

TEMA 12: *Elementos esenciales de morfosintaxis de la lengua inglesa. Estructuras comunicativas elementales. Uso progresivo de las categorías gramaticales en las producciones orales y escritas para mejorar la comunicación.*

Autora: Raquel Martín Tena.

Contents

1.- INTRODUCTION

2.- MAIN ELEMENTS OF MORPHOSYNTAX.

- 2.1 The morpheme.
- 2.2 The word.
- 2.3 The sentence.

3.- MAIN COMMUNICATIVE STRUCTURES.

- 3.1 Sentences and their grammatical form.
- 3.2 Sentences and their functions in communication.
- 3.3 Sentences and pragmatics.

4.- PROGRESSIVE USE OF GRAMMAR CATEGORIES IN THE ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATIVE PRODUCTION.

- 4.1. Communicative competence.
- 4.2. The role of grammar in language teaching.
- 4.3. Grammar and methodology.
 - 4.3.1 Deductive and inductive approaches.
- 4.4. Grammar activities.

5.- CONCLUSION.

6.- BIBLIOGRAPHY.

1 .- INTRODUCTION.

It is difficult to capture the central role played by grammar in the structure of language. Two steps can usually be distinguished in the study of grammar. The first step is to identify units in the stream of speech (or writing)-units such as 'word' and 'sentence'. The second step is to analyse the patterns into which these units fall, and the relationships of meaning that these patterns convey.

Chomsky (1928), writes that grammar is a 'device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis'. Chomsky, subsumes all aspects of sentence patterning, including phonology and semantics, and introduces the term 'syntax'.

In this unit, first we are going to see the basic units that constitute the language and their relation in the acquisition of communicative structures. Finally we will discuss how to teach and learn grammar and its importance in the acquisition of the communicative competence.

2.- MAIN ELEMENTS OF MORPHOSYNTAX.

The range of constructions that is studied by grammar is very large, and grammarians have often divided it into sub-fields. The oldest and most widely-used division is that between **morphology and syntax**.

- **Morphology:** studies the structure of words (morphemes)
- **Syntax:** is the way in which words are arranged to show relationships of meaning within or between sentences. The most basic units of syntax are the word and the sentence.

2.1 The morpheme.

Is the minimal unit of grammatical description in the sense that it cannot be segmented any further at the grammatical level of analysis. *E.g. 'unfriendly'* is composed of three morphemes: '**un-friend-ly**'.

We can distinguish two kinds of morphemes:

- a. free morpheme: the one that can be used independently (*e.g. - friend*).
- b. bound morpheme: it has to go attached to a free morpheme (*e.g. un-and-ly*). Bound morphemes are called 'affixes'. These can be divided into:
 - Prefixes: are added to the beginning of a word. These are always *derivational* and many of them are non-class-changing (*a-moral, ex-wife, boy, example, great*)
 - Suffixes: are added to the end of a word. These can be divided into :
 - derivation suffixes: are added to the root or stem in order to produce a new word (*book: book-let, walk: walk-er*).
 - Inflexional suffixes: mark such distinctions as *the singular/plural, genitive, 3rd person singular, past tense, -ed participle, comparative, superlative*.

2.2 The word.

Words are usually the easiest units to identify, in the written language that sit uneasily at the boundary between morphology and syntax. The concept of 'word' ranges from a single sound as English 'a' to a complex form, equivalent to whole sentences (*playamunurringkutjamunurtu (he/she did not become bad)* in the Western Desert of Australia). In speech it is difficult to 'hear' the spaces between words.

We classify words into word classes that share a number of properties. We distinguish between:

A. **Open classes**: they allow the addition of new members. There are four major word classes: nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

1. **Nouns**: most of them take inflexional suffixes (*cover-age, appear-ance*).
 - Most names take two inflexional: suffixes: 'the plural' (nose-s) and the 'genitive' (Dick's car).
 - They can be subdivided into.
 1. *Proper nouns*.
 2. *Common nouns*.
 - count nouns ('chairs')
 - mass nouns ('water')
2. **Adjectives**: many allow derivational suffixes (*reason-able*). Many inflect for the comparative and the superlative.
3. **Adverbs**: many of them take derivational suffixes (*ful-ly, after-wards*). Some of them inflect for comparison (*fast-faster-fastest*).
4. **Verbs**: most verbs can add four inflexional morphemes to the base:
 1. 3rd person singular present tense (-s/-es) ('rub-s, snor-es, pay-s')
 2. past tense (-d /-ed) ('live-d, want-ed')
 3. participle (-ed) ('catch-ed')
 4. -ing participle (-ing) ('liv-ing')

It can be distinguished between **auxiliary verbs** (helping verbs 'do, have, be, must, shall, will, can, may') and **lexical verbs** ('play, study, sing').

Auxiliary verbs (or 'helping verbs') fall into two classes:

- a. **Modal auxiliaries:** they are always finite and invariably occur as the first element of the verb phrase (*CAN, MAY, SHALL, and WILL*)
- b. **Primary auxiliaries:** they have finite as well as non finite forms and may occur in initial as well as in medial position in the verb phrase (*DO, HAVE, BE*)

B. **Closed classes:** they do not allow the creation of new members. These are:

- 1 **prepositions:** simple ('in, on, up') and complex ('because of, as to')
- 2 **conjunctions:** simple ('and, if, because') and complex ('in case, so that')
- 3 **articles:** definite article ('the') and indefinite article ('a/ an').
- 4 **numerals:** cardinal numbers ('one, two'..) and ordinal numbers ('first...')
- 5 **pronouns:** personal pronouns (subject: *I, You...*) (object: *me, you, him,*), self pronouns ('myself'..), demonstrative pronouns ('this/these...'), possessive pronouns (*my, you, his...*), relative pronouns (*who, which, that..*) interrogative pronouns (*who, whom, what..*), reciprocal pronouns (*each other, one another*).
- 6 **quantifiers** ('someone, anyone, some, each, all, every, no'..)
- 7 **interjections:** used to express emotions, surprise, etc. ('ah, hey, ouch...')

2.3 The phrase

The parts into which a sentence can be segmented are the constituents of the sentence. Although constituents can be regarded as elements that play a role in larger structures we can also look upon them as linguistic units in their own right. If we look at these elements as independent linguistic objects that have their own characteristics (such as their own internal structure), we call them **phrases**. Phrases do not resemble sentences (*John, took or a walk are not sentences*), although it is their natural function to serve as constituents of sentences. Phrases may consist of single words (*John, took*) or of more words (*young John*)

The phrase is a constituent which can be identified on the basis of the word class membership of at least one of its constituent words; thus a noun phrase is a phrase which has a noun as its most important constituent, an adjective phrase is a phrase whose principal element is an adjective...etc.

2.4 The sentence.

The sentence is regarded as the largest unit of grammatical description since it does not function in the structure of a unit higher than itself. To treat the sentence as the highest unit implies that we do not take into account larger stretches of language such as paragraphs and texts.

Sentences can be described by specifying:

1. The **functions** that their constituents have in sentence structure.
2. The **categories** which their constituents belong to.

Sentence constituents can have the following **functions**:

- A. Subject (Su)
- B. Predicate
 - b. 1 Predicator (P)
 - b. 2 Complement.
 - Direct Object (DO): 'Many students enjoyed **the concert.**'
 - Indirect Object (ID): 'The firm has offered **Jim** a Job.'
 - Object Attribute (OA): 'That remark made me **sick.**'
 - Predicator Complement (PC): 'He has **two cars.**'
 - Subject Attribute (SA): 'Joyce's baby has fallen **ill.**'
 - b.3 Adverbial (A): 'We met the Jones in New York, last year'.

For example, the four constituents in 'ALL STUDENTS SHOULD HAVE READ THIS ARTICLE BY MONDAY'

Example	Function	Category
all students:	subject (Su)	NP (noun phrase)
should have read:	predicator (P)	VP (verbal phrase)
this article:	direct object (DO)	NP(noun phrase)
by Monday:	adverbial (A)	Prep. P (prepositional phrase)

Sentence can be either simple or multiple.

- **A simple sentence:** is a sentence in which none of the functions is realized by another sentence. It is always an independent sentence (e.g. 'John is a bachelor').
- **Multiple sentences:** contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. These can be :
 - a. Complex sentences: sentences in which one or more sentence functions are realized by a subordinate clause: 'That the baby is ill is obvious'.
 - b. Compound sentences: sentences in which two or more sentences (called conjoins) have been coordinated. Each of the conjoins is independent.
'John is an engineer and his brother is a doctor'.

As a summary, we have established a hierarchy of units of linguistic description: morphemes function as constituents of words, words

function as constituents of phrases, and phrases as constituents of sentences. This hierarchy has been called the **rankscale**:

SENTENCE-----'We have made some minor corrections'.
 PHRASE-----'some minor corrections'.
 WORD-----'corrections'.
 MORPHEME-----'correct--ion--s'.

3 . - MAIN COMMUNICATIVE STRUCTURES.

We cannot communicate if we do not know how to form and understand sentences. We also need to know the meaning of a sentence in a particular context. We will study sentences and their grammatical form, sentences and their function in communication and sentences and pragmatics.

3.1 Sentences and their grammatical form.

This classification comprises four types: declaratives sentences, interrogative sentences, imperative sentences and exclamatory sentences.

- **Declarative sentences**: always have a subject, which precedes the verb.
'Dr Johnson's Dictionary was published in 1755.'
- **Interrogative sentences**: contain a subject and open with an auxiliary verb or a WH-word.
'Does your mother know about this?' 'Who wrote this letter?'
- **Imperative sentences**: contain a verb in the imperative mood. If a subject is present it is usually "you", but as a rule the subject is lacking.
'Shut that door at once.' 'You go first.'
- **Exclamatory sentences**: the subject precedes the verb. They are introduced by *how* or *what*.
'How beautiful she is!' 'What a good teacher Jim would make!'

3.2 Sentences and their function in communication.

Declarative sentences are chiefly used to make **statements**, interrogative sentences to ask **questions**, imperative sentences to give **commands** and exclamatory sentences to make **exclamations**.

Statements are primarily used to convey information.

Questions are primarily used to seek information on a specific point.

Commands are primarily used to instruct somebody to do something.

Exclamations are primarily used to express the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something.

Grammatical Form	Function in communication	Examples
.Declarative sentence	Statement	<i>John lives in Kent.</i>
.Interrogative sentence	Question	<i>Where were you born?</i>
.Imperative sentence	Command	<i>Get up!</i>
.Exclamatory sentence	Exclamation	<i>What a beauty she is!</i>

Direct association between syntactic and semantic class is the norm, but the two classes do not always match. *'My sister came late last night?'* is syntactically a declarative but semantically a question and *'Isn't it beautiful!'* is syntactically interrogative, but semantically an exclamation.

3.3 Sentences and pragmatics.

Language is for communication. In a dialogue we can distinguish various types of communicative acts, or illocutionary acts, by which people communicate with each other (making statements, asking questions, giving directives with the aim of getting the hearer to carry out some action, making an offer or promise, thanking or expressing exclamation).

It is important to note, however, that there is no one-to-one correspondence between the grammatical form of a sentence and its function in communication (or its illocutionary force). This means that sentences with the same grammatical properties need not have the same illocutionary force and, conversely, that grammatically different sentences can have the same illocutionary force. Thus a request to put the car in the garage can be expressed in a variety of ways: *'Please put the car in the garage'*. *'Could you put the car in the garage?'*

Some examples:

GRAMMATICAL FORM	ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE	EXAMPLE
Declarative Sentences	Statement Command Request Warning	<i>I will be 40 next year.</i> <i>You will leave this room.</i> <i>I would love a martini.</i> <i>That place is very hot.</i>
Interrogative Sentences	Question Request Exclamation Command	<i>Who are you?</i> <i>Can you sing us a song?</i> <i>Isn't that wonderful?</i> <i>What are you laughing at?</i>
Imperative Sentences	Command Wish Invitation Warning	<i>Shut up!</i> <i>Have a nice time!</i> <i>Come and see us soon!</i> <i>Mind your head!</i>

By expressing the intended meaning in an indirect form, the speaker allows the hearer to make the necessary inferences in order to arrive at the correct interpretation. In inferring the speaker's meaning, the situational context and the linguistic co-text are all-important, as is the relationship between speaker and hearer. If an explosion has just been heard in the car-park, 'Have you come by car today?' will suggest a very different intended meaning, perhaps that of a warning, or an injunction to look and see what has happened.

4. - PROGRESSIVE USE OF GRAMMAR CATEGORIES IN THE ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATIVE PRODUCTION.

It is difficult to give any complete definition of grammar as people have different views of where the parameters lie. Here are some definitions:

- In 'An English Grammar for the Use of Schools' (1856) grammar is described as: *'that science which teaches the proper use of letters, syllables, words, and sentences; or which treats the principles and rules of spoken and written language'*.
- *Grammar is the structural foundation of our ability to express ourselves. The more we are aware of how it works, the more we can monitor the meaning and effectiveness of the way we and others use language. It can help foster precision, detect ambiguity, and exploit the richness of expression available in English.* (David Crystal, 'In Word and Deed,' TES Teacher, April 30, 2004)

From the different ways grammar is defined, we will concentrate in grammar as a resource to convey the meaning and intention of what we want to say. Now we will see some definitions of communicative competence that include grammatical competence.

4.1 Communicative competence.

Communicative competence is a linguistic term which refers to a learner's L2 ability. It not only refers to a learner's ability to apply and use grammatical rules, but also to form correct utterances, and know how to use these utterances appropriately.

The term was coined by Dell Hymes (1967, 1972) a sociolinguist who was convinced that Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence was too limited

- **Michaele Canale and Merrill Swain (1980)** and later van Ek (1986) developed models to show communicative competence, with particular reference to L2 speakers. Canale and Swain's model had four major components:

1. Grammatical competence the knowledge of the language code (grammatical rules, vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation, spelling, etc.); words and rules.
2. Discourse competence: the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive and coherent texts.
3. Sociolinguistic competence: the mastery of the socio-cultural code of language use (appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness...)
4. Strategic competence: the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which can enable us to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur or to improve effectiveness.

The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself, whereas the last two define the more functional aspects of communication.

Royal Decree 126/2014, 28th February, which establishes the basic curriculum for Primary Education nationwide in our country, follows the guidelines of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. This means that the teaching of a foreign language should be aimed at students to achieve the communicative competence in all its components (*grammar competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and sociocultural competence*).

***For more information about Communicative Competence, see topic 14.**

*** Also see the legislation of each autonomous community.**

4.2 The role of grammar in language teaching.

During the height of the whole language movement, when teaching grammar in isolation became taboo, many teachers were left frustrated and baffled by the lack of grammar instruction in the classroom.

English teachers of later generations, on the other hand, joined the profession embracing ideas of *descriptive* and prescriptive grammar. Both kinds of grammar are concerned with rules--but in different ways. Specialists in descriptive grammar (called linguists) study the rules or patterns that underlie our use of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. On the other hand, prescriptive grammarians (such as most editors and teachers) lay out rules about what they believe to be the 'correct' or 'incorrect' use of language. Grammar instruction should be tailor-made to meet the needs of students, and should weave both *prescriptive* and *descriptive* practices into relevant, meaningful instruction

With the Communicative approach, grammar was given little importance. Soon, it was seen that learners became very fluent but often very inaccurate. We had to think about how to teach grammar for communication.

As we have just seen, in both Canale and Swain's and Van Ek's models, grammatical competence is one of the competences that make up communicative competence.

Close (1981) says that '*effective communication depends very largely on a complex set of conventions which both speaker and hearer, writer and reader have to follow and understand*'.

Communicative grammar is based on the communicative approach to the Teaching of second/foreign languages. Language structures must not be taught in isolation but integrated to the four skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In this way a structure is practiced orally and in written form. Grammatical patterns must not only be learned at the utterance level but at the discourse level; the main objective focuses on the development of communicative grammatical competence, which is understood as the ability to use and understand a structure in a variety of situations spontaneously. The approach calls for a certain balance between pre-communicative and communicative activities: the first prepare the learner to handle the language rules for actual communication and the latter enable him to use the structures in real communication. Classes are planned in a way that the students use the structures naturally and not artificially, and they require time and practice to internalize those patterns by using a process in which grammatical structures are recycled with more complex variations.

To understand the need to learn grammar, to achieve the communicative competence, we will distinguish between **information** and **message in communication**:

- **Information:** is the simple detail of the communication, and it is possible to convey this with errors, as when a child says '*I goed to the park*'.
- **Message:** the message conveys much more. The message is made up of:
 - the information we wish to convey.
 - the focus of that information.
 - our attitude to the information.
 - our attitude to the receiver.

When we communicate, we communicate in messages. All these elements mentioned above are part of the 'communicative competence' as well as grammar.

Where there are choices, such as whether to use the active or passive voice, which modal to use, or where to use the prepositional phrase, the decision the speaker or writer makes will inform the interpretation of the messages by the listener or reader. (*e.g. same news published in different newspapers, will focus on the event or on the criminal depending on the active or passive voice used*)

Whatever the thinking about grammar and its importance in communicating and in acquiring communicative competence might have been, many L2 teachers, however, have been wary of giving up some kind of system which organizes language. Richards (1985) commented that '*despite the impact communicative approaches have had on methodology in recent years, the bulk of the world's second-and foreign-language learners continue to learn from materials in which the principles of organization and presentation are grammatically based*'.

4.3. Grammar and methodology.

For grammar to be relevant to English teaching, it must:

- Relate to language in use.
 - Be described with reference to actual purposes and real contexts rather than as a part of a set of des-contextual exercises.
 - Focus on functions as well as on forms.
 - Have educational relevance: that is, be of demonstrable use in, for example differentiating spoken from written English.
 - Be related to the study and use of texts in educational contexts.
 - Be seen as a part of a wider syllabus of language study.
- (Carter 1991)

When designing a grammar syllabus, it is important to understand the communicative needs of the learners, and the fact that learners acquire accurate use of the language only over a long period.

To teach grammar for communication successfully, we have to look at three areas: learner variables, teacher roles and interactive methodology.

1. **Learner variables**: Celce- Murcia listed several variables that need to be taken into account in language learning:
 - Age (children, adolescents, adults).
 - Proficiency level: (beginning, intermediate, advanced).

- Educational: (no formal education, some formal education, well educated).
2. **Teacher roles**: tasks are not 'communicative' per se; it is the classroom situation that makes them communicative. There are three main roles of the teacher:
- a. **Controlling role**: the teacher is the one who organizes the classroom usually in a very formal setting. He manages the time for each activity.
 - b. **Non-intervention**: or the facilitator role. The teacher's main role is to respond to the learner's needs. Some learners might feel insecure when they have taken on so much.
 - c. **Manager role**: the teacher takes on the role of authority, but is not authoritarian, is responsible for the overall organization of the course and the setting, but encourages learners to become involved.
3. **Interactive methodology**: when thinking of a task, we should think of the **age** of the learner, the personality of the learner and the learning experience.
- **Personality**: those who like to see how things are built up, and those who are able to take in all the features.
 - **Learning experiences**: many people will have an attitude towards the learning and teaching a second language from their previous experience.

Grammar Instruction

We can distinguish three stages when teaching grammar: **presentation, practice and production**. In thinking about presentation and practice, it is not necessarily the case that the former should precede the latter. It may be that it is better to start with a practice task to see if the students need an introduction to the structure and, if they do, what kind of introduction they need. Here are some tips for teachers to consider when they teach grammar:

- Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.
- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 15 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles:

- Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate.
- Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

Error correction

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language.

4.3.1 Deductive and inductive approaches.

There are two approaches to the learning of grammar: one is **deductive**, where the teacher explains the rules and meaning to the learner; the other is **inductive**, where learners are given a lot of examples and establish the rules and meaning for themselves (more motivating).

Experience suggests that we must try to find a way to combine the two or to create a balance in our classes.

4.4 Grammar activities.

In any language classroom, there must be a balance between the focus on specific areas of grammar and the development of communicative competence.

A grammar activity, should give the learner practice with the structure, what it means and how it is used; and to give the learner the confidence to use it in a larger discourse. The task must be seen as a means to helping the learner towards greater communicative skills.

Candlin and Murphy (1987) list a criteria for communicative tasks:

1. **BALANCED**- between open-ended and limited learner resources.
2. **MOTIVATING**- requiring participation, interesting, challenging, regarding, valuable.
3. **CO-OPERATIVE**- developing social and management skills for learning.
4. **STRATEGIC**- stimulating personal strategies for language learning.
5. **DIFFERENTIATED**- varied for different levels, skills, styles, objectives of learners.
6. **FOCUSED**- unambiguous, targeted, relevant to the needs and goals of learners.
7. **OPEN**-extendable, permeable, accessible by/to learners.

8. STRUCTURES- gradable, variable, orderable, organised by learner's time, place and availability.
9. CRITICAL- evaluative, formative, offering feedback.

We shall look at five task types:

- Traditional tasks with a difference.
- Affective.
- Cognitive
- Sensitising
- Free tasks.

- a) Traditional tasks: these are tasks which are adaptations of tasks which have been practiced for many years. Activities such as:
 - **Substitution tables** in which learners have to do more than just make correct sentences. Doing it within a text, they are involved in reading and comprehension and grammar is being put into a context. In this way it is practising both form and meaning.
 - **Survey chart**: an adaptation would be to do a survey about what people do and how often things are done. When they have completed the survey, each learner has to write a short report or give an oral presentation saying what has been discovered from the survey.
 - **Gap-filling**: complete charts but with more learner involvement.
- b) Affective tasks: are the activities that give the learners some kind of fun.
 These tasks are usually based on games. Tasks such as : **word-order** (divided into small groups, discuss sentences as they move around a circle with words; given some pictures, discuss what they have done), game of **Monopoly** for practising different tenses, **memory games** for practising countable and uncountable nouns. Most of these tasks are useful for giving practice with form.
- c) Cognitive tasks: these tasks focus on the rules behind the structures (e.g. use of the article in English). The teacher has not necessarily to explain the rule. These kinds of tasks should enable the learners to make themselves conscious of how grammar works and the context in which it is operating. (e.g. give a text and the learners have to fill in the appropriate article).
- d) Sensitising tasks: there are areas of grammar where it is not possible to give exact prescribed rules for use. For example, the difference between the use of the present perfect and the present perfect continues in these examples:
 'I've been waiting here for over an hour'.
 'I've waited here for over an hour'.

There are activities that can be done in different ways; they are open and free.

- e) Free tasks: these tasks, while focusing on a particular area of grammar, give the learners greater freedom to express themselves. (*Problem solving in groups and then, the students have to present the solution in public*).

New technology: offers teachers the opportunity to find a lot of activities in the web to practice grammar according to the different levels of our students. These activities are very motivating for the students.

5. - CONCLUSION

In this unit we have seen the basic elements of morpho-syntax and the main communicative structures. We have also got a general knowledge of the basic elements that constitute a sentence, and how these sentences combine to convey meaning.

We have seen that in order to reach the communicative competence apart from the language itself, we have to contemplate other elements, such as the attitude of the speaker and listener and the context.

Taking Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence, which views grammatical competence as one component of communicative competence, we can say that grammar instruction is part of language teaching. In this new role, grammar interacts with meaning, social function, or discourse-or a combination of these-rather than standing alone as an autonomous system to be learned for its own sake.

When deciding on grammar tasks, it is necessary to think of activities that involve the learners, activities that promote communication and at the same time direct them to a greater awareness of how language is used.

Appropriate language use requires knowledge of both the form and the functions of a language. Children should therefore be provided with opportunities from an early stage to use grammatical structures for real communicative purposes. This will make language learning much more meaningful and motivating.

Fotos, S (2005) says: "[I]t is time to take the position that a combination of grammar instruction and the use of communicative activities provide an optimum situation for effective L2 learning" That simple statement addresses what is actually happening in our field: large numbers of

practitioners and academics can currently be seen to be in accord that a focus on grammar plays a positive role in second language instruction and that grammar teaching and communicative teaching are mutually supportive, not mutually exclusive. So we can do both!

6.- BIBLIOGRAPHY.

- BOE, 1 de marzo de 2014, Real Decreto 126/2014, de 28 de febrero, por el que se establece el currículo básico de la Educación Primaria.
- Glencoe/McGraw-Hill, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, 10020. Copyright © 2000-2005 .
- (Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy, *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide*. Cambridge Univ. Press, 2006)
- Fotos, S. (2005). Traditional and grammar translation methods for second language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 653-670). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Richard Nordquist, Grammar & Composition Guide
- Aarts, F and Aarts, J *English Syntactic Structures*, CUP. Cambridge, 1982.
- Downing, A, and Locke, P. "A university Course in English Grammar". Prentice Hall International Group (UK), 1992.
- Woods, E. "Introducing Grammar", Penguin English (England) 1995.
- Official Journal of the European Union, 30-12-2006.
- Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language, CUP. Cambridge, 1987.