CHAPTER 7

Grammar

Diagramming sentences is one of those lost skills, like darning socks or playing the sackbut, that no one seems to miss. When it was introduced in an 1877 text called *Higher Lessons in English* by Alonzo Reed and Brainerd Kellogg, it swept through American public schools like measles, embraced by teachers as the way to reform students who were engaged in (to take Henry Higgins slightly out of context) "the cold-blooded murder of the English tongue."

Florey (2006)

We have already looked at two levels of description used in the study of language. We have described linguistic expressions as sequences of sounds that can be represented in the phonetic alphabet and described in terms of their features. That is, we can identify a voiced fricative /ð/, a voiceless stop /k/ and a diphthong /ɔɪ/ as segments in the transcription of a phrase such as /ðəlʌkibɔɪz/.

We can take the same expression and describe it as a sequence of morphemes.

the	*luck*	*-y*	*boy*	*-s*
functional	lexical	derivational	lexical	inflectional

With these descriptions, we could characterize all the words and phrases of a language in terms of their phonology and morphology.

English grammar

However, we have not accounted for the fact that the three words in this phrase can only be combined in a particular sequence. We recognize that the phrase *the lucky boys* is a well-formed phrase in contemporary English, but that the following two "phrases" are not at all well-formed.

*boys the lucky   *lucky boys the

(We use an asterisk * to indicate that a form is unacceptable or ungrammatical.)

From these examples, we can see that English has strict rules for combining words into phrases. The article (*the*) must go before the adjective (*lucky*), which must go before the noun (*boys*). So, in order to be grammatical, this type of phrase must have the sequence article + adjective + noun (and not *noun + article + adjective, for example).

The process of describing the structure of phrases and sentences in such a way that we account for all the grammatical sequences in a language and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences is one way of defining the **grammar** of a language. It is the kind of definition assumed when we talk about the grammar of English as opposed to the grammar of Swahili, Tagalog or Turkish. As illustrated in Chapter 6, each of these languages has different ways of forming grammatical phrases and sentences. Studying grammar in this way has a very long tradition.

Traditional grammar

The terms "article," "adjective" and "noun" that we use to label the grammatical categories of the words in the phrase *the lucky boys* come from traditional grammar, which has its origins in the description of languages such as Latin and Greek. Indeed, the expression "grammar school" was originally used exclusively for an institution where Latin was taught. Since there was a well-established grammatical description of Latin, based on earlier analyses of Greek, it seemed appropriate to adopt the existing categories from this description and apply them in the analysis of newer languages such as English. Because Latin and Greek were the languages of philosophy, religion and scholarship, the description of the grammatical components of these languages was taken to be the best model for other grammars. We have inherited a number of terms from the model that are used in describing those basic grammatical components, known as the "parts of speech," and how they connect to each other in terms of "agreement."

The parts of speech

Each part of speech, or word class, is illustrated in the following sentence and simple definitions of each technical term are listed below.

The	*lucky*	*boys*	*found*	*a*	*backpack*	*in*	
article	adjective	noun	verb	article	noun	preposition	

the	*park*	*and*	*they*	*opened*	*it*	*carefully*
article	noun	conjunction	pronoun	verb	pronoun	adverb

Nouns are words used to refer to people (*boy*), objects (*backpack*), creatures (*dog*), places (*school*), qualities (*roughness*), phenomena (*earthquake*) and abstract ideas (*love*) as if they were all "things." We begin **proper nouns** with a capital letter (*Cathy*, *Latin*, *Rome*).

Articles are words (*a*, *an*, *the*) used with nouns to form noun phrases classifying those "things" (*You can have **a** banana or **an** apple*) or identifying them as already known (*I'll take **the** apple*).

Adjectives are words used, typically with nouns, to provide more information about the things referred to (***large** objects*, *a **strange** experience*).

Verbs are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (*go*, *talk*) and states (*be*, *have*) involving people and things in events (*Jessica **is** ill and **has** a sore throat so she can't **talk** or **go** anywhere*).

Adverbs are words used, typically with verbs, to provide more information about actions, states and events (*slowly, yesterday*). Some adverbs (*really, very*) are also used with adjectives to modify information about things (***Really** large objects move **slowly**. I had a **very** strange experience **yesterday***).

Prepositions are words (*at, in, on, near, with, without*) used with nouns in phrases providing information about time (***at** five o'clock*, ***in** the morning*), place (***on** the table*, ***near** the window*) and other connections (***with** a knife*, ***without** a thought*) involving actions and things.

Pronouns are words (*she, herself, they, it, you*) used in place of noun phrases, typically referring to people and things already known (***She** talks to **herself**. **They** said **it** belonged to **you***).

Conjunctions are words (*and, but, because, when*) used to make connections and indicate relationships between events (*Chantel's husband was so sweet **and** he helped her a lot **because** she couldn't do much **when** she was pregnant*).

Agreement

In addition to the terms used for the parts of speech, traditional grammatical analysis has also given us a number of other categories, including "number," "person," "tense," "voice" and "gender." These categories can be discussed in isolation, but their role in describing language structure becomes clearer when we consider them in terms of **agreement**. For example, we say that the verb *loves* "agrees with" the noun *Cathy* in the sentence *Cathy loves her dog*.

female gender

*cathy loves **her** dog*

third person singular, present tense, active voice
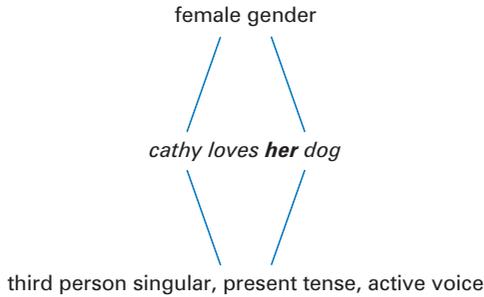
Figure 7.1

This agreement is partially based on the category of **number**, that is, whether the noun is singular or plural. It is also based on the category of **person**, which covers the distinctions of first person (involving the speaker), second person (involving the hearer) and third person (involving any others). The different forms of English pronouns can be described in terms of person and number. We use *I* for first person singular, *you* for second person singular, and *he*, *she*, *it* (or *Cathy*) for third person singular. So, in the sentence *Cathy loves her dog*, we have a noun *Cathy*, which is third person singular, and we use the verb *loves* (not *love*) to "agree with" the noun.

In addition, the form of the verb must be described in terms of another category called **tense**. In this case, the verb *loves* is in the present tense, which is different from the past tense (*loved*). The sentence is also in the **active voice**, describing what Cathy does (i.e. she performs the action of the verb). An alternative would be the **passive voice**, which can be used to describe what happens to Cathy (i.e. she doesn't perform the action), as in *Cathy is loved by her dog* or just *Cathy is loved*.

Our final category is **gender**, which helps us describe the agreement between *Cathy* and *her* in our example sentence. In English, we have to describe this relationship in terms of **natural gender**, mainly derived from a biological distinction between male and female. The agreement between *Cathy* and *her* is based on a distinction made in English between reference to female entities (*she*, *her*), male entities (*he*, *his*) and things or creatures, when the sex is unknown or irrelevant (*it*, *its*).

Figure 7.1 shows the basis of the agreement between *Cathy* and *loves*, and also between *Cathy* and *her* in the same sentence.

Grammatical gender

The type of biological distinction based on "natural gender" in English is quite different from the more common distinction found in languages that use **grammatical gender**. Whereas natural gender is based on sex (male and female), grammatical gender is based on the type of noun (masculine and feminine) and is not tied to sex. In this latter sense, nouns are classified according to their gender class and, typically, articles and adjectives have different forms to "agree with" the gender of the noun.

Spanish, for example, has two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine, illustrated by the expressions *el sol* ("the sun") and *la luna* ("the moon"). German uses three genders, masculine *der Mond* ("the moon"), feminine *die Sonne* ("the sun") and neuter *das Feuer* ("the fire"). The different forms of the articles in both the Spanish (*el* or *la*) and German (*der*, *die* or *das*) examples correspond to differences in the gender class of the nouns.

We should emphasize that this gender distinction is not based on a distinction in sex. A young girl is biologically female, but the German noun *das Mädchen* used to talk about her is grammatically neuter. The French noun in *le livre* ("the book") is grammatically masculine, but neither we nor the French people consider a book to be biologically male. Grammatical gender is a very important category for the description of a number of languages (including Latin), but not for other languages such as English. (For more on gender, see Chapter 20.)

Traditional analysis

The notion of appropriateness of analytic categories for a particular language has not always been a consideration. In traditional grammar books, tables such as the following were often presented for the analysis of English verbs, constructed by analogy with tables in Latin grammar, in this case for the verb *amare* ("to love").

	First person singular	(*I*)	love	amo
Present tense, active voice	Second person singular	(*you*)	love	amas
	Third person singular	(*she*)	loves	amat
	First person plural	(*we*)	love	amamus
	Second person plural	(*you*)	love	amatis
	Third person plural	(*they*)	love	amant

Each of the Latin verb forms is different, according to the categories of person and number, yet the English verb forms are (with one exception) mostly the same. Thus, in Latin, these descriptive categories characterize verb forms, but they don't really describe different verb forms in English. In English, it makes more sense to say the categories can be used to describe different forms of pronouns or nouns.

The prescriptive approach

It is one thing to adopt the grammatical labels (e.g. "noun," "verb") to categorize words in English sentences; it is quite another thing to go on to claim that the structure of English sentences should be like the structure of sentences in Latin. That was an approach taken by a number of influential grammarians, mainly in eighteenth-century England, who set out rules for the "proper" use of English. This view of grammar as a set of rules for the proper use of a 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:

You must not split an infinitive
You must not end a sentence with a preposition

Following these types of rules, traditional teachers would correct sentences like *Who did you go with?* to *With whom did you go?* (making sure that the preposition *with* was not at the end of the sentence). And *Mary runs faster than me* would be corrected to *Mary runs faster than I.* And, in proper English writing, one should never begin a sentence with *and*!

It may, in fact, be a valuable part of one's education to be made aware of this "linguistic etiquette" for the use of language in certain contexts. Yet it is worth considering the origins of some of these rules and asking whether they have to be followed in English. Let's look at one example: "You must not split an infinitive."

Captain Kirk's infinitive

The infinitive in English has the form *to* + the base form of the verb, as in *to go*, and can be used with an adverb such as *boldly*. At the beginning of each of the older televised *Star Trek* episodes, one of the main characters, Captain Kirk, always used the expression *To boldly go . . .* This is an example of a split infinitive. Captain Kirk's teacher might have expected him to say *To go boldly* or *Boldly to go*, so that the adverb didn't split the infinitive. If Captain Kirk had been a Roman space traveler, speaking Latin, he would have used the expressions *ire* ("to go") and *audacter* ("boldly"). Now, in saying *Ire audacter . . .* in Latin, Capitaneus Kirkus would not even have the opportunity to split his infinitive (*ire*), because Latin infinitives are single words and just do not split.

If it is a typical feature of the use of English that speakers and writers regularly produce forms such as *to boldly go, to solemnly swear* or *to never ever get back together*, then we may simply wish to note that there are structures in English that differ from those found in Latin, rather than think of the English forms as "bad" because they don't follow a rule of Latin grammar.

The descriptive approach

It may be that using a well-established grammatical description of Latin is a useful guide for some European languages (e.g. Italian or Spanish), is less useful for others (e.g. English), and may be absolutely misleading if you are trying to describe some non-European languages. This last point became clear to those linguists who were trying to describe the structure of the native languages of North America toward the end of the nineteenth century. Because the categories and rules of Latin grammar did not seem to fit these languages, a rather different method, called the **descriptive**

approach, was adopted. Analysts collected samples of the language they were interested in and attempted to describe the regular structures of that language as it was used, not according to some view of how it should be used.

Structural analysis

One type of descriptive approach is called **structural analysis** and its main concern is to investigate the distribution of forms in a language. The method involves the use of "test-frames," which can be sentences with empty slots in them.

The _____ makes a lot of noise.

I heard a _____ yesterday.

There are a lot of forms that can fit into these slots to produce good grammatical sentences of English (e.g. *car*, *child*, *donkey*, *dog*, *radio*). As a result, we can propose that, because all these forms fit in the same test-frame, they are likely to be examples of the same grammatical category, traditionally described as "noun."

However, there are many forms that do not fit those test-frames. Examples would be *Cathy*, *someone*, *the dog*, *a car*, and many others. (That is, we wouldn't say *The Cathy* or *The the dog*.) For these forms, we require different test-frames:

_____ makes a lot of noise.

I heard _____ yesterday.

Among other forms that comfortably fit these test-frames are *it*, *the big dog*, *an old car*, *Ani Difranco*, *the professor with the Scottish accent*, and many other examples of the same grammatical category, traditionally described as "noun phrase."

Observing that *it* fits in this second set of test-frames, and not in the first set (*The it makes a lot of noise*), allows us to improve on the older, Latin-influenced, analysis of pronouns in English. In the older analysis, pronouns were described as "words used in place of nouns." We can now see that it is more accurate to say that pronouns are used in place of noun phrases (not just nouns).

Constituent analysis

An approach with the same descriptive aims is called **constituent analysis**. The technique employed in this approach is designed to show how small constituents (or components) go together to form larger constituents. One basic step is determining how words go together to form phrases. In the following sentence, we can identify nine constituents at the word level: *An old man brought a shotgun to the wedding*. How do those nine constituents go together to form constituents at the phrase level? Does it seem appropriate to put the words together as follows?

An old   man brought   brought a   shotgun to   to the

An	old	man	brought	a	shotgun	to	the	wedding

Figure 7.2

An	old	man	brought	a	shotgun	to	the	wedding
The	woman		kept	a	large	snake	in	a	cage
Gwen			took		Kingston		with		her
I			saw		him		recently		

Figure 7.3

[The]   [dog]   [loved]   [the]   [girl]
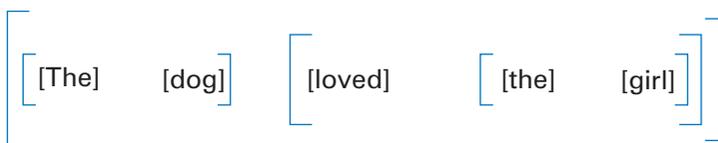
Figure 7.4

We don't normally think of these combinations as phrases in English. We are more likely to say that the phrase-like constituents here are combinations of the following types: *an old man, a shotgun, the wedding* (noun phrases), *to the wedding* (a prepositional phrase), and *brought a shotgun* (a verb phrase).

This analysis of the constituent structure of the sentence can be represented in a diagram (Figure 7.2) showing the distribution of the constituents at different levels.

Using this kind of diagram we can determine the types of forms that can be substituted for each other at different levels of constituent structure (Figure 7.3). One advantage of this type of analysis is that it shows rather clearly that proper nouns or names (*Gwen, Kingston*) and pronouns (*I, him, her*), though they are single words, can be used as noun phrases and fill the same constituent space as longer phrases (e.g. *an old man* or *the woman*).

Labeled and bracketed sentences

An alternative type of diagram is designed to show how the constituents in sentence structure can be marked off by using labeled brackets. The first step is to put brackets (one on each side) round each constituent, and then more brackets round each combination of constituents, as in Figure 7.4:

With this procedure, the different constituents of the sentence are shown at the word level [*the*] or [*dog*], at the phrase level [*the dog*], or [*loved the girl*], and at the sentence level [*The dog loved the girl*].
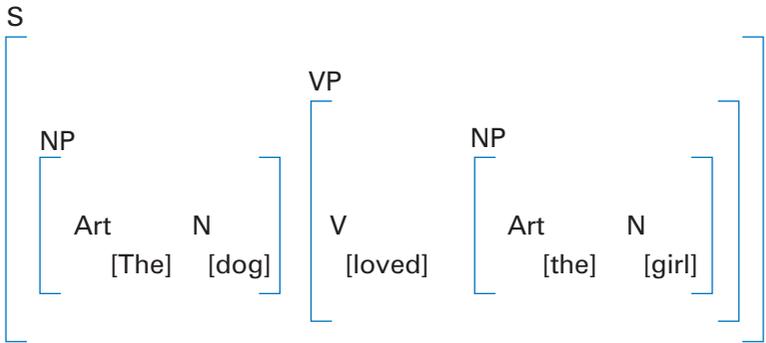
Figure 7.5

We can then label each constituent using these abbreviated grammatical terms:

Art (= article)   V (= verb)
N (= noun)   VP (= verb phrase)
NP (= noun phrase)   S (= sentence)

In Figure 7.5, these labels are placed beside each bracket that marks the beginning of a constituent. The result is a labeled and bracketed analysis of the constituent structure of the sentence.

Hierarchical organization

In performing this type of analysis, we have not only labeled all the constituents, we have revealed the **hierarchical organization** of those constituents. In this hierarchy, the sentence (S) is higher than and contains the noun phrase (NP). The noun phrase (NP) is higher than and contains the noun (N). We can also see that the sentence (S) contains a verb phrase (VP), which contains a verb (V) and another noun phrase (NP). We will return to the important concept of hierarchical organization in grammatical structure in Chapter 8.

Before moving on, however, we should note that constituent analysis is not only useful for describing the structure of English sentences. We can take a sample sentence from a language with a grammatical structure that is really quite different from English and apply the same type of analysis.

A Gaelic sentence

Here is a sentence from Scottish Gaelic, which would be translated into English as: "The boy saw the black dog."

| *Chunnaic*	*an*	*gille*	*an*	*cu*	*dubh*
saw	the	boy	the	dog	black
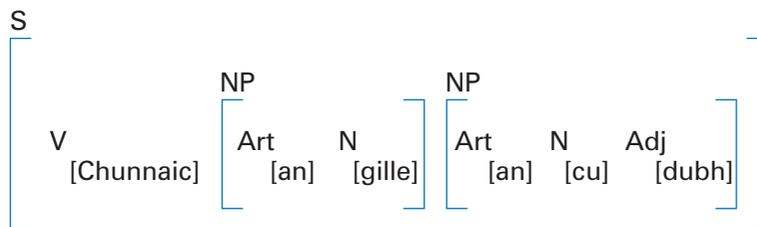
Figure 7.6

One obvious difference between the structure of this Gaelic sentence and its English counterpart is the fact that the verb comes first in the sentence. Another noticeable feature is that, when an adjective is used, it goes after the noun and not before it. We can represent these structural observations in a labeled and bracketed diagram (Figure 7.6).

The diagram in Figure 7.6 makes it clear that this Gaelic sentence is organized with a V NP NP structure, which is rather different from the NP V NP structure we found in the English sentence analyzed earlier.

Why study grammar?

It is not, of course, the aim of this type of analysis that we should be able to draw complicated-looking diagrams in order to impress our friends. The aim is to make explicit, via the diagram, what we believe to be the structure of grammatical sentences in the language. It also enables us to describe clearly how English sentences are put together as combinations of phrases that, in turn, are combinations of words. We can then look at similar descriptions of sentences in other languages such as Gaelic, Japanese or Spanish and see clearly what structural differences exist. At a very practical level, it may help us to understand why a Spanish learner of English produces phrases like *the wine red* (instead of *the red wine*), using a structural organization of constituents that is possible in Spanish, but not in English.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1 What is the difference between grammatical gender and natural gender?

2 What prescriptive rules for the "proper" use of English are not obeyed in the following sentences and how would they be "corrected"?
   (a) *The old theory consistently failed to fully explain all the data.*
   (b) *I can't remember the name of the person I gave the book to.*

3 Identify all the parts of speech used in this sentence (e.g. *woman* = noun): *The woman kept a large snake in a cage, but it escaped recently.*

4 What was wrong with the older Latin-influenced definition of English pronouns?

5 Given these other Gaelic words, translate the following sentences into English.

   mor ("big")   *beag* ("small")   *bhuail* ("hit")   *duine* ("man")

   (a) *Bhuail an gille beag an cu dubh*
   (b) *Chunnaic an cu an duine mor*

6 Create a labeled and bracketed analysis of this sentence: *The thief stole a wallet.*

TASKS

A Another term used in the description of the parts of speech is "determiner." What are determiners? How many examples were included in this chapter?

B In this chapter, we discussed "correction" in grammar. What is "hypercorrection"?

C What is aspect? How is it used in the description of the underlined forms in these sentences?

I hope no one calls while I'm eating lunch.
She's writing a story about her dog.
I've eaten lunch already, thanks.
She's written a story about her cat and the cat next door.
I was eating lunch, so I didn't answer.
She had written a story about her goldfish before that.
As a child, she used to write stories about the insects in the garden.

D What is the basis of the categorization of English verbs as transitive, intransitive or ditransitive? Can you use this categorization to explain why these sentences are ungrammatical?
   (1) **I thought I had lost my sunglasses, but Ali found in his car.*
   (2) **Mark didn't win, but he didn't care that.*
   (3) **They had a problem so we discussed.*

(4) *Suzy needed a jacket so I lent mine.*

(5) *We're always waiting you because you're late.*

(6) *I didn't have a pen so Anne gave one.*

(7) *When it's your birthday, people bring you.*

(8) *She smiled me yesterday when I saw her, so I think she really likes.*

E All the underlined words in the following sentences are adverbs. On the basis of these sentences, can you formulate a simple rule of adverb position in English that would exclude the ungrammatical forms?

(1) *Do you <u>usually</u> wake up hungry?*

(2) *<u>Normally</u> I don't eat breakfast.*

(3) *I'd rather sleep <u>longer</u>.*

(4) *I <u>always</u> have a cup of green tea to start my day.*

(5) *I'll have some fruit juice <u>occasionally</u>.*

(6) *Of course I'm <u>often</u> starving by lunchtime.*

(7) *I might have <u>later</u> a small snack or something.*

(8) *If I feel tired, I'll drink <u>sometimes</u> coffee at work.*

F If people typically say *little plastic forks* (and not *plastic little forks*), there must be a preferred order of adjectives before nouns in the grammar of English. In this case, the adjective describing the size (*little*) goes before the adjective describing the material (*plastic*) of the noun (*forks*). How are other categories of adjectives ordered?

(i) Using the underlined examples in the following sentences, identify the other categories and complete the chart to capture the preferred order of descriptive adjectives in evidence here.

(ii) If we wanted to add those adjectives that express a subjective "opinion" to the chart (e.g. *beautiful*, *cute*, *horrible*), where would we put them relative to the other types?

(1) *<u>Japanese silk</u> scarves were very popular for many years.*

(2) *The plant has <u>small round pink</u> flowers.*

(3) *The <u>recent European</u> results were not very encouraging.*

(4) *They had uncovered some <u>ancient square</u> stones with carvings on them.*

(5) *It looked like <u>squiggly Arabic</u> writing on the back of the card.*

(6) *She was wearing a <u>white cotton</u> blouse with a <u>short green</u> skirt.*

(7) *Her ring had an <u>oval red</u> ruby surrounded by <u>tiny wedge-shaped</u> diamonds.*

(8) *Eric still drives that <u>big old American</u> car.*

(9) *The windows had <u>dated Victorian-style lace</u> curtains.*

(10) *I was wearing my <u>brand-new black leather</u> shoes.*

(11) *Yuri works downtown in one of those <u>huge modern glass</u> buildings.*

(12) *The best bowls have <u>circular blue Chinese</u> designs in the middle.*

SIZE	MATERIAL
little	*plastic*

G As studied in language typology, the grammars of different languages can be distinguished in terms of their basic structural organization. For example, the structural analysis of a basic English sentence (NP + V + NP) is often described as "Subject Verb Object" or SVO. The basic sentence order in a Gaelic sentence (V + NP + NP) is described as "Verb Subject Object" or VSO.

(i) After looking at the following examples (based on Inoue, 1979), would you describe the basic sentence order in these Japanese sentences as SVO or VSO or something else?

(ii) Given the forms *tabemashita* ("ate"), *ringo* ("apple") and *-ni* ("in"), how would you translate these two sentences: *Jack ate an apple* and *John is in school*?

(1) *Jakku-ga   gakkoo-e   ikimasu*
Jack   school to   go
("Jack goes to school")

(2) *Kazuko-ga   gakkoo-de   eigo-o   naratte   imasu*
Kazuko   school at   English   learn   be
("Kazuko is learning English at school")

(3) *Masuda-ga   tegami-o   kakimasu*
Masuda   letter   write
("Masuda writes a letter")

(4) *Jon-ga   shinbun-o   yomimasu*
John   newspaper   read
("John reads a newspaper")

H The sample sentences below are from (i) Latin and (ii) Amuzgo, a language of Mexico (adapted from Merrifield *et al.*, 2003).

1 Using what you have learned about Latin, carefully translate this sentence: *The doves love the small girl*.

2 How would you write *A big woman is reading the red book* in Amuzgo?

3 In terms of basic sentence order, which of these languages is most similar to Amuzgo: English, Gaelic, Japanese or Latin?

    (i) Latin

puellae aquilas portant	"The girls carry the eagles"
feminae columbas amant	"The women love the doves"
puella aquilam salvat	"The girl saves the eagle"
femina parvam aquilam liberat	"The woman frees the small eagle"
magna aquila parvam columbam	"The big eagle fights the small dove"
pugnat	

    (ii) Amuzgo

macei'na tyocho kwi com	"The boy is reading a book"
kwil'a yonom kwi w'aa	"The men are building a house"
nnceihnda yusku kwi com we	"The woman will buy a red book"
kwil'a yonom ndee meisa	"The men are making three tables"
macei'na kwi tyocho com t'ma	"A boy is reading the big book"

DISCUSSION TOPICS/PROJECTS

I In this chapter, we briefly mentioned the grammatical category of tense and illustrated the difference between past tense (*loved*) and present tense (*loves*). Using the examples below, and any others that you think are relevant, try to describe the "future tense" in English.

  (1) *We may forgive, but we shall never forget.*
  (2) *We'll leave if you want.*
  (3) *Jenny's arriving at eight o'clock tonight.*
  (4) *Your plane leaves at noon tomorrow.*
  (5) *They were about to leave when I got there.*
  (6) *We're going to visit Paris next year.*
  (7) *She said Jim was leaving next Wednesday.*
  (8) *I wish I had a million dollars.*
  (9) *The president is to visit Japan in May.*
  (10) *Water will freeze at zero degrees centigrade.*

(For background reading, see the section on "Future" in Hurford, 1994.)

II In the descriptive approach, "ungrammatical" simply means "not well-formed" in purely structural terms. However, the word "ungrammatical" is also used with a more general meaning. Which of the following sentences should be considered "ungrammatical" in your opinion and why?

  (1) *There's hundreds of students waiting outside.*
  (2) *Who's there? It's me and Lisa.*
  (3) *Ain't nobody gonna tell me what to do.*
  (4) *You wasn't here when he come looking for you.*
  (5) *I hate lobsters anymore.*
  (6) *Are y'all coming to see us soon?*

(7)   *That chair's broke, so you shouldn't ought to sit on it.*

(8)   *I can't remember the name of the hotel that we stayed in it.*

(9)   *I never seen anything.*

(10) *If you'd have come with, we'd have had more fun.*

(For background reading, see chapter 8 of Napoli and Lee-Schoenfeld, 2010.)

FURTHER READING

Basic treatments

Altenberg, E. and R. Vago (2010) *English Grammar: Understanding the Basics* Cambridge University Press

Swan, M. (2005) *Grammar* Oxford University Press

More detailed treatments

Hurford, J. (1994) *Grammar: A Student's Guide* Cambridge University Press

Kroeger, P. (2005) *Analyzing Grammar: An Introduction* Cambridge University Press

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Peters, P. (2013) *The Cambridge Dictionary of English Grammar* Cambridge University Press

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