or their uses in different contexts. A grammarian interested in this kind of description will often use for analysis sentences that have been made up to illustrate different grammatical rules rather than sentences drawn from real world sources.

Another approach sees language first and foremost as a system of communication and analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meanings. Rather than insisting on a clear distinction between grammatical and ungrammatical forms, the focus is usually on the appropriateness of a form for a particular communicative purpose in a particular context. The primary concern is with the functions of structures and their constituents and with their meanings in context. A grammarian interested in this kind of description is likely to use data from authentic texts (the term text is used here for both spoken and written language) in specific contexts.

The former approach to grammatical analysis is often called formal, while the latter approach is normally called functional. The two approaches are not, of course, mutually exclusive. Formal analyses must at some stage take account of meaning and function, and functional analyses must at some stage take account of form. However, most descriptions of grammar can be located primarily within one or the other of these two approaches.

In general terms, a formal grammarian is usually not concerned with “how sentences mean what they do”, but are far more interested in the way they are “structurally organized”. Functional analyses, on the other hand, focus on “how different types of words can fit together to communicate meanings”, trying to relate grammatical categories to semantic properties.

Let’s take a look at the following sentences (available at <http://www.lingforum.com>):

- (1) I am going to China for my brother.
- (2) I am going to China for a year.

From a formal perspective, both sentences express basically the same sentence structure, with different words filling the slots in the prepositional phrase. In an analysis under functional grammar, on the other hand, the sense of “for” is rather different [In (1) “for” refers to “because of” or “concerning”, while in (2) “for” refers to “a span of time”].

Under the umbrella of descriptive studies, usage takes on a very important role, since it is the way language is used that matters the most, once the linguist is concerned with describing linguistic phenomena rather than prescribing formal rules to be followed.

Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2009, p. 5-7), write about usage-based grammar and indicate that their adoption of a usage-based theory of grammar comes from their belief that “the cognitive organization of language is based directly on experience with language”.

Here is what they write about usage-based grammar:

Rather than being an abstract set of rules or structures that are not only indirectly related to experience with language, we see grammar as a network built up from the categorized instances of language use. The basic units of grammar are constructions, which are direct form-meaning pairings that range from the very specific (words or idioms) to the more general (passive constructions, ditransitive construction), and from very small units (words with affixes, walked) to clause-level units.

Because grammar is based on usage, it contains many details of co-occurrence as well as a record of the probabilities of occurrence and co-occurrence. The evidence for the impact of usage on cognitive organization includes the fact that language users are aware of specific instances of constructions that are conventionalized and the multiple ways in which frequency of use has an impact on structure. [...]

Language change proceeds gradually via localized interactions, but this is not to say that there are no generalizations within or across languages. General properties of language that are both formal and substantive come about in language as in any Complex Adaptive System – through the repeated application of general processes of change. Because the same processes apply in all languages, general resemblances develop; however, the trajectories of change (such as paths of grammaticalization) are much more similar than the resulting states.

In the usage-based framework, we are interested in emergent generalizations across languages, specific patterns of use as contributors to change and as indicators of linguistic representations, and the cognitive underpinnings of language processing and change. Given these perspectives, the sources of data for usage-based grammar are greatly expanded over that of structuralist or generative grammar: Corpus-based studies of either synchrony or diachrony as well as experimental and modeling studies are considered to produce valid data for our understanding of the cognitive representation of language.

More contemporary grammar textbooks are based on language corpora and combine explanations of English grammar with information on how, when and why we use different structures. Many of such reference material show the differences between spoken and written grammar and may even add information on frequency or on the most common forms, in a descriptive perspective.

In order to illustrate how some of these new grammar references present English grammar, let's take a look at how Longman's Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English (BIBER; CONRAD; LEECH, 2009, p. 1-11) is organized:

Introduction: A discourse perspective on grammar

Introduction to the concept of corpus-based grammar

- Systematic patterns of choice in the use of English grammar.
- Language for the purposes of communication: real use of language; choices used to create discourse in different situations.
- Grammar based on a large, balanced corpus (collection stored on computer) of spoken and written text:
 - Real examples
 - Coverage of language variation
 - Interpretation of frequency: context and discourse
 - Lexico-grammatical patterns

Language variation

- Register
 - Mode: written versus spoken
 - Main communicative purpose: personal communication; pleasure reading or information purpose
- Dialects
 - According to the identity of the speaker/writer: geographic area, gender, socio-economic class...
- Standard and Vernacular English
 - Variation in standard English
 - Prescriptive v. descriptive grammars

Standard and non-standard English

- Standard English is not a single, uniform variety, and it is not always obvious whether a form should be considered standard or not. Standard English can be defined descriptively as follows: in writing, standard forms are used generally across published sources; in speech, standard forms are shared widely across dialects. Thus, any form that is restricted to a single dialect would be considered non-standard. In contrast, many forms are used widely in conversation but are inappropriate in formal written texts; we would call these 'standard' spoken forms.

Now let's reflect on the structure and aspects proposed by Longman's grammar. What topics does it cover? How do you compare it with the way other traditional grammar books are generally organized? Do you understand the terms used? In case you don't check your glossary or your linguistic manuals before taking the quiz that follows.



Quiz: Identify each of the following statements as either true or false.

1. A corpus-based grammar describes the grammatical preferences of speakers and writers, so it includes information about the frequency of grammatical choices.
2. A descriptive grammar presents rules about correct and incorrect stylistic choices.
3. A prescriptive grammar describes the grammatical patterns that speakers and writers follow when they use the language, regardless of whether the patterns conform to standard English that is presented in usage handbooks.
4. A corpus is a collection of written texts that is on a computer.
5. One of the advantages of a corpus-based grammar is that it can describe how speakers and writers vary their grammatical choices for different communicative purposes.
6. Another advantage of a corpus-based grammar is that it can reveal associations between grammatical structures and vocabulary (i.e. lexico-grammatical patterns).
7. A register is a variety of language that is associated with speakers who share certain characteristics, such as gender, socio-economic class, or geographic region.
8. A dialect is a variety of language that is associated with certain characteristics of a communicative setting, such as the purpose of communication, the amount of time for planning, and the mode (e.g. spoken v. written).
9. Different registers often have different frequencies for the use of certain grammatical structures.
10. 'Standard English' is one unvarying form of English that is always easy to identify.
11. There is a group of experts that officially decides whether or not a grammatical form is 'standard English'.

1 - True; 2 - False; 3 - False; 4 - False; 5 - True; 6 - True; 7 - True; 8 - False; 9 - False; 10 - True; 11 - False

Longman's grammar, as many others, also focus on "Grammar of conversation – spoken discourse", as exemplified below (BIBER; CONRAD; LEECH, 2009, p. 427-454):

The discourse circumstance of conversation

- Conversation takes place in a shared context
- Conversation avoids elaboration or specification of meaning
- Conversation is interactive
 - Negatives, Eliciting responses (backchannels – yeah, elicitor – ok?, Attention-signalling forms, Vocatives, Discourse markers)
- Conversation expresses stance
 - Varied range of attitudes: endearments, interjections, exclamations, evaluative adjectives, stance adverbials (actually, really)
- Conversation takes place in real time
 - Dysfluencies: hesitations, repeats
 - Reduced forms: it's, gonna
 - Restricted and repetitive repertoire: local repetition and lexical bundles
- Conversation employs a vernacular range of expression

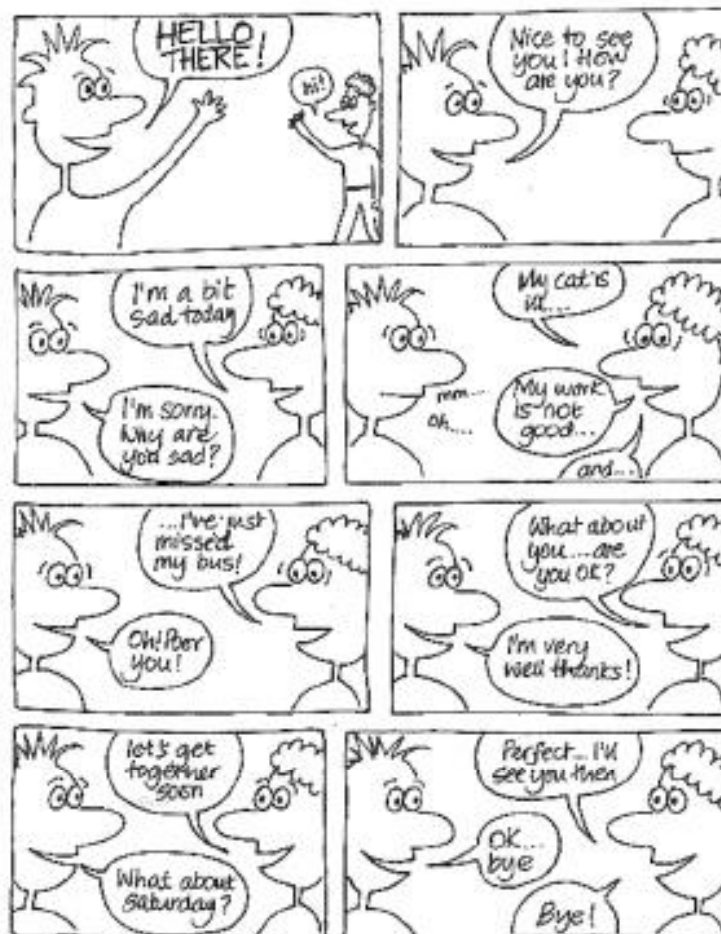
Grammar tailored to real-time construction

- In conversation, grammar is adapted to the needs of real-time production, aiming for simplicity.
- The constraints of real-time processing lead to incomplete structures and syntactic blends.
- Conforming to the add-on principle reduces complexity in language processing.
- Non-clausal units are another aspect of structural simplicity in spoken grammar.
- Ellipsis is a way of simplifying grammar through omission.



Now take a look at the following picture and read the interactions. Think of some of the characteristics of spoken discourse and jot down some of what you have noticed.





Task 3 - Reading

Reading. Read the following texts (written in Portuguese) related to the topics discussed in this unit, jot down the main aspects and debate them in the corresponding Forum.

Text 1:

POSSENTI, Sírio. Língua ou gramática, eis a questão. **Blog do Sírio**. Disponível em: <<http://centrodeestudo-sinterativo.blogspot.com/2015/04/a-polemica-de-sirio-possenti-lingua-ou.html>>. Acesso em: 12/02/2020.

Text 2:

JUNQUEIRA, Fernanda Gomes Coelho. Ensinar gramática ou estudar a língua? In: **Confronto de vozes discursivas no contexto escolar**: percepções sobre o ensino de gramática da língua Portuguesa. 250 f. Dissertação (mestrado) – Pontifícia Universidade, Católica do Rio de Janeiro, Departamento de Letras, 2003 (p. 61-77). Disponível em <https://www.maxwell.vrac.puc-rio.br/4009/4009_5.PDF>. Acesso em: 12/02/2020.

Text 3:

GOUVEIA, Carlos A. M. Texto e gramática: uma introdução à linguística sistêmico-funcional. **Matraga**, Rio de Janeiro, v. 16, n. 24, jan./jun. 2009. Disponível em: <<https://www.e-publicacoes.uerj.br/index.php/matraga/article/view/27795/19916>>. Acesso em: 12/02/2020.

TASK 4 - Forum

After reading and reflecting upon what you have read, discuss with your tutor and your classmates at the discussion forum. This forum will be used in other moments of this unit. Remember the criteria for a good performance:

- ✓ Follow the directions for participation without deviating from them.
- ✓ Offer arguments that are theoretically founded, demonstrating you have studied the textbook with attention.
- ✓ Collaborate with your tutor and with your classmates with questions and answers.
- ✓ Produce a text that is appropriate to the formal demands of academic writing.
- ✓ Complete the discussion task on time.

Sugestões de Leituras complementares

ELLIS, Rod. Current issues in the teaching of grammar: an SLA perspective. **Tesol Quarterly**, v. 40, n. 1, March 2006.

HUDSON, Richard; WALMSLEY, John. The English patient: English grammar and teaching in the twentieth century. **Journal of Linguistics**, v. 41, n. 3, p.593-622, 2005. Doi:10.1017/S0022226705003464.

KOLLN, Martha; HANCOCK, Craig. The story of English grammar in United States schools. **English Teaching: practice and critique**, v. 4, n. 3, p. 11-31, dec. 2005. Disponível em: <<http://edlinked.foe.waikato.ac.nz/research/files/etpc/files/2005v4n3art1.pdf>>. Acesso em: 01/10/2013.



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Módulo 2: Phrases, clause elements and syntactic functions

UNIT 2

Outline of Unit 2

Tasks	Description	Assessment
Task 5 – Forum	Neste fórum, você deverá debater com os colegas e seu tutor sobre os diferentes tipos de sintagmas nos termos discutidos por Biber <i>et. al.</i> (2009) e identificados no texto de George (1972).	As atividades 5 e 8 serão avaliadas segundo critérios estabelecidos.
Task 6 – Surf and practice	O aprendiz deverá se submeter a testes de conhecimentos gramaticais e interagir com sistemas com <i>feedback</i> automático, disponíveis na Internet.	
Task 7 – The web as a resource	O aluno deverá explorar <i>sites</i> disponíveis na <i>web</i> como fonte de apoio ao aprendiz da estrutura da língua inglesa e trocar suas experiências e referências mapeadas na rede, com os demais colegas.	
Task 8 - Questionnaire	Nesta atividade, você deverá completar um exercício de múltipla escolha relativo à estrutura sintática da língua inglesa, extraído do Toefl Guide (PHILLIPS, 2001).	

Let's get started!

Dear learner,

We invite you to know in advance what we intend to cover in the second unit of this course which focuses on syntax, so that the goals and the process to achieve these goals become clear. You will find below what we are supposed to do in the second two weeks of this course.

Let's work together! 😊

📄 List of contents:

- Phrases
- Clause elements
- Syntactic Functions

🎯 Goals:

- Explore English language basic sentence structures
- Understand the way words can be aligned in English
- Reflect on the terminology used to describe sentence structures
- Discuss the topics presented with classmates and tutors

✂ Main resources:

- Textbook; Virtual Learning Environment *Moodle*; *Web*.

🕒 Estimated time to complete this unit:

We suggest you dedicate at least 15 hours to complete the reading of this unit in the textbook and the proposed tasks.

☑ Criteria for Formative Assessment

1. Participation in the Forum of Discussions – 5 points.

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions for participation without deviating from them.
- ★ Your arguments are theoretically founded, demonstrating you have studied the textbook attentively.
- ★ You collaborated with your tutor and with your classmates.
- ★ Your text is appropriate to the demands of academic writing.
- ★ You have completed the discussion tasks on time.

2. Questionnaire – 5 points

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 90% (9) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 70% (7) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 60% (6) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ You have answered at least 40% (4) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ You have answered fewer than 40% (4) of the activities correctly or you haven’t finished your task on time.

Unit 2 – Phrases, Clause elements and Syntactic functions

Lock (1996, p. 37-54) reminds us that **Grammar** includes two aspects: (1) the internal structure of words and (2) the arrangement of words in phrases, clauses and sentences. For the first aspect, which is the interest of Morphology, you have already dedicated some time last semester. For the second aspect of grammar usually called Syntax, which is our interest in this course, it is important to understand there is a close relationship between Morphology and Syntax since words make up phrases, which behave like units in a clause.

Let’s begin understanding phrases and their characteristics by answering the following question: Does the following image possibly represent part of the first or the second bracketed sentence?

1. [They] [passed] [the table] [with [the two men]] [yesterday afternoon].
2. [They] [passed] [the table [with [the two men]]] [yesterday afternoon].



Figura 1

Source: <http://www.columbusindustrialteam.com/tenantrep/>.

If you answered the second, you are right. In the first sentence, we would probably picture two women (they) walking by (passed) a table (the table) while accompanied by two men (with the two men). In the second one, we would picture the two women again, but this time walking by a table where two men are sitting (the table with the two men). It is interesting to notice, thus, that how words are grouped, i.e. phrases help us understand the meaning of sentences. Differences in phrase structure show up in differences of meaning.

4. Phrases

A phrase can consist of either one word or more than one word. Phrases can be identified by substitution or movement tests. “The two men”, for instance, can be substituted by “they”. The phrase “yesterday afternoon” could be moved to the beginning of the sentence, for example. In addition, phrases can be embedded (i.e. one phrase can be part of the structure of another phrase). Embedding can be illustrated by the phrase “the table with the two men”, in which “with the two men” is embedded in the noun phrase.

Read the following abstract of the text “Common errors in language learning: insights from English”, by H. V. George (1972), which will be used to exemplify the following explanations.

This book presents a three-part discussion of the causes and prevention of errors in foreign language learning with particular reference to English as a second language. The first part provides a survey of error analysis, defining what is meant by the term “error” and establishing a model of error production. Other terms explained in this section are communication, redundancy, prediction, probability, and interference. The second section provides a survey of errors attributable to perception of redundancy and discusses such specific items as noun groups, verb groups, pronouns, comparative, question forms, spelling, and pronunciation. The final section provides a commentary on errors attributable to interference and deals with mother-tongue interference in pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntax, as well as errors caused by analogical thinking and cross association; homonymy, homophony, homography, and polysemy are also considered. Concluding remarks concern the relationship between error production and learning motivation.

Biber *et. al.* (2009) explain that phrase types differ both in their internal structure and in their syntactic roles; recognizing the latter (subject and object) can be crucial for interpretation of phrases.

- Noun phrases and prepositional phrases can have particularly complex structure in written text, with several layers of phrase embedding. In fact, the complexity of phrases is a very striking measure for comparing the complexity of syntax in different registers of English. The simplest structures occur in conversation and the complexity increases through fiction, newspaper and academic writing. Observe an example of phrases in a sentence from academic writing and the many layers embedded in the second noun phrase. The example is the first clause of one of the sentences in the above summary.
 - [The final section] [provides] [a commentary [on [errors [attributable to interference]]]].
- The main classes of phrases are: noun phrase (e.g. the final section), verb phrase, adjective phrase (e.g. attributable to interference), adverb phrase and prepositional phrase. The classes can be identified by their meaning, structure, and syntactic role. Each of these phrases has a head from the corresponding word class: e.g. noun phrases usually have a noun as their head. The frequency of longer and more complex phrases varies from one register to another, increasing from conversation, to fiction, to news writing, to academic prose. Look at another example from the summary (academic prose) and its complexity.
 - [The first part] [provides] [a survey [of [error analysis]]], defining what is meant by the term “error” and establishing a model of error production.
- ✓ Observe that there is a prepositional phrase ‘of error analysis’, which contains a noun phrase ‘error analysis’ and is inside a longer noun phrase ‘a survey of error analysis’. In conversation, the structure of a sentence tends to be much simpler:
 - [It] [is] [ok] [to make] [mistakes].

4.1 Types of phrases

Biber *et. al.* (2009) give the following brief explanation on types of phrases, followed by examples of these phrases inside brackets - [].

1) Noun: a noun is its head; the head can be preceded by determiners and accompanied by modifiers or complements; role of subject or object.

[The little girl next door] loves swimming.

He can't understand [her refusal to show any sign of emotion].

2) Verb: they have a lexical verb or a primary verb as the head; the main verb can be preceded by auxiliary verbs; finite (present/past, modal); non-finite

The current year [has] definitely (started] well.

3) Adjective: an adjective is its head; modifiers can precede or follow head; attributive adjective before noun; subject predicative following be.

That's right. He's a [deeply sick] man.

4) Adverb: usual syntactic roles are modifier for adjective/adverb phrases, adverbial on the clause level

He was a little creature with a [sweetly expressive] face.

They sang [boomingly well].

5) Prepositional: consist of a preposition followed by a noun phrase, known as the prepositional complement; stranded prepositions

He retired [after three minor heart attacks] [at the age of 36].

[What more] could a child ask [for]?

Task 5 - Forum - Post your answers

Now, reread the abstract by H. V. George and try to find examples for the different types of phrases explained by Biber *et. al.* (2009). If there are no examples for any of the phrase types, come up with your own example. Share your opinions on the forum, interacting with your classmates and your tutor.

Now, you are going to read an essay on phrases written by Professor Valeska Souza. Read attentively and try to summarize what you have understood.



Reading 1 - Read Souza's essay on "Phrases (noun and verb)"

Phrases are defined as two or more words in sequence that form a syntactic unit that is less than a complete sentence, when dictionarized under the rubric of grammar. It is clear in the definition that phrases are the object of interest in the studies of a branch of grammar named Syntax. The arrangement of these word clusters in English is related to the different lexical categories, so phrase types would be noun, verb, adjective, adverb and prepositional phrases.

The different types of phrases mentioned in the previous paragraphs are what constitute the sentences in the language. When it comes to sentence constituency, it is important to distinguish two ways of classifying constituents. We may classify a unit on the basis of its form (as phrases) or on the basis of its function (as a subject of a clause, for instance). Classification by the constituent structure of a sentence, also referred to as phrase structure, is concerned with the units into which the words are grouped, their constituents and hierarchical organization. In the analysis of the constituent structure, it is necessary to break sentences down into their various constituents and establish the "form classes" found in them. Breaking down sentences into constituents is known as parsing, while the specification of their structure involves the formulation of phrase-structure rules.

Constituent structure is purely formal in nature, that is, it is based upon the syntagmatic and paradigmatic properties of elements rather than their meaning. This is not to say that there may not be semantic properties associated with constituents, which there surely are. Formal criteria for "form classes" can be stated in terms of the internal structure (a particular "form class" contains certain types of elements but not others) and of the external distribution (a particular "form class" has a unique range of morpho-syntactic environments in which it can occur).

In the remaining of this essay, I intend to tackle the internal structure and external distribution of constituents and I will focus on two unit types, termed noun phrases and verb phrases. Although I will deal with a formal aspect of English, I expect to do this from a functional perspective, trying to understand how the structures are organized in order to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meaning. One way to do this will be to draw my examples from real world sources. I have opted to exemplify with quotes since they are easily memorized and reproduced.

Noun phrases, also known as nominal groups, typically comprise a Head surrounded by other items that all in some way characterize that noun. If the Head is a pronoun, the noun phrase will generally consist of the Head only. Noun phrase constituents are the Head, the pre-Head string and the post-Head string. The

Head is the word around which the other constituents usually cluster and which dictates concord with other parts of the sentence. The pre-Head string may include determinative (predeterminers, central determiners and postdeterminers) and premodification elements. The post-Head string comprises all the items placed after the Head, which are usually prepositional phrases, nonfinite clauses, relative clauses or appositives. It is important to notice that noun phrases can play the role of subject, object or complement in a sentence.

Verb phrases may refer to the syntactic structure composed of the predicative elements of a sentence and functions in providing information about the subject of a sentence. In a verb phrase, the Head is always a verb. The pre-Head string, if any, will be a negative word or an adverb phrase. Many verb Heads must be followed by a post-Head string. Verbs which require a post-Head string are called transitive verbs. Verbs that are not followed by objects are intransitive. However, most verbs in English can be both transitive and intransitive, so it is perhaps more accurate to refer to transitive or intransitive use.

Verb phrases, also called verbal groups, are sometimes defined more narrowly in scope to allow for only those sentence elements that are strictly verbal elements to form verb phrases. According to such a definition, verb phrases consist only of main verb, auxiliary verb and other infinitive or participle construction. Thus, some systemic choices to be kept in mind when it comes to verbal groups are: a) finiteness: a finite verbal group is obligatorily an independent clause, while a non-finite is one criterion of a dependent clause; b) modality: when there is a modal verb, it is the initial element; c) tense: present, past and future; d) polarity: positive and negative; and e) voice: active and passive, related to the transitivity system.

Let us look closely at some quotes and draw from them some of the implications phrases will have for the whole sentence structure. The president of the United States, Barack Obama, has recently mentioned the following quote: “The arc of the moral universe is long, but it bends towards justice” – Martin Luther King, Jr. The first noun phrase “the arc of the moral universe” is a unit comprised of a determinative “the”, the Head “arc”, and a post-Head string “of the moral universe”, which is a prepositional phrase. In structuring the sentence, it is important to notice that the Head “arc” has determined the agreement with the Head of the verbal group “is”. In another of Luther King’s famous quotes, “A lie cannot live”, the verb phrase “cannot live” is constituted of a modal verb, which occupies the initial position, a negative (denoting polarity) and the Head. This form class could only occupy this particular morpho-syntactic space, which seems quite “central”. If I were to change the sentence to “We cannot live a lie”, the verb phrase would keep on occupying this “central” position. Finally, analyzing Luther King’s widely known “I have a dream”, we can infer that the civil rights leader used the pronoun “I”, instead of “we” or other noun group, to convey a message of agency. This may have been extremely appropriate for the context of the time since “colored people” were not allowed to dream, among many other racial constraints.

The brief analysis provided previously may lead us to conclude that understanding noun and verb phrases impacts not only on how to structure sentences accurately, but also how to structure them to convey meaning. Grammar consists of forms that have meaning (propositional content) and use (pragmatical content). Grammatical knowledge is also knowing when to use the forms to convey meaning to match our intentions in particular contexts.



Reading 2 - Read MacFadyen and Megginson’s text on the “Function of Phrases”

A phrase may function as a verb, noun, an adverb, or an adjective.

A **verb phrase** consists of a verb, its direct and/or indirect objects, and any adverb, adverb phrases, or adverb clauses which happen to modify it. The predicate of a clause or sentence is always a verb phrase:

Corinne is **trying to decide whether she wants to go to medical school or to go to law school**.

He **did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for**; therefore, he **decided to make something else**.

After she **had learned to drive**, Alice **felt more independent**.

We **will meet at the library at 3:30 p.m.**

A **noun phrase** consists of a pronoun or noun with any associated modifiers, including adjectives, adjective phrases, adjective clauses, and other nouns in the possessive case.

Like a noun, a noun phrase can act as a subject, as the object of a verb or verbal, as a subject or object complement, or as the object of a preposition, as in the following examples:

subject

Small children often insist that they can do it by themselves.

object of a verb

To read quickly and accurately is **Eugene's goal**.

object of a preposition

The arctic explorers were caught unawares by **the spring breakup**.

subject complement

Frankenstein is **the name of the scientist not the monster**.

object complement

I consider Loki **my favorite cat**.

Since some verbals -- in particular, the gerund and the infinitive -- can act as nouns, these also can form the nucleus of a noun phrase:

Ice fishing is a popular winter pastime.

However, since verbals are formed from verbs, they can also take direct objects and can be modified by adverbs. A **gerund phrase** or **infinitive phrase**, then, is a noun phrase consisting of a verbal, its modifiers (both adjectives and adverbs), and its objects:

Running a marathon in the Summer is thirsty work.

I am planning **to buy a house next month**.

An **adjective phrase** is any phrase which modifies a noun or pronoun. You often construct adjective phrases using participles or prepositions together with their objects:

I was driven mad by the sound **of my neighbour's constant piano practising**.

In this sentence, the **prepositional phrase** "of my neighbour's constant piano practising" acts as an adjective modifying the noun "sound."

My father-in-law locked his keys in the trunk **of a borrowed car**.

Similarly in this sentence, the prepositional phrase "of a borrowed car" acts as an adjective modifying the noun "trunk."

We saw Peter **dashing across the quadrangle**.

Here the **participle phrase** “dashing across the quadrangle” acts as an adjective describing the proper noun “Peter.”

We picked up the records **broken in the scuffle**.

In this sentence, the participle phrase “broken in the scuffle” modifies the noun phrase “the records.”

A prepositional phrase can also be an **adverb phrase**, functioning as an adverb, as in the following sentences.

She bought some spinach when she went to the corner store.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “to the corner store” acts as an adverb modifying the verb “went.”

Lightning flashed brightly in the night sky.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “in the night sky” functions as an adverb modifying the verb “flashed.”

In early October, Giselle planted twenty tulip bulbs; unfortunately, squirrels ate the bulbs and none bloomed.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “in early October” acts as an adverb modifying the entire sentence.

We will meet at the library at 3:30 P.M.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “at 3:30 P.M.” acts as an adverb modifying the verb phrase “will meet.”

The dogs were capering about the clown’s feet.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “about the clown’s feet” acts as an adverb modifying the verb phrase “were capering.”



Now that you have read Souza’s essay thoroughly and explored MacFadyen and Megginson’s notes, think of what you have understood from the topic so far and jot down some of your thoughts in the space below. How do you compare these structures to Portuguese? Are they the same, similar or different structures? How are they appropriately named in Portuguese?

5. Clause elements

What are the characteristics of the elements of a clause? Check them below:

- **Verb phrase:** central element of the clause
- **Subject:** 1) noun phrase; 2) it occurs with all types of verbs; 3) subject pronouns are in the nominative case (not accusative); 4) it often precedes the verb phrase; 5) it determines the number of the verb phrase, 6) it can make a passive clause. It denotes the agent of the action or represents the topic.
- **Object:** it is a noun phrase; often follows the (transitive) verb; object pronouns are in accusative form; it can be moved to become the subject of a passive form; direct objects (role: denote the entity affected by the action), indirect objects (denote people receiving something)
- **Predicative:** role: characterizing a preceding noun clause; subject predicative (or complement), object predicative (or complement)
- **Adverbials:** obligatory adverbials (used in order to complete the meaning of verbs: copular and complex transitive patterns); optional adverbials (added to clauses with any type of verb).

Check two examples adapted from George's (1972) summary:

- ✓ This book (Subject) presents (Verb phrase) a three-part discussion (Object).
- ✓ Other terms (Subject) are (Verb phrase) communication and redundancy (Predicative).

Now check two quotes from the linguist Noam Chomsky adapted from www.brainyquotes.com.

- ✓ Everybody (Subject) is (Verb phrase) worried about stopping terrorism (Predicative) in the world (Adverbial).
- ✓ Any dictator (Subject) would admire (Verb phrase) the uniformity and obedience of the U.S. media (Object).

There are many other syntactic elements that may comprise the structure of English sentences, usually called "truly peripheral elements", such as:

- **Conjunctions:** coordinating and subordinating conjunctions
[And], of course, now Keely doesn't have any teeth.
- **Parentheticals:** set off from the surrounding clause by parentheses or dashes
At precisely 11.07 [(Earth time)], a message flashed up on ITN screen.
- **Prefaces:** noun phrases placed before the subject, which typically have the same reference as a personal pronoun in the clause.
[This woman], she's ninety years old.

- **Tags:** normally added at the end of a clause (noun phrase tag, question tags or declarative tags)
It's nice [that table] anyway.
- **Inserts:** extra words which can be 'slipped into' spoken discourse, mainly to convey interactive meaning
[Hello] is that Cindy Jones?
- **Vocatives:** noun/noun phrases which refer to people and serve to identify the person being addressed.
[Mum], I'm making such a big sandwich.

Now, you are going to read another essay written by Professor Valeska Souza, this time concerning sentence elements. Read attentively and try to summarize what you have understood.



Reading 3 - Read the text "Sentence elements (subject, verb, object, predicative, adverbial)"

Sentence elements are the object of interest in the studies of a branch of grammar named Syntax. Van Valin Jr. (2002) explains that syntax deals with how sentences are constructed, and that users of human languages employ a variety of possible arrangements of the elements in sentences, which do not coincide in all languages. In English, for instance, the subject comes before the verb and the direct object follows the verb. In Lakota, a Siouan language of North America, the subject and direct object both precede the verb. In this essay, we will focus on how the English language is constituted at sentence level and some teaching implications for it.

When it comes to sentence constituency, it is important to distinguish two ways of classifying constituents. We may classify a unit either on the basis of its form (its internal structure, as a noun phrase, or an adverb phrase) or on the basis of its function (as a subject or an object of a clause). The form-function distinction is particularly important in the case of a clause structure.

Having in mind our focus is the functional constituency, let us understand the elements proposed in the title as defined by the Webster's Dictionary:

- Subject – the noun, or its equivalent, governing a verb.
- Verb – any of a class of words expressing an action performed or state suffered or experienced by a subject.
- Object – a noun, or noun equivalent, towards which the action of a transitive verb is directed, or that is governed by a preposition.
- Predicative – constituting a predicate or part of a predicate, which refers to the words that express what is stated of the subject of a clause or sentence.
- Adverbial – group of words that function in the same way as an adverb.

The definitions infer premises of what is called a formal approach to grammatical analysis that sees grammar as a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language, distinguishing between grammatical (well-formed) and ungrammatical (ill-formed) sentences.

In this traditional approach, a clause is a subject plus a predicate. The subject of a clause names something, such as a person, object, place or idea. The subject is usually one or more nouns or pronouns, and it might also be a noun substitute. The predicate makes a statement about the subject by telling something about it. The predicate tells that the subject is performing an action or it states the condition of the subject. The most important part of the predicate is the verb (action or linking). Sometimes the verb needs a word or words to complete its meaning. The words that do this job in the predicate of a clause are called complements, when they follow a linking verb, and direct or indirect objects when they follow an action/transitive verb. The object complement follows the direct object.

Traditional grammar reference books generally offer a list of clause types after eliminating the complexity of the position of the adverbial. A summary of the basic clause types usually found in the English language will be listed below. They are often displayed in tree diagrams, but in order to be more concise, I will put the examples between parentheses.

- Subject + verb (The children played.)
- Subject + linking verb + subject complement (You are beautiful.)
- Subject + verb + direct object (Roosevelt inspired everyone.)
- Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object (Samantha sold her friend a ruby ring.)
- Subject + verb + direct object + object complement (Marvin called his lab partner a witch.)

Observing the examples above, it is no wonder English is commonly described as a “fixed word-order language”, since the position of subject, verb, object are relatively fixed. The verb element is the most “central” element, and it is preceded by the subject. Following the verb, there may be one or two objects, or a complement which follows the object if it is present. The most peripheral element is the adverbial, which can occur initially, medially or finally.

Anyway, I believe the formal analysis does not handle all the complexity in sentence constituency. Another approach to grammatical analysis, referred to as functional, analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meaning. Its primary concern is with the functions of structures and their constituents and with their meaning in context.

Six clause-rank grammatical functions are subject, finite, predicator, object, complement and adjunct. Subjects normally precede the finite in declarative clauses and determine the person and number of the finite (if marked). Subjects are typically realized by noun groups. Finites are normally marked for tense and may be marked for number agreement (agreeing with the subject). Nowadays, we also recognize nonfinite clauses, such as “When working on taps, insert the plug and...” (the first clause is nonfinite). The predicator function is realized by everything in the verb group except the finite. Objects typically follow the finite and predicator in declarative clauses. Objects are usually realized by noun groups. Clauses which have linking verbs have complements. Complements can be realized by noun groups, nominal clauses, adjective groups and prepositional phrases. Adjuncts are additional constituents that cannot become subjects of related clauses and can often be omitted. Adjuncts are typically realized by adverb groups and prepositional phrases.

I will illustrate how a functional grammarian would approach an utterance with a brief analysis. First of all, it is necessary to draw a sentence from real world sources, so I will use a quote mentioned by the president of the USA, Barack Obama: “The arc of the moral universe is long, but it bends towards justice”, Martin Luther King Jr. In the first clause we have a subject, a verb group with finite and predicator functions and complement. The second clause differs because instead of a complement, there is an adjunction. What should be added is the experiential meaning the quote represents, which involves the thoughts and feelings of a civil rights leader; the interpersonal meaning, expressed by the way in which it acts upon his followers or opposers; and also, the textual meaning that encompasses a context of struggle against the inequality and injustice imposed at the time. The communicative effect of the message is important besides its formal characteristics.

Having tackled both formal and functional premises regarding sentence elements, we can have a better account in order to make informed choices on how to view this aspect of Syntax in a contemporary context.

6. Syntactic functions

Different linguists and grammarians may view the same syntactic elements from different perspectives. According to Lock (1996), for example, five clause-rank grammatical functions are Subject, Finite, Predicator, Object, and Adjunct.

- Subjects normally precede the Finite in declarative clauses and determine the person and number of the Finite (if marked). Subjects are typically realized by noun groups.
- Finites are normally marked for tense and may be marked for number agreement (i.e., agreeing with the person and number of the Subject).
- Predicator function is realized by everything in the verb group except the Finite.
- Objects typically follow the Finite and Predicator in declarative clauses. A constituent functioning as Object in an active clause can normally become the Subject of a related passive clause. Objects are typically realized by noun groups.
- Adjuncts are additional constituents that cannot become Subjects of related clauses and can often be omitted. Adjuncts are typically realized by adverb groups and prepositional phrases.

Now we suggest you explore the glossary published by SIL International at <<https://glossary.sil.org/term/syntactic-function>> for a more traditional view on syntactic functions. Also check <<http://www.solinguainglesa.com.br/conteudo/substantivo22.php>> and <<http://www.solinguainglesa.com.br/conteudo/substantivo23.php>> and compare with what you have read so far.



Now that you have read the essay thoroughly and have explored different views, think of what you have understood from the texts and grammar notes you have read and jot down some of your thoughts in the space below.



Task 6 - Surf and practice

Let's practice in an interactive way. You are going to visit an excellent site with explanations and activities followed by feedback. Check the internet quiz on subject and predicate at: <http://www.grammar-quizzes.com/sent-subjpred.html>.

Now check this website in which you can test your knowledge on phrases and clause elements: <https://arts.uottawa.ca/writingcentre/en/hypergrammar>.



Task 7 - The web as a resource

The web offers a wide and interesting range of educational and university sites dedicated to the study of English language structure, such as <https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/student-assessment/smart-teaching-strategies/literacy/writing/sentence-structure> and <http://www.towson.edu/ows/sentelmt.htm>. We invite you to explore them once we believe they can help you better understand the concepts we have been discussing so far. What other sites and web resources have you found? Make sure you share your experiences and exchange site references with your classmates.



Task 8 - Forum - Post your answers

In order to write correct sentences, it is important to know a sentence in English must have at least one subject and one verb. An object of a preposition is when a preposition is followed by a noun or pronoun. If a word is an object of a preposition, it is NOT the subject.

Having this in mind, you are going to complete a multiple choice activity taken from the Toefl Guide by Phillips (2001).

1. Mark Twain _____ the years after the Civil War the "Gilded Age."

() A. called () B. calling () C. he called () D. his calls

2. NASA's Lyndon B. Johnson Space Center _____ control center for the *Mercury*, *Gemini*, and *Apollo* space flights.

() A. the () B. it was () C. was the () D. it was at the

3. Early _____ toes instead of hooves on their feet.
 () A. horses () B. had horses () C. horses had () D. horses having
4. In 1867, _____ Alaska from the Russians for \$7.2 million.
 () A. purchased the United States () B. to purchase the United States
 () C. the United States' purchase of () D. the United States purchased
5. _____ grow close to the ground in the short Arctic summer.
 () A. Above tundra plants () B. Tundra plants
 () C. Tundra plants are found () D. For tundra plants
6. Between 1725 and 1750, New England witnessed an increase in the specialization of _____.
 () A. occupations () B. occupies () C. they occupied () D. it occupied them
7. The large carotid artery _____ to the main parts of the brain.
 () A. carrying blood () B. blood is carried () C. carries blood () D. blood carries
8. _____ radio as the first practical system of wireless telegraphy.
 () A. Marconi's development () B. The development by Marconi
 () C. Developing Marconi () D. Marconi developed
9. In 1975, the first successful space probe to _____ beginning to send information back to Earth.
 () A. Venus () B. Venus the () C. Venus was () D. Venus it was
10. The two biggest resort _____ Arkansas are Hot Springs and Eureka Springs.
 () A. in () B. towns in () C. towns are () D. towns are in



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Módulo 3: Clause and sentences

UNIT 3

Outline of Unit 3

Tasks	Description	Assessment
Task 9 – Surf and practice	O aprendiz deverá se submeter a testes de conhecimentos gramaticais relativos a <i>clauses e sentences</i> e interagir com sistemas com <i>feedback</i> automático, disponíveis na Internet.	As atividades 11 e 12 serão avaliadas segundo critérios estabelecidos.
Task 10 - Videos	Você assistirá a dois vídeos sobre construções frasais com foco em orações simples, compostas e complexas. Esses vídeos lhe auxiliarão a compreender a configuração da estrutura da oração em inglês.	
Task 11 – Forum	Neste fórum, você deverá debater com os colegas e seu tutor sobre aspectos relacionados ao ensino de gramática a partir dos textos de Ellis (2006) e Bourke (2008).	
Task 12 – Questionnaire	Para concluir esta unidade, você deverá completar um exercício de múltipla escolha relativo à coordenação e subordinação, extraído do Toefl Guide (PHILLIPS, 2001).	

Let's get started!

Dear learner,

We invite you to know in advance what we intend to cover in the third unit of this course which focuses on syntax, so that the goals and the process to achieve these goals become clear. You will find below what we are supposed to do in the next two weeks of this course.

Let's work together! 😊

📄 List of contents:

- Clauses
- Sentences

🎯 Goals:

- Understand the way words are arranged in clauses and sentences
- Explore clause and sentence structures in English
- Discuss the topics presented with classmates and tutors.

🔗 Main resources:

- Textbook; Virtual Learning Environment *Moodle*; *Web*.

🕒 Estimated time to complete this unit:

To complete the reading of this unit in the textbook and the proposed tasks, we suggest you dedicate at least 15 hours.

☑ Criteria for Formative Assessment

1) Participation in the Forum of Discussions – 5 points.

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions for participation without deviating from them.
- ★ Your arguments are theoretically founded, demonstrating you have studied the textbook attentively.
- ★ You collaborated with your tutor and with your classmates.
- ★ Your text is appropriate to the demands of academic writing.
- ★ You have completed the discussion tasks on time.

2) Questionnaire – 5 points

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ ★ ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 90% (16) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 70% (13) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ ★ You have answered at least 60% (10) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ ★ You have answered at least 40% (7) of the activities correctly and on time.
- ★ You have answered fewer than 40% (7) of the activities correctly or you haven't finished your task on time.

Unit 3 – Clauses and sentences

7. Clauses

A clause is the key unit of syntax, capable of occurring independently.

Biber *et al.* (2002) point that the verb phrase is the central element in each clause. The five major clause patterns are:

- Intransitive pattern: Subject + verb phrase
 - Sarah and Michael disappeared.
- Monotransitive pattern: Subject + verb phrase + direct object
 - She changed her dress.
- Copular patterns: Subject + verb phrase + subject predicative or adverbial
 - The Swiss cheese has gone bad.
 - Marc was in the bathroom.

- Ditransitive pattern: Subject + verb phrase + indirect object + direct object
 - You gave her the wrong kind of egg.
- Complex transitive patterns: Subject + verb phrase + direct object + object predicative or adverbial.
 - That makes me so mad.
 - They're sending us to Disneyland.

The clause is in many ways the key unit of grammar. It is important to notice that clauses do not follow the same patterns in different registers of language use. In news, for instance, all words and phrases belong to clauses, there are fewer single-clause units, and the clauses contain many words. Conversation, on the other hand, includes non-clausal material (sentences which are incomplete) and many single-clause units, as can be seen in the joke below.

- Teacher – You are late again Alec. Didn't your alarm go off?
- Alec – I threw it away, Miss.
- Teacher – Whatever for?
- Alec – Because it kept waking me up when I was sleeping.



In the joke, the three first sentences are single-clause units and the third is non-clausal material. This type of non-clausal material is called ellipsis. Ellipsis is a way of simplifying grammatical structures through omission. It condenses the same meaning into a smaller number of words. Ellipsis is common in a wide range of contexts. A listener can usually reconstruct the missing words from the preceding text or from the situation. Check the following riddle and the ellipsis used in its answer:

- ☐ Where does Friday come before Thursday?
- ☐ In the dictionary.



Check another riddle and observe the underlined part!

- ☐ Why are birds poor?
- ☐ Because money doesn't grow on trees.



In the riddle, we have an example of negation. It is necessary to take into account that clauses are either positive or negative. Negative clauses are most commonly formed by using **not** or its contraction **n't**. The verb as operator (auxiliary, copula **be**, dummy operator) is a key tool for forming negation with **not/n't**. Clause negation is the main type of negation, but there is also local negation, which is done with the use of words and expressions, such as **never**, **none**, among others. Negation is twice as common in conversation as in written register.

In interrogative clauses, if **not** is contracted, it is attached to the operator and comes before the subject. But if **not** is a full form, it has to be placed after the subject.

☐ Why isn't it ready? Why is it not ready?

Negative imperatives with the copula be are exceptional because the be does not serve as the operator for negation; rather, **do not** and **don't** is inserted before the verb be.

☐ Don't be silly!

Verb/Negative contraction needs a 'preceding' host in the clause. It is impossible for negative contraction and verb contraction to co-exist in the same clause (as "We'ven't" for example).

Another aspect when it comes to clauses is that they can be independent or dependent. An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb and expresses a complete thought while a dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and verb but does not express a complete thought.

There are four major types of independent clauses: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative clauses. These correspond to four main types of speech act: statement, question, directive and exclamation. Observe the chart below for this correspondence.

Speech-act	Function	Clause	Structural	Example
Informing	Statement	Declarative clause	SV structure	It's strong!
Eliciting	Question	Interrogative Clause	VS Structure	Is it strong?
			Wh-word Structue	Where is she?
Directing	Command	Imperative Clause	V structure	Be strong!
Expressing	Exclamation	Exclamative Clause	Wh-word + SV struc-ture	How good she is!

However, there are mismatches between the clause types and the associated speech-act types. Questions, for instance, are varied in form and in function, and sometimes they are not even intended to have a reply as a response, as in rhetorical questions.

Grammatically, although independent clauses are the main building blocks of texts, non-clausal material (such as blocked language, used as newspaper headlines: *Elderly care crisis warning*) is also common, particularly in conversation.

Dependent clauses are subdivided into finite and non-finite clauses (whereas independent clauses are generally finite). Finite dependent clauses include complement (nominal clauses: syntactic role comparable to noun phrase), adverbial, relative (who are armed and dangerous), comparative, and other degree clauses (as she pretended to be). There are also some clause types of borderline status: e.g. reporting clauses (they said) and question tags. Non-finite dependent clauses include infinitive clauses (to look to the future), ing-clauses (having a fever), ed-clauses (appointed (or chosen) by a minority...), and verbless clauses (if possible). In certain circumstances, dependent clauses are used as separate units (Supplement clauses), like independent clauses.



Task 9 - Surf and practice

Let's practice in an interactive way. You are going to visit a website with activities followed by feedback. Check the internet quiz on independent and dependent clauses at http://www.phschool.com/atschool/writing_grammar_08/grade6/exercise_bank/chapter20/wag6_act_20-2a.cfm.

Now check another website in which you can also test your knowledge on independent and dependent clauses: <http://www.proprofs.com/quiz-school/story.php?title=dependent-independent-clauses-quiz>.

The web is a great resource for language learners and there are hundreds of sites focused on the teaching and learning of syntax. After exploring the two websites indicated above, search the web for other sites which could help you not only as a learner but also as a future teacher. Take the quizzes they propose and share your findings and experiences with your classmates and tutor followed by your evaluation why you think they are helpful tools.

8. Sentences

A sentence is composed of one or more clauses. There are three types of sentence structures:

- 1) A simple sentence is a sentence that has only one clause. This means that the sentence has one subject and verb.
 - The cat quickly ran into the bushes.
 - The information seems unimportant.

For each simple sentence you should check that the sentence has **both** a subject and a verb.



SOME TIPS! USING CORRECT SIMPLE SENTENCES:

1. A simple sentence is a sentence with one clause.
2. A simple sentence must have both a subject and a verb.
3. A simple sentence may not be introduced by a subordinate adverb clause connector.

- 2) A compound sentence is a sentence that has more than one main clause. (A main clause is an independent clause that has both a subject and a verb). This means that the sentence has more than one subject and verb and that each subject and verb is joined to another subject and verb with a coordinate connector (and, but, so, or, yet) and a comma.
- The cook must stir the stew, or the dinner will burn.
 - The woman dropped her watch, and then she stepped on it, but it still worked.



SOME TIPS! USING CORRECT SIMPLE SENTENCES:

1. A compound sentence is a sentence with more than one main clause.
 2. The main clauses in a compound sentence may be joined with either a semi-colon (;) or a coordinate conjunction (and, but, or, so, yet) and a comma (,).
 3. An adverb transition can be used in a compound sentence, but either a semi-colon or a coordinate conjunction and a comma is still needed.
- 3) A complex sentence is a sentence that has a main clause and at least one subordinate clause. (A subordinate clause is a dependent clause. It has both a subject and a verb and is introduced by a subordinate connector). This means that the sentence has a subject and verb in the main clause and another subject and verb in each subordinate clause, which is joined by a connector. Adverb clauses, for example, are introduced by connectors such as after, before, since, until, when, while, because, if, among others.
- The store has been in the same location since it first opened.
 - When the concert ended, the audience left for the theater.



SOME TIPS! USING CORRECT SIMPLE SENTENCES:

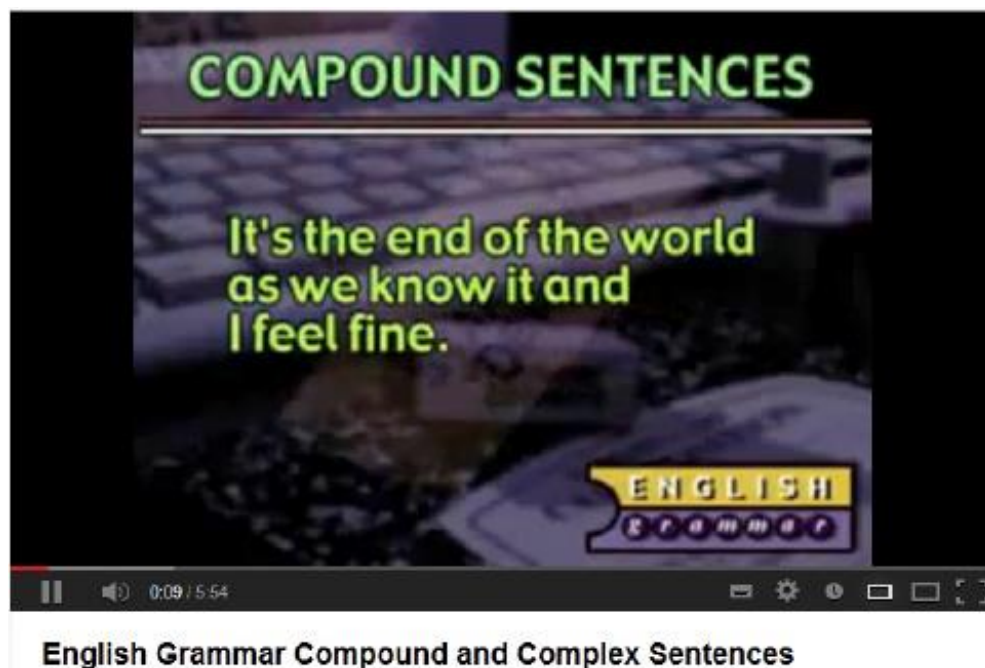
1. A complex sentence is a sentence with one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.
2. Noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses are subordinate clauses.
3. When a subject comes before an adjective clause, you should not add an extra subject after the adjective clause.
4. When a noun clause is used as a subject, you should not add an extra subject after the noun clause.

Task 10 - Videos

You are going to watch two videos, which will help you understand the different types of sentences. The first is on SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX sentences and is available at <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Hby4NBOwf7E>.



The second explains compound and complex sentences and gives us some information on punctuation as well. Go to <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Sjrq3MOcMFM>.



Now, take a look at these two other riddles and observe the underlined words:

- ☐ If the green house is on the right side of the road, and the red house is on the left side of the road, where is the white house?

- ☐ In Washington, D. C.

■ COORDINATION



- ☐ Why does a chicken lay an egg?

- ☐ If she dropped it, it would break.



■ SUBORDINATION (dependent and independent clauses)

The underlined sentences show examples of coordination and subordination. Subordination and coordination are ways of 'deepening' and 'broadening' grammar.

- ☐ With coordination, two clauses are connected with each having equal status, as in:

■ It's old, **but** it's clean.

- ☐ With subordination, on the other hand, one clause is embedded as part of another clause, as in:

■ **Although** it's old, it's clean.

- ☐ In the case of subordination, one clause (a dependent clause) is embedded as part of another clause (its main clause).

COORDINATION

- ☐ Coordinate clauses are joined, with each having equal status.

- ☐ Coordination, unlike subordination, can also be used to join words and phrases (not only clauses).

■ A fool and his money are soon parted. (popular saying)

- ☐ The three major coordinators in English: AND, OR, BUT.

■ Despite prescriptive rules, coordinators are commonly used at the beginning of a turn in conversation, and at the start of a new sentence in writing. They can be used as sentence-initial and turn-initial coordinators; as coordination tags (e.g. and stuff) as vagueness marker, or as correlative coordinators: both/and, either/or, neither/nor.

SUBORDINATION AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES

- ☐ Subordinate clauses are embedded as part of another clause.
 - Subordinators differ in important ways from other clause links. Subordinators are like coordinators, but they are different from linking adverbials, because they occur in a fixed position at the front of their clause. But, unlike coordinators, the clause introduced by a subordinator is always a dependent clause, and it does not necessarily follow the clause to which it is linked. Wh-words, unlike subordinators, usually fill a major syntactic role (e.g. subject, object or adverbial) in the dependent clause.
 - ☐ Feedback tends to be used to stabilize systems. Similarly, natural systems...
 - ☐ She's no longer my teacher, but I'm still just as afraid of her.
 - ☐ He's the kind of person who needs emotional space.
 - ☐ I'm still afraid of her although she's no longer my teacher
- ☐ Subordination is signaled by an overt link (such as a subordinator or wh-word) or by a non-finite verb phrase (-ing participle or -ed participle).
 - You can drink your juice **if** you like.
 - **Leaving** the road, they went into the darkness of the trees.

9. Types of subordinate clauses

Swan (2005, p. xxv) reminds us that a subordinate clause is "a clause which functions as part of another clause, for example as subject, object or adverbial in the main clause of a sentence". In comparison to types of phrases, subordinate clauses can be categorized as adjective, adverb or noun clauses.

For a compiled and didactic presentation on the structure of clauses, we invite you to read this grammar handbook published by The Center for Writing Studies at the University of Illinois, available at <http://www.cws.illinois.edu/workshop/writers/nounclauses/>:

Adjective Clauses

Adjective clauses modify nouns or pronouns. An adjective clause nearly always appears immediately following the noun or pronoun.

To test for adjective clauses there are a couple of questions that you can ask. Which one? What kind? Most adjective clauses begin with "who," "whom," "which," or "that." Sometimes the word may be understood. The words "that" or "who," for example, might not specifically be in the sentence, but they could be implied. To determine the subject of a clause ask "who?" or "what?" and then insert the verb.

Example:

- The book that is on the floor should be returned to the library.

Occasionally, an adjective clause is introduced by a relative adverb, usually "when," "where," or "why."

Example:

- Home is the place where you relax.

Adverb Clauses

Adverb clauses usually modify verbs, in which case they may appear anywhere in a sentence. They tell why, where, under what conditions, or to what degree the action occurred or situation existed. Unlike adjective clauses, they are frequently movable within the sentence.

Example:

- When the timer rings, we know the cake is done. OR
- We know the cake is done when the timer rings.

Adverb clauses always begin with a subordinating conjunction. Subordinating conjunctions introduce clauses and express their relation to the rest of the sentence.

Noun Clauses

Noun clauses are not modifiers, so they are not subordinators like adjectives and adverbs, and they cannot stand alone. They must function within another sentence pattern, always as nouns. A noun clause functions as a subject, subject complement, direct object, or object of a preposition.

A noun clause usually begins with a relative pronoun like “that,” “which,” “who,” “whoever,” “whomever,” “whose,” “what,” and “whatsoever.” It can also begin with the subordinating conjunctions “how,” “when,” “where,” “whether,” and “why.”

Example:

- Whoever wins the game will play in the tournament.

Clauses reduced to phrases

Adjective clauses can often be reduced to phrases.

The relative pronoun (RP) must be the **subject** of the verb in the adjective clause. Adjective clauses can be reduced to phrases in two different ways depending on the verb in the adjective clause.

1. RP + BE = 0

People who are living in glass houses should not throw stones. (clause)

People living in glass houses should not throw stones. (phrase)

Mary applied for a job that was advertised in the paper. (clause)

Mary applied for a job advertised in the paper. (phrase)

2. RP + OTHER VERB (not BE) = OTHER VERB + ing

People who live in glass houses should not throw stones. (clause)

People living in glass houses should not throw stones. (phrase)

Students who sit in the front row usually participate more. (clause)

Students sitting in the front row usually participate more. (phrase)

Source: [http://faculty.deanza.edu/flemingjohn/stories/storyReader\\$20](http://faculty.deanza.edu/flemingjohn/stories/storyReader$20)

Let's take up the three possible ways of reducing an adverb clause into an adverb phrase:

(1) Reduction of adverb clauses in sentences involving same-time actions.

When an adverb clause is introduced by "while" or "when," it can be reduced by dropping both the subject and the form of "be" that goes with it. We already took up earlier how this is done for an adverb clause introduced by "while." For adverb clauses introduced by "when," as in "When he is in the Philippines, he always visits Boracay," both the subject "he" and the verb "is" can be dropped to reduce the sentence to "When in the Philippines, he always visits Boracay."

(2) Reduction of "when" and "while" adverb clauses that use an active verb instead of "be."

This can be done by changing the active verb in the adverb clause to its "-ing" form. For instance, "While I flew that plane, I saw sparks on the left wing" can be reduced to "While flying that plane, I saw sparks on the left wing." Sometimes, "while" or "when" can be dropped as well: "Flying that plane, I saw sparks on the left wing."

(3) Reduction of adverb clauses introduced by "before" or "after."

This can be done by similarly changing the active verb in the adverb clause to its "-ing" form. For instance, "Before she hired the cook, she made him cook her favorite dish" reduces to "Before hiring the cook, she made him cook her favorite dish."

Source: <https://www.manilatimes.net/2018/09/26/campus-press/how-to-reduce-adverb-clauses-to-adverb-phrases/445500/>

For some practical rules on the reduction of adverb clauses to modifying phrases read <https://www.elc.edu/grammar-lesson-reducing-adverb-clauses-to-modifying-adverbial-phrases/>.

PARTICIPLE CLAUSE

Swan (2005, p. xxv) defines a participle clause as "a clause-like structure which contains a participle, not a verb tense. Examples: **Discouraged by his failure**, he resigned from his job. **Having a couple of hours to spare**, I went to see a film."

For more on clauses and other grammar points we invite you to explore <http://azargrammar.com/index.html>, a site aimed at forming a global community of teachers interested in sharing their knowledge and experience on the teaching of syntax.



Can you identify any similarities with the structures of clauses and sentences in English with corresponding structures in Portuguese? Check your glossary and your grammar handbooks in both languages and write a comparative chart with as many items as you can find. What does that tell you about the structure of both languages? How could teachers use that information in their lesson plans?





Now it's time we stop and read the following two texts on the teaching of grammar: **Current issues in the teaching of grammar: an SLA perspective** (ELLIS, 2006) and **A rough guide to language awareness** (BOURKE, 2008). Write down your reflections and topic so that you can later discuss them with your classmates and tutor. Reference:

BOURKE, James M. A rough guide to language awareness. English Teaching Forum, n. 1, p. 12-21, 2008. Disponível em: <https://americanenglish.state.gov/files/ae/resource_files/english_teaching_forum_article_-_a_rough_guide_to_language_awareness.pdf>. Acesso em: 20 de abr. de 2020.

ELLIS, Rod. Current issues in the teaching of grammar: an SLA perspective. Tesol Quarterly, v. 40, n. 1, March 2006. Disponível em: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/566c/f4ef18dbd2cbcff17750cbf310e0157d9793.pdf?_ga=2.179490404.1147954809.1587385415-824531388.1581461981>. Acesso em: 22 de abr. de 2022.



TASK 11 - Forum

You have just read two interesting views on the teaching of grammar and have written down relevant aspects related to the topic. Now about sharing them with your class now? In this Forum you are asked to discuss different aspects concerning the teaching of grammar. You should refer to the ideas discussed by the two authors, but may also bring additional questions you may consider important to the subject matter.

Task 12 - Questionnaire

Each of the following sentences contains more than one clause. Indicate if the sentences are correct (C) or incorrect (I):

- 1) () The lawyer presented a strong case, but the client was still found guilty. (Coordinate)
- 2) () After the children read some stories before they went to bed. (Subordinate – Adverb clause)
- 3) () The report needed to be completed, the workers stayed late every night for a week. (Coordinate)
- 4) () If you do not turn on the lights, you will trip in the dark. (Subordinate – Adverb clause)
- 5) () A thick fog came rolling in, so planes unable to land. (Coordinate)
- 6) () The ship leaving the dock even though some passengers were not on board. (Subordinate – Adverb clause)
- 7) () It is doubtful whether he will pass the test or not. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 8) () The group discussed who he should receive the prize. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 9) () It is not certain why the class was cancelled. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 10) () I will do what does it need to be done. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 11) () We forgot when did the movie start. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 12) () I would like to ask if you could come over for dinner this weekend. (Subordinate – Noun clause)
- 13) () My sisters prefer to eat food that have cooked themselves. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)
- 14) () The boat that hit the underwater rock sank. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)
- 15) () The car which he was driving could not possibly be his. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)
- 16) () The children built a house in the tree that in the backyard. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)
- 17) () The cost of the trip which we wanted to take. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)
- 18) () The children are playing with the toys which their mother told them to put away. (Subordinate – Adjective clause)

(Extracted from PHILLIPS, 2001).



REFERÊNCIAS MÓDULO 3

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BOURKE, James M. A rough guide to language awareness. **English Teaching Forum**, n. 1, p. 12-21, 2008.

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PHILLIPS, Deborah. **Longman introductory course for the TOEFL Test**. 2. ed. New York: Pearson, 2001.

PHILLIPS, Deborah. **Longman preparation course for the TOEFL Test iBT**. New York: Pearson, 2006.

SWAN, Michael. **Practical English usage**. 3. edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.

UNIT 4**Outline of Unit 4**

Tasks	Description	Assessment
Task 13 – Video	Nesta atividade, você assistirá a um vídeo relacionado ao ensino da estrutura frasal em inglês, disponível em http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nnluuKSWAJO .	As atividades 16 e 17 serão avaliadas segundo critérios estabelecidos.
Task 14 – Reading	Você fará a leitura de uma introdução a um manual de gramática direcionado ao professor, escrito por Cowan (2008) para depois debater com os colegas aspectos relacionados à importância da gramática na formação de professores de língua.	
Task 15 – Surf, practice and test yourself	Na tarefa 15, você deverá se submeter a testes de conhecimentos gramaticais relativos aos temas estudados na unidade e interagir com sistemas com <i>feedback</i> automático, disponíveis na Internet. Você deverá anotar suas dúvidas para discuti-las com seus colegas e tutor.	
Task 16 – Forum	No fórum da unidade 4, você deverá debater com os colegas e seu tutor sobre as dificuldades encontradas, a partir de seus erros e dúvidas decorrentes da solução das atividades na Tarefa 15.	
Task 17 - Wiki	Nesta atividade colaborativa coordenada pelo seu tutor você deverá indicar uma estrutura sintática que, em sua visão, merece aprofundamento ou qualquer outra estrutura que não tenha sido abordada ao longo do curso. Em seguida, você deverá buscar definições, explicações sobre seu funcionamento, exemplos e <i>websites</i> com atividades práticas relacionadas no formato de uma página <i>wiki</i> .	

Let's get started!

Dear learner,

We invite you to know in advance what we intend to cover in the last unit of this course which focuses on syntax, so that the goals and the process to achieve these goals become clear. You will find below what we are supposed to do in the last two weeks of this course.

Let's work together! 😊

📄 List of contents:

- Complex structures
- Learning grammar from a teacher's perspective

🎯 Goals:

- Understand the need to learn grammar from a teacher's perspective.
- Explore complex structures in English
- Discuss the topics presented with classmates and tutors.
- Surf the net for grammar sites with automatic correction.

✂ Main resources:

- Textbook; Virtual Learning Environment *Moodle*; *Web*.

🕒 Estimated time to complete this unit:

To complete the reading of this unit in the textbook and the proposed tasks, we suggest you dedicate at least 15 hours.

☑ Criteria for Formative Assessment

- 1) Participation in the Forum of Discussions – 5 points.

The criteria for a “5 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions for participation without deviating from them.
- ★ Your arguments are theoretically founded, demonstrating you have studied the textbook attentively.
- ★ You collaborated with your tutor and with your classmates.
- ★ Your text is appropriate to the demands of academic writing.
- ★ You have completed the discussion tasks on time.

- 2) Wiki – 10 points

The criteria for a “10 star Performance” are:

- ★ You have followed the directions for the textual production and did not deviate from them.
- ★ You have demonstrated accuracy in your writing.
- ★ You have included links for further information on the topic (websites, youtube videos, etc.)
- ★ You have included websites for further practice on the topic.
- ★ You have brought examples of the structure presented in authentic texts (songs, literary books, newspaper articles, academic articles, etc.)
- ★ You have referenced the sources you used to research the topic.
- ★ You have written an original text.
- ★ You have collaborated with your classmates.
- ★ Your text production is appropriate to the demands of academic writing.
- ★ You have completed the production on time.



Task 13 - Videos

Let's watch a video which calls attention to "How to teach sentence structure". Go to: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nnluuKSwAJ0>.



After watching the video, reflect on the importance of knowing grammar structure of the English language in order to teach it. Jot down some of your thoughts. Make sure you keep notes for additional discussion on grammar and its relevance to the language teacher.



Task 14 - Reading

Now we invite you to read Cowan's Introduction to his book entitled "The teacher's grammar of English" (COWAN, 2008). Why does the author think "a good understanding of English grammar is necessary for being an effective ESL/EFL teacher"? How does he relate grammatical competence to learning a second language? What does he say about grammar and language variation, language change and usage? Write down the main reasons for learning grammar presented by Cowan and compare to your own thoughts. Share your views with your classmates and tutor.



After watching the video, reflecting on your own conceptions and reading Cowan's perspective, you have probably noticed and have come to the conclusion that it is important to have thorough knowledge of the structures you are going to teach.

In the previous units we have discussed more basic English grammatical structures and now we are ready to dive into more complex syntactic structures in this unit. How about exploring some of those complex structures that make up English grammar together?

10. Word order

When it comes to sentence "arrangement" or constituency, English is commonly described as a "fixed word-order language", since the positions of subject, verb, object/complement are relatively fixed. It is usual for the verb phrases to follow the subject in declarative sentences, but some modifications of its basic constituency must be allowed for if we are to account for questions, negatives, and even complex and reduced sentences. There are different types of operations, such as conjunction, substitution, transposition, and inversion, which do not support the status of a totally "fixed word-order language" for English.

Biber *et al.* (2002) state that the basic word order of English is subject + verb + object and discuss some grammatical devices to manipulate word order in clauses: fronting, inversion of subjects and verbs, existential there clauses, dislocation, clefting and variation in the ordering of objects. The authors claim some of these devices involve simply moving elements to different positions, while others require changing the clause in more complicated ways, such as changing the verb to passive voice. Take a look at the examples provided by the authors:

- Myrna makes the best cucumber salad.
- It's Myrna who makes the best cucumber salad. (clefting)
- The best cucumber salad is made by Myrna. (passive)

Notice that there are pragmatic differences onto how we interpret the sentences, which are different from the unmarked nature of the first one. In the second sentence, for instance, the focus is on Myrna – she, nobody else, makes the best salad. In the third sentence, the action of making the salad is what is important, not the doer – Myrna.

In this and the next section, we are going to take a brief look at some of these structures.

10.1 Cleft sentences

Observe the image below.

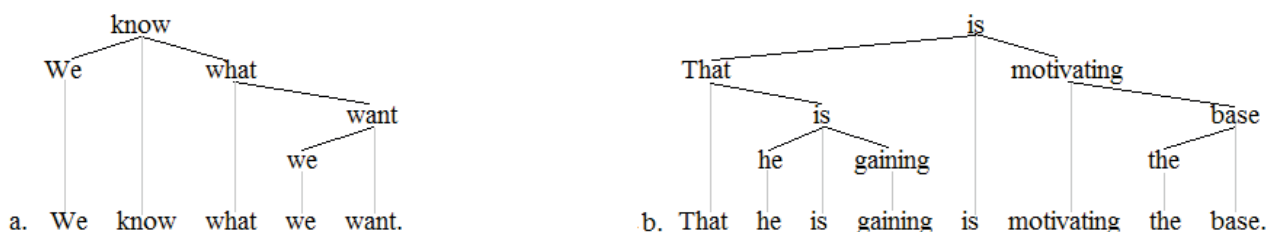


Figura 2
Source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clause>

As you could observe, sentence 'a' has a more linear word order, while sentence 'b' uses the grammatical device of clefting. A cleft sentence is used in order to emphasize the whole sentence rather than just the part following the main verb. For clefting, the information that could be given in a single simple clause is broken into two clauses, each with its own verb. In the image, we have an example of reversed-cleft, which is not as common as it-clefts and wh-clefts, as we illustrate below:

■ It-cleft example:

■ It was her smile that called his attention.

■ Wh-cleft example:

■ What you should do is help them when they come in.

Cleft structures can also include expressions like *the reason why*, *the thing that*, *the place where*, and *the person who*. These structures are typically used with the verb *be*.



How about some practice with clefting? Rewrite these sentences as cleft sentences by starting them with the words or expressions in parentheses and check your answers at the end of the unit.

1. Martin spilled spaghetti sauce on his shirt.
(It) _____
2. I'm going to send all my shirts out to be dry cleaned.
(What) _____
3. My friends call me at work all the time.
(The place where) _____
4. Employees should carry ID cards at all times.
(What) _____
5. My dog wears a sweater because his fur is short.
(The reason why) _____
6. I remember the intense expression on his face.
(The thing that) _____

10.2 Fronting

Swan (2005) explains that if we begin a sentence with something other than the grammatical subject (fronting), this is often to make it the topic – the thing we are talking about (People like that I just can't stand.). This can also move the main new information to the end – its most natural position. According to Biber *et al.* (2002), many types of clause elements can be fronted - which means to be moved to the front of a clause: objects (This I do not understand.), predicatives (Far more serious were the severe head injuries.), non-finite constructions (Waiting below was my grandfather), and some elements in dependent clauses. Fronting is

generally infrequent, but when used, it is typically used for cohesion and for special emphasis and contrast. Observe an example from a song by The Beatles - "Here comes the sun" – we have the process of fronting a place adverbial, which is associated with a shift in the focus on the clause/sentence constituents.

Fronting is generally possible with:

Adverbials (place and movement):

On the table stood a vase of flowers. (A vase of flowers stood on the table)

There is / there are:

Next to the window was a bookcase. (There was a bookcase next to the window)

Participles:

Gone were the designer sunglasses. (The designer sunglasses were gone)

Visit <http://www.elbase.com/notes.php?id=538> for more examples on fronting. How about finding some examples of your own and practicing changing word order with fronting?

10.3 Inversion

Observe the two following examples produced by English as a foreign language students:

(a) That she is talented and beautiful, everyone knows and sees, but besides that, she has a great and strong personality. (THIS INVERSION: 😊)

(b) Happened something completely different. (THIS INVERSION: 😞)

What seems to be wrong with this second sentence? Can you identify the basic subject + verb sequence?

Biber *et al.* (2002) explain that inversion has two primary forms: subject-verb and subject-operator inversion. Inversion can be used for cohesion, information flow, intensification and placement of focus.

Inversion can occur after certain negative adverbials and related expressions. When negative expressions such as *no*, *not* or *never* are placed at the beginning of a clause, the subject and verb are inverted (Never have viewers had such a wide range of local programming.). Certain words in English, for instance, *hardly*, *barely*, *scarcely*, *rarely*, *seldom* and *only*, act like negatives (Rarely did television networks show movies in the early days of the medium.). When a negative expression appears in front of a subject and verb in the middle of a sentence, inversion occurs as well. This often happens with the negative words *neither* and *nor*.

In certain conditional structures, the subject and verb may also be inverted, not only in literary and oratorical English, but also as an elevated style of persuasion. The auxiliary verbs that permit the inversion are *HAD*, *WERE*, *SHOULD* and less commonly *COULD* and *MIGHT*.

When present or future real conditionals are expressed with *SHOULD* at the beginning of the sentence, the base form of the verb is used (Should my brother decide to start a business, he'll come to you for financing.).

In past unreal conditional sentences, people sometimes replace *IF* by inverting the subject and the auxiliary *HAD*. This occurs mainly in more formal speech and writing (Had they been unable to work together, the search engine might never have been created). The same construction is possible for negative sentences. Notice that negative forms are not contracted and *NOT* is separated from *HAD* in these sentences (Had this company not created Hello Kitty, it wouldn't have become nearly so successful).

In extremely formal situations, people often replace IF by putting the past subjunctive WERE at the beginning of unreal conditional sentences (Were she to have been wealthy, she might not have gone into business).



Now let's stop and practice rewriting these sentences by starting them with the words in parentheses.

1. Television seldom presents programs that challenge the viewer's intellect.
(Seldom) _____
2. Television viewers will never lack choices due to satellite broadcasting.
(Never) _____
3. If Sven goes into business for himself, I'm sure he'll do very well.
(Should) _____
4. If I had saved money when I was younger, I would be rich by now.
(Had) _____
5. If I discovered my friend was breaking the law, I'd probably call the police.
(Were) _____

10.4 Dislocation

Biber *et al.* (2002) explain that dislocation has to do with how information is distributed in spoken language. It is not a simple word order option, but involves breaking up a clause-like structure into two separate chunks.

Lambrecht (1994, p. 1050) defines a dislocation or a detachment construction as

a sentence structure in which a referential constituent which could function as an argument or an adjunct within a predicate-argument structure occurs instead outside the boundaries of the clause containing the predicate, either to its left (left-dislocation [or theme or topic]) or to its right (right-dislocation [or tail or antitopic]).

Let's take a look at some examples:

- Prefaces: the definite noun occurs in the initial position
 - Sharon, she plays bingo on Sunday night.
- Noun phrase tags: the definite noun phrase occurs after the clause
 - Did they have any, the kids?
- Functions and distribution of prefaces and noun phrase tags
 - Prefaces and noun phrase tags are relatively common in conversation, and they also occur in fictional dialog; they are very rare in ordinary written prose. Prefaces serve to establish a topic and are also a sign of the evolving nature of conversation. Tags frequently seem to have a clarifying function.

10.5 Word choices after the verb

Biber *et al.* (2002) call the attention for the placement of direct objects and indirect objects.

- I'll fix you some tea later. (you – indirect object; some tea – direct object).
- Pronoun sequences as direct and indirect objects
 - Give it to me, Pauli. Give me it, Pauli.
- Clauses with direct object and object predicative
 - Each region should make available a collection of contemporary work. (make it available)
- Placement of objects of phrasal verbs
 - Why do you like picking up the telephone so much?
 - How fast can you pick it up?

An object, direct or indirect, is a noun or pronoun that gives meaning to the subject and verb of the sentence. While not all sentences contain objects, some may contain one or more. For exercises on objects visit <http://www.e-grammar.org/direct-indirect-object/> or explore your grammar manual. In case you need help, let your tutor know.

11. Sentence-level complexities

According to Swan (2005), understanding complicated structures pose as a need when exploring syntax. The author exemplifies this kind of structure with clauses inside clauses. Sometimes an adverb clause is put into the middle of another clause, separating a **subject** from its verb.

Ann, when she finally managed to go to sleep, **had** a series of bad dreams.

There are many other complicated structures in the English language as the one illustrated above. In this section, we favored four of them.

11.1 Passive constructions

Swan (2005, p. xxii) explains that:

A passive verb form is made with be + past participle. Examples: is broken; was told; will be helped (but not *breaks*, *told*, *will help*, which are active verb forms). The subject of a passive verb is usually the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. Compare: *They sent Lucas to prison for five years* (active) and *Lucas was sent to prison for five years* (passive).

Biber *et al.* (2002) stress that there are three types of passive voice verb phrases: short passives (the agent is not specified), long passives (contain a by phrase), and get-passives (*It's about these people who got left behind in Vietnam*). Compared to active voice, passive voice reduces the importance of the agent of the action to become the subject of the sentence.

Passive Voice verbs are most common in the expository registers, where agents are often unknown or unimportant. In academic prose, passives often relate to scientific methods or logical relationships. In news, passives often report negative events that happened to someone. Get-passives are rare, and used almost exclusively in conversation.

11.2 Double comparatives

Read the following quote by the generativist Noam Chomsky (extracted from http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/authors/n/noam_chomsky.html#wh0YoxRI52g85d0F.99):

The more you can increase fear of drugs and crime, welfare mothers, immigrants and aliens, the more you control all the people.

The underlined expressions that begin each clause mark the structure of double comparatives. You can use two comparatives, each preceded by THE, in order to show one quality or amount is linked to another. The first comparative expresses a condition for the second comparative.

The more exciting the soundtrack, **the better** the movie seems.

These structures are commonly used in double comparatives.

- o The + more/less + clause
 - **The more** I listen to classical music, **the more** I appreciate it.
- o The + comparative form of adjective + clause
 - **The more** romantic a song is, **the less** my brother wants to listen to it.
- o The + comparative form of adverb + clause
 - **The louder** Mario plays his stereo, **the more** his neighbors complain.
- o The + more/less/fewer + noun/gerund + clause
 - **The more** dancing you do, **the more** natural you'll feel on the dance floor.
- o Short double comparatives without verbs are common in conversation. Many of them end in better.
 - The more, the merrier!
 - The bigger, the better!
 - The sooner, the better!



Let's stop again for some practice. Match the clauses to make logical statements and check your answers at the end of the unit.

- | | | |
|--|-----|---|
| (1) The more music you try to listen to | () | a) the fewer new musicians will be developed. |
| (2) The more often you go to dance clubs | () | b) the more you realize how much influence African music has had on it. |
| (3) The more companies a new artist sends a demo CD to | () | c) the more likely you are to enjoy a wide variety of genres. |
| (4) The more you study the history of American popular music | () | d) the greater your chance of suffering some loss of hearing. |
| (5) The less emphasis schools place on music | () | e) the better his or her chances are of getting a record contract. |

11.3 Reporting expressions

Look at these examples which illustrate the differences between Direct Speech and Indirect or Reported Speech (the image is available at http://www.ilmoamal.org/bms/q_unit_slide.php?unit_id=258&slide_order=1&login_required=no).

Example:

Direct Speech

'Can you read louder?' the teacher asked Sana.

Indirect Speech

The teacher asked Sana if she could read louder.

Direct Speech

'She is wearing a beautiful dress,' I said to my friend.

Indirect Speech

I told my friend that she was wearing a beautiful dress.

According to Swan (2005), indirect or reported speech refers to structures in which we report what somebody said by making them part of our own sentences (so that the tenses, word order, and pronouns and other words may be different from those used by the original speakers).

Swan (2005, p. 507) also explains that:

Complicated structures can be produced when reporting expressions are included in sentences.

This is the man who **Ann said** will tell us all about the church.

There are those people that **I thought** were going to buy our house.

This can also happen with reported question structures.

He's gone **I don't know how far**.

We spent **I can't remember how much** money on our holiday.

In case you need more detailed information on how to transform direct into indirect speech, try exploring these two sites <https://www.weblearneng.com/direct-indirect-speech> and <http://www.english-for-students.com/Direct-Speech-into-Indirect-Speech.html>.

11.4 'Such that' and 'So that'

So and such, such...that, so...that, so much/little...that, and so many/few...that are commonly used to express extremes in exclamatory sentences.

- a) *Such* is followed by a noun (usually modified by an adjective).

It has such a big cast that it's one of TV's most expensive shows to make.

- b) *So* is followed by an adjective or adverb.

The storylines are so gripping that you slip into another world.

- c) *So many* and *so few* are followed by countable nouns.

There are so few good shows on television that I rarely watch it anymore.

- d) *So much* and *so little* are followed by uncountable nouns.

We all have so little free time that we can't waste it.



Once again we invite you for a quick break to check how sharp you are on the use of these intensifiers. Complete these sentences with SO, SUCH, SO MUCH, SO LITTLE, SO MANY or SO FEW and do not forget to check your answers at the end of the unit:

- 1) You should have seen the new World War II documentary. It was _____ interesting!
- 2) I don't want cable TV. What would I do with _____ channels?
- 3) Why do you kids spend _____ time in front of the TV? It's not healthy!
- 4) Turn off that program right now! I've never heard _____ language!
- 5) I think travel programs are _____ fascinating!
- 6) Shelby works long hours. He has _____ time for TV.

Take a look at the program for two workshops of an in-service teacher event organized by BRAZ-TESOL chapter BH and try to find examples of the structures explained in this unit. Write down your thoughts.



BRAZ-TESOL chapter BH invites you to an afternoon of sharing

Program

1:30 to 3:00 pm – Workshop 1 – The Road less Travelled



Are you a teacher or do you also work? Have you ever been asked this question? In this session, we will look into how teachers are perceived by society and what we can do to guarantee our own professional development in order to earn the respect we deserve.

With Vinícius Nobre

3:00 to 3:30 pm – Coffee-break

3:30 to 5:00 pm – Workshop 2 – The Digital Image: Developing Visual Literacy in ELT



Thanks to digital technology never have we been able to access, create or manipulate such a great variety of images in so little time. This practical talk will look at ways we can place the image at the centre of our classroom practice, seeing how electronic media can enable learners to become visually literate and to “picture experience” in different ways. Examples of tasks using different digital tools will be shown and evaluated.

With Ben Goldstein



You probably noticed that there are cases of embedded clauses, as in the first workshop summary: “We will look into how teachers are perceived by society”. There were also used of inversion: “Never have we been able to access” and passive voice: “Examples of tasks using different digital tools will be shown” in the second workshop summary.

These constructions were used in order to print ‘style’ into the written production and to emphasize some aspects of the summaries to call the readers’ attention.

12. Some problem structures in the English language

There would be many problem structures we could explore when it comes to syntax of the English language, but due to time constraints, we have chosen to reflect on the following: misplaced modifiers, dangling modifiers, subjunctive, subject-verb agreement and dummy it.

12.1 Misplaced modifiers¹

Misplaced modifiers are participles that modify the wrong word in a sentence. Usually, this is a result of placing the modifier in the wrong spot. A modifier should usually be next to the word it is referring to.

For example: Putting the leash on, the dog bit John.

The cat in the alley looked at me with a rat trapped under one claw.

Dogs don’t put on their own leashes and I don’t catch rats! These should be rewritten:

When John put the leash on the dog, the dog bit John.

With a rat trapped under one claw, the cat looked at me.

12.2 Dangling modifiers²

A dangling modifier is a word or phrase that modifies a word not clearly stated in the sentence. A modifier describes, clarifies, or gives more detail about a concept.

- Having finished the assignment, Jill turned on the TV.

“Having finished” states an action but does not name the doer of that action. In English sentences, the doer must be the subject of the main clause that follows. In this sentence, it is Jill. She seems logically to be the one doing the action (“having finished”), and this sentence therefore does not have a dangling modifier.

The following sentence has an **incorrect usage**:

- Having finished the assignment, the TV was turned on.

“Having finished” is a participle expressing action, but the doer is not the TV set (the subject of the main clause): TV sets don’t finish assignments. Since the doer of the action expressed in the participle has not been clearly stated, the participial phrase is said to be a dangling modifier.

1 Source: <http://bogglesworldesl.com/glossary/misplacedmodifier.htm>.

2 Source: <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/597/1/>.

12.3 Subjunctive

Swan (2005, p. 567) states that:

Some languages have special verb forms called 'subjunctive', which are used especially to talk about 'unreal' situations: things which are possible, desirable or imaginary. Older English had subjunctives, but in modern English they have mostly been replaced by uses of *should*, *would* and other modal verbs, by special uses of past tenses, and by ordinary verb forms. English only has a few subjunctive forms left: third-person singular present verbs without *-(e)s*, (e.g. *she see*, *he have*) and special forms of *be* (e.g. *I be*, *he were*).

Using the subjunctive consists of the use of the past tense of verbs to show present time while the past perfect tense is used to show past time, especially in constructions with "wish", as in the following examples:

I wish she were here now.

(She is not here now; notice the use of *she WERE* in unreal situations)

I wish I knew her name.

(I do not know her name)

I wish I had known her name before I met her.

(I did not know her name when I met her).

The subjunctive also occurs in fixed expressions, in conditional clauses with "if" and in formal that-clauses, as follows:

It is essential (possible, necessary, important) **that she be** present when I arrive.

(Notice that verbs have only one subjunctive form when in the third person singular: verb without inflectional *-s/-es*, as in "she do", "she have". With verb to be, its subjunctive form is either "be" or "were". With other subjects the subjunctive is the same as the verbs used in the present form, as in: "I suggest that you leave town")

If I were you I would visit New York.

God bless you!

In order to make subjunctive negative constructions we do not use the auxiliary "do", as in: "The doctor **advised him not to leave** town."

12.4 Subject-verb agreement¹

Subject-verb agreement is a grammatical rule that states that the verb must agree in number with its subject. In English, present tense verbs change to show agreement in the third person singular form (subjects represented by the pronouns HE, SHE, IT) by adding an S or ES.

I live	
you live	
he liveS	we live
she liveS	you live
it liveS	they live

1 Source: <https://eee.uci.edu/programs/esl/svlink.html>.

The irregular verb BE has three forms in the present tense and two forms in the past tense:

Present:

I am
you are
he is, she is, it is
we are
they are

Past:

I was
you were
he was, she was, it was
we were
you were

Subject-verb agreement often causes problems when a noun rather than a pronoun is the subject of the verb.

Incorrect:

The class meet at 10.
The boys in front of the store
wants to buy magazines.

Correct:

The class **meets** at 10.
The boys in front of the store **want**
to buy magazines.

Since most verbs are regular and considering that subject-verb agreement is standard in English, this is rather simple to master. However, there are some peculiarities in British English, for example, that should draw your attention. Usually in British English, collective nouns referring to groups of people (such as *army, company, jury, audience, crowd, majority, class, enemy, staff, committee, government, union*) are followed by a plural verb, while this does not occur in other varieties of English, as in American English.

The football team is/are playing well this season.

(Notice that the word **police** is usually used with verbs in the **plural**. If you wish to refer to an individual member of the police, one should use the words **policeman, policewoman** or **police officer**).

Some words are always used with verbs in the singular, such as **everybody, anybody, somebody, nobody, everyone, anyone, someone** and **no one**.

Nobody **enjoys** doing school homework on weekends.

The quantifiers **both of, a few of, many and several**, for example, always take the **plural** form of the verb, as in: "Many of my students are fluent in English" but "Several of the students **aren't** going to pass."

Other quantifiers, such as **half of, a third of, a % of, some or most** can be both **singular or plural** depending on the structure that follows it. Take a look at the examples below and compare the structures.

60% of Brazilian **voters support** the president.
About 50% of **the composition has** been copied.

Half of **the students are** going to pass.
Half of **the class is** really happy with the teacher.

Be careful with irregular plural forms, such as *data, children, women*, and the like. These are all used with plural verbs.

For a lot of practice, how about visiting one or all of the following sites?

http://guidetogrammar.org/grammar/quiz2/quizzes-to-fix/sv_agr_quiz.html

<http://www.cityu.edu.hk/elc/quiz/subverb1.htm>

<http://www.englishexercises.org/makeagame/viewgame.asp?id=2543>

https://tools.mheducation.ca/college/langancol/student/olc/2cwl_activityse_26.html

<https://webapps.towson.edu/ows/sub-verb.htm>

https://owl.purdue.edu/owl_exercises/sentence_structure/subject_verb_agreement/subject_verb_agreement_exercise.html

Or you can just print this worksheet and complete the quiz. Have fun!

<http://www.chompchomp.com/handouts/sva04.pdf>

12.5 Dummy IT:

Observe the use of *it* as a subject (or dummy subject) in sentences about time and weather and in certain idiomatic expressions.



Figura 3



Figura 4

Source of first image: <http://www.argyleacademy.com/2008/01/its-raining.html>

Source of second image: <http://www.thedaybookblog.com/2010/02/its-all-right-that-im-not-making-dinner.html>

Unlike the ordinary pronoun *it*, dummy *it* refers to nothing at all; it simply serves a grammatical function. In other words, dummy *it* has a grammatical meaning but no lexical meaning.

Also known as *ambient "it"* or *empty "it"*, Swan (2005, p. 446) names it preparatory "*it*".

When the subject of a clause is an infinitive expression, this does not normally come at the beginning. We usually prefer to start with the 'preparatory subject' *it*, and to put the infinitive expression later (long or complicated items are often put towards the end of a sentence). Preparatory *it* is common before **be + adjective/noun**.

It's nice **to talk** to you.

We also use preparatory *it* when the subject of a clause is itself a clause.

It doesn't interest me **what you think**.

Task 15 - Surf, practice and test yourself

You are going to surf the web, visit the assigned websites which are quizzes on the different topics we have studied throughout this unit. Write down what you have learned or questions you may have in order to discuss with your classmates and tutor.

Cleft sentences: http://www.elbase.com/quiz/205_01.htm (activity to put words in order).

Inversion: http://www.englishtenses.com/exercise/inversion_exercise (Do it on a piece of paper and then check).

Word order: <http://esl.fis.edu/grammar/multi/order2.htm>.

Passive Voice: <http://www.learnenglishfeelgood.com/esl-passive-voice-exercise2.html>.

Reported speech: http://esl.about.com/library/quiz/blgrquiz_reported1.htm

So and such: <http://www.usingenglish.com/quizzes/236.html>

Subjunctive: <https://www.englishclub.com/grammar/subjunctive-quiz.htm>

Subject-verb agreement: <http://a4esl.org/q/h/9901/cw-svagreement.html> (Think of the answer and click to see the correct reply).



When you reach this point in the unit, you have certainly explored all the different sites indicated above, have tested your knowledge of advanced English grammar and have completed all the activities on complex structures. Now it's time to stop, summarize what you have learned so far and to write down any doubts you might still have. Make sure you share them with your classmates and tutor.

A large, empty rectangular area representing a spiral-bound notebook, with a black spiral binding on the left side.



TASK 16 - Forum

Now use the forum to discuss your mistakes during the quizzes and to ask your tutor about what you haven't understood well.



TASK 17 - Wiki

Since we have come to the end of the unit, it's now your turn to explore the complexities of the English language. It will be a collaborative activity. Your tutor will assign different groups for you to complete this task. Choose a syntactic structure you believe should be explored further or decide on other structures we did not cover along the course. Find definitions, explanations, examples and websites with practical activities, and produce a wiki page.

ANSWER KEY:

10.1 Clefting:

1. It was Martin who spilled spaghetti sauce on his shirt.
2. What I am going to do is to send all my shirts out to be dry cleaned.
3. The place where my friends call me all the time is at work.
4. What employees should carry all times is their ID cards
5. The reason why my dog wears a sweater is that his fur is short.
6. The thing that I remember is the intense expression on his face.

10.3 Inversion:

1. Seldom does television present programs that challenge the viewer's intellect.
2. Never will television viewers lack choices due to satellite broadcasting.
3. Should Sven go into business for himself, I'm sure he'll do very well.
4. Had I saved money when I was younger, I would be rich by now.
5. Were I to discover my friend was breaking the law, I'd probably call the police.

11.2 Double comparatives: 1 - C ; 2 - D ; 3 - E ; 4 - B ; 5 - A

11.4 'Such that' and 'So that': 1. so 2. so many 3. so much 4. such 5. so 6. so little



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Suggested additional reference:

A) Materials available for download:

Grammar is grammar usage is usage

http://faculty.washington.edu/fjn/Newmeyer_LSA_address.pdf

Grammar Slammer Sample

<http://englishplus.com/grammar/>

Grammar, usage, and punctuation

<http://www.cseataxlocal690.org/booklet5.pdf>

Handbook of grammar, mechanics and usage

http://wps.prenhall.com/wps/media/objects/2942/3013109/Thill_Handbook.pdf

How to teach grammar

<http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/pdf%20files/grammar.pdf>

An Introduction to Functional Grammar

http://www.uel.br/projetos/ppcat/pages/arquivos/RECURSOS/2004_HALLIDAY_MATTHIESSEN_An_Introduction_to_Functional_Grammar.pdf

B) Some more sites on grammar:

<http://grammar.yourdictionary.com/>
<http://grammarist.com/usage/grammar-usage/>
<http://www.dummies.com/how-to/education-languages/language-arts/Grammar-Usage.html>
<http://www.english-grammar-revolution.com/proper-grammar.html>
<https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/1/5/>

C) Some more texts on the teaching of grammar

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