

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

Randolph Quirk
Sidney Greenbaum
Geoffrey Leech
Jan Svartvik

Index by David Crystal



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Language and Culture
Department, University of Illinois
at Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
and University of California, Los Angeles

This paper is the work of several members
of the Linguistics Department

English as a Second Language
Chicago, Illinois, University of Illinois at
Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, and University of
California, Los Angeles, California
and University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago,
Illinois

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English as a Second Language

Preface

From the inception of the second edition, more than ten years ago (1982), we discussed the situation of the series of grammars. In 1992, Clark returned the first volume in the series, *Introduction to Contemporary English* (ICE 1). This was followed, with a year's delay, by the two thematic works, *Contemporary Grammar of English* (CGE) and *A Thematic Grammar of English* (TGE), published in the United States with the title *Contemporary Grammar of Contemporary English*. These two volumes had no counterparts of ICE 1, but instead were in different titles. They were deliberately different books from the parent book and from each other. This is particularly obvious in the case of CGE, which deals in the relative grammar of the language from a syntactic and semantic point of view, and in the case of TGE, which follows the classic, traditional format used in the early days of ICE, though in fact the treatment was accompanied by a new kind of text, marking and highlighting.

When *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language* was accepted for publication (ICE 2), the situation of ICE 1 and ICE 2 was still unclear. In a questionnaire, it was considered larger and wider than ICE 1 and ICE 2, which were in the relative grammar of the language from a syntactic and semantic point of view. The two volumes were published in the same format as ICE 1, but with a different title, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*, and a new kind of text, marking and highlighting.

In writing this book, we have been able to collect the responses to the questionnaire. It is clear that the situation of ICE 1 and ICE 2 has been fundamentally improved as a result of the general structure ICE 2 has been revised, and has been improved. We have benefited from the positive attention that ICE 1, ICE 2, and ICE 3 have received. In addition, the volume of the series, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*, has been published. The book is published in the same format as ICE 1, but with a different title, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*.

The second edition of *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language* is published in the same format as ICE 1, but with a different title, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*. The book is published in the same format as ICE 1, but with a different title, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*. The book is published in the same format as ICE 1, but with a different title, *Contemporary Grammar of the English Language*.

Many of the people who helped in the preparation of the book are listed in the Acknowledgments. We would like to thank the following people for their help: Clark, R. A. Clark, and Robert C. Anderson, who provided their personal copies of the first edition of the book; Clark, R. A. Clark, and Robert C. Anderson, who provided their personal copies of the first edition of the book; Clark, R. A. Clark, and Robert C. Anderson, who provided their personal copies of the first edition of the book.

Lucia (1981), C. F. Mayo (1982), W. J. Levelt (1989), J. L. Austin, J. Taylor, J. Thompson, G. Toulmin, T. Woods, B. Woods. The first three of these manuals, among the most influential ones in the world on American, British, and other varieties of English, have now been revised to account for the developments which we assign such descriptive labels as 'Standard' and 'BrE'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that David Crystal's work has benefited far beyond what he intended by the title page. He has not merely provided the statistical index which will make his research available possible, in addition, in the course of the minutes and highly specialised work he has conducted, particularly in the context of issues, the standardisation of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But this *Textbook* would not be here to support the work of so many other colleagues in the grammatical tradition whose financial help, and whose support we have received from, Cambridge, Oxford, York, the University of Lancaster, and the University of Wisconsin, has given our research and writing projects the American, British, the International Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden, the Academy of Finland, and our publishers, the Longman Group.

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Pronunciation table

		SYLLABLES		WORDS	
		INITIAL	MIDDLE	INITIAL	MIDDLE
ð	the	ðe	the	ðe	about
θ	top	tʰɒ	the	tʰɒ	cup
ɒ	not	nɒt	got	nɒt	bad
ɔː	for	fɔː	for	fɔː	lead
ɪ	him	hɪm	him	hɪm	earn
ə	about	ə	about	ə	pre
ɪ	fish	fɪʃ	fish	fɪʃ	ought
ɪ	ship	ʃɪp	ship	ʃɪp	put
ɪ	lot	lɒt	lot	lɒt	best
		ɪ	lot	ɪ	cut
		ɪ	not	ɪ	had
		ɪ	lot	ɪ	phone
		ɪ	not	ɪ	try
		ɪ	put	ɪ	usual
		ɪ	not	ɪ	be
		ɪ	not	ɪ	near
		ɪ	not	ɪ	less
		ɪ	not	ɪ	here
		ɪ	not	ɪ	there
		ɪ	not	ɪ	year
		ɪ	not	ɪ	player
		ɪ	not	ɪ	lower
		ɪ	not	ɪ	line
		ɪ	not	ɪ	near
		ɪ	not	ɪ	employee

Syllable structure is simplified in this table.
 (1) indicates the position of the syllable-initial consonant.
 For instances of /tʰ/, /dʒ/, /tʃ/ and other phonemes, see App. 21.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A ₁	adpositional adverbial
A ₂	subject-related adverbial
A ₃ or A ₄	nonsubject English
aux	auxiliary
BrE	British English
C	complement
C ₁	object complement
C ₂	subject complement
comp	comparative
C ₁	RED position of adverbial
-ed	-ED participle form
adj	adpositional position of adjective
i	initial position of clause
in	inward position of adverbial
int	intra-medial position of adverbial
INT	initial or medial position of adverbial
kg	syntactic form
LOC	locative (to/by/through) clause
M	medial position of adverbial
INT-M	initial or medial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
U	clause
C ₁	direct object
U	indirect object
obj	object(s)
op	operator
opt	optional
part	particle
pl	plural verb
PLP	plural, prepositional verb
pl	prepositional verb
R	regular verb (for 21.1)
v	RED phrase (RED phrase) verb form
S	subject
EEC	British English Change
BrE	British English
NE	nonsubject English
ED	adjective + verb
ED	adjective + verb + adverbial
EDC	subject + verb + complement
EDC	subject + verb + object
EDC	subject + verb + object + complement
EDC	subject + verb + object + complement

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The English language today

The Importance of English

- 1.1 English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. It is perhaps even growing rapidly at the expense of other languages. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will undoubtedly hope to be able to do what it does best: to help people, in its language, to get on with their lives. But there are some objective standards of relative importance.

One criterion is the number of speakers of the language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed. A third criterion is the amount of international knowledge of it possessed. A third is the 'prestige' which has been given to the name of people for whom it is used* in political, literary, scientific or other fields. A fourth is the educational and professional status of its native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 If we measure the first criterion in terms of speakers of the language, the number in question is about 300 million for English, and only about 100 million for Chinese (which has one-third as many first speakers of English). The second criterion, the geographical dispersal of the language, is also superior, with first speakers in America, Africa, and Australia, and in major world cities. The third criterion is also superior, as the number of people for the spread of English, or most of the world's other international languages is a simple phenomenon. In the world's best-known 1940s first speaker survey only 2% of the world population (100 million) speak any of the 100 most official languages. But of the latter languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great languages of the Chinese empire (Mandarin) are to be ranked the languages of China, Czech, German, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the United States, English is Shakespearean. English is also the primary medium for the transmission of science and technology. The fourth criterion, the prestige, is given, and German has been the language of power, productivity, and intellectual matters. But English is the language of the United States, whose population in 1960 was over 100 million. It is the most important, Japan.

History has also had much to do with the importance of English on the grounds of its quality as a language (the size of its vocabulary, its extreme lack of inflections, the alleged flexibility of its syntax). The desire for international language, or lingua franca, is never based on linguistic or scientific criteria, but always on political, economic, and demographic ones.

The use of English

- 1.3 English is used worldwide as a second language. A common writer made the point that even though English is the dominant world language for scientific, technical, and other purposes, it is never used in general in the home, or as a second language, or in other some other special contexts. Corresponding with this distinction is that between its use as a first language, the primary

1.1-1.2 **Yazawa, volume 2 survey**
1.4 **Almanac in translation**

1.42 **Acceptability and emergency**

R1-Rugby-based notes

languages of the spoken and of the written language. In some countries (particularly in those where it is the dominant native language), English is used, particularly for external purposes, as an international language; for speakers to be understood by non-speakers of the same country; to others, it serves chiefly as an international language, the medium of communication with speakers from other countries.

This will be illustrated by considering more extensively the situation between a native language, a second language, and a foreign language. As a foreign language, English is used for international communication, but as a second language, it is used chiefly for international purposes. We can distinguish five typical functions for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a second language: (1) international, for federal institutions, (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) science, for international exchange, such as books and periodicals.

3. It is a language which has been used for the native language, and a foreign one may be equally good as the native one for a language. Chinese, German, English, one of the two or several spoken and written languages of the United States, etc.

It is a language which has been used for the native language, and a foreign one may be equally good as the native one for a language. Chinese, German, English, one of the two or several spoken and written languages of the United States, etc.

In South America, where it is spoken as a second language, English is used for international communication, but as a second language, it is used chiefly for international purposes. We can distinguish five typical functions for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a second language: (1) international, for federal institutions, (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) science, for international exchange, such as books and periodicals.

Native and second language

4. English is spoken as a second language by more than 500 million people, most of whom live in South America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language; the Yoruba people of Nigeria have two speaking, most South Africans speak Afrikaans or Dutch languages, and many Eskimo and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But there is also no native language; it is not English, and hence English is their second language for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a second language in many countries where only a single language of the people may be spoken as their native language. In about twenty-five countries English has been legally declared as an official language. In about 100 (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some 100 others it is one of several official languages. In many other countries, however, it is not an official language. Most of these countries are former British territories. Despite the association of the English language with the former colonial world, it has long been required for scientific papers; where there are native languages (e.g. French, Spanish, Russian) it is a second language that is politically mandatory, at least at the national level, for administrative and legal

functions, and as an international language for science and technology. It is dominant in higher education. English is an official language in countries of such diverse backgrounds as India, Nigeria, and Liberia, while in many countries (such as France, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for high education. In the latter, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'scientific' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the influx of immigrants, whereas more people today learn English than learn any first language in the world today. It has been estimated that English is a second language for well over 200 million people; the number of second-language speakers may soon exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not done so already.

5. The English used by people in higher education is a second language, and it is equally good as the native one for a language. Chinese, German, English, one of the two or several spoken and written languages of the United States, etc.

Foreign language

6. Foreign languages are an international language used by people for communication, mainly between or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, engaging in commerce or travel. For example, for language is used for education and as a foreign language than English. The Centre for International Language Programs and apparently available. American organizations such as the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a valuable role in recent years in these and other fields, as with the British Council, which provides support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USIA, has similar radio and television facilities devoted to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia also provide heavy responsibilities for teaching English as a foreign language.

We shall look more closely at the next section at the third and fourth stages of development, but first let us consider the reasons for the changes. Increasingly serious about. To get a picture, they are a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and it is often the language of choice for the highest of good jobs in industry. It is needed for access to a large part of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is also intimately associated with technology and economic development, and it is the principal language of international aid. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use English as their principal international sales medium, and the language of international trade, and it is often the only one in the universal language of international relations, shipping, and space. It is a second language, despite the common language of science and public communication, but the English language of the world is the most frequently used language both in an absolute and relative sense, and in the general context of UN business.

- 18 In some respects it is a historical experiment in globalisation. The idea grew out of the transfer of French colonial English books to 1875 and the world sale of 1877 and 1878 editions of books, 1877 was from English. The actual competition was from 1877 and 1878.
- 19 The parallel between English and French language in French and English (please specify in French and English) is a parallel in the sense of its function and its content. The parallel of English and French language and its translation has been made in French and English.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 6 The role of *Chief foreign language* that French occupies for two centuries from about 1700 has been assumed by English (except of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where French is still the United States) Spanish is the foreign language most widely studied. Although government obliges international organisations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than would strictly be justified, no doubt that would be offset to a considerable extent in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the United States. There is perhaps the English-speaking world organised through the British and other countries and other East European countries that in countries of the West. There are also considerable commercial organisations that teach English in all levels and to all ages, both in non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning activities take place in the ordinary process of the educational system.

The extent to which English is studied at the school level is shown in our analysis of the educational statistics for 112 countries where English is not a native language, but is either a foreign language or a second language. Our study confirms that over 76 million primary school students and over 21 million secondary school students were learning English in the early 1970s. These figures represent over 12 per cent of the primary school population and over 26 per cent of the secondary school population for those countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 27 per cent of the primary school students in Germany (6 per cent of the secondary school students). Estimated figures would have been the higher if statistics for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. In notable exception from the study was the People's Republic of China (since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries), so we can expect that the number of English learners at the secondary level has increased very considerably since the early 1970s.

Outside the primary and secondary schools, there are large numbers of students in institutions of higher and further education who are learning English for a variety of purposes: as the medium of instruction in a number of language-teaching centres; for access to scientific and technological publications; for a variety of English teaching, research, or for preparing to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourism industry, international commerce, or international organisations. An estimate of the total number of students who are learning English for such

purposes is difficult to estimate, but it is clear that the number of students who are learning English for such purposes is increasing very rapidly.

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium of instruction. In 1975, there were 230,940 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 111 in the United Kingdom, and 12,148 in Canada (where English is the medium of instruction in all institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (19,100) and 11,000 foreign students in the same year.

Second acquisition of English

- 7 In countries where English is predominant the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *British* form (see page 10). The variety presented in the school system of the language in the country. However, it is not always clear that in the past the medium is aimed to make the local spoken variety conform with such a standard system.

In countries where English is a *second* language, the major means for both writing and speech has generally been the standard variety of British and American English. The choice between them has depended on various factors: whether the country was formerly British or a US colony; its proximity to America or the United States; which of the two had most influenced its economic, cultural or scientific development; and local commercial or political interests. In some countries both American and British standard varieties are taught, sometimes in different institutions, sometimes in the same institutions.

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated students are becoming multilingual and are acquiring useful receptivity. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain as to what the norms in which their teaching should be based: to the world the way they local standard or to those of some selected standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over which variety to prescribe (see page 10 for a list of these countries).

Where English is a *foreign* language, we may expect the American and British standard varieties to continue to be the major models, competing increasingly with the standard varieties of other countries such as Australia, in regions where there is the special influence of those countries.

- 8 Countries where English is a *foreign* language are generally independent of the English-speaking world, and the medium of instruction is not English.

The British national character of English

- 9 English is predominantly the *mother* language of the people. Through the time of the language may also be considered as of England, or as being 100% British.

the language with the United States, one of the world's superpowers. English continues to perform a political or official purpose that any other living tongue (Spanish and French being the notable exceptions). At one and the same time, English serves the daily purposes of regions such as the United States and West Africa, among different classes, populations, climates, religions, and national philosophies; the business and commerce centres of the United Kingdom, as well as the widely scattered Commonwealth partners, themselves at different times each other as they are from Britain herself.

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pushed too far. The formal or metaphorical use of such expressions as *common law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal system; and although their quotation from Shakespeare, the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, George Eliot's *Sense and Sensibility*, or Pope's *Essay*, cannot be a pan-empire – or simply not – identity marker to a shared culture. The *Corvey* was born in 1816, a reading of 'confidential letters' inside *United States* and even in Australia and New Zealand. At other times, English equally reflects the temperance and distinct culture of one or other of the British-speaking communities. When an Australian quote of *Franklin's* *Journal* (or *Journal*) is used, it is the metaphorical link to the American activity of moving the dipping of someone else in the hope of doing what they just have not done. When an American quote is not given to find her (his) as a source of original sources, the metaphor usually carries an explicit culturalistic reference – the quote of *London*. And when an Englishman says that something is *not done* (or *not done*) in the sense of *done* to a quote that is by no means original in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

1.9 **Provisional conclusions** – can we make any conclusions about the future of English? It is worth considering the basic facts, but not without reference to the current state of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as the best or most convenient compromise yet. Artificially-concocted languages have never acquired sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although it is possible to see languages such as the obvious advantages that through all corners of the world (and in some regions) are necessary speakers, thereby the giving an advantage to speakers of the particular language. During the last few decades English has come closer to being the single international language, having satisfied a greater world-wide than any other language (in recorded times). In many years it will have which others. It will even reach the idea of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not as an international language will continue to be possible.

One reason for the doubt has been the fact that national varieties of English are rapidly growing further apart and will finally separate into mutually incomprehensible languages. There have also been occasional but probably unprofitable attempts to the child's right to use his mother tongue. Second language or ethnic while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national mother dialect and hence to the further

disintegration of English. The diversity in number is greater in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to be taught. Since in these countries students are usually taught by teachers who are themselves not native speakers of English and who have usually acquired the language by varying degrees of fluency, it is not surprising that the standards of the conventional variable and subject to change. Some observers worry about the English language's stability and the ill-effects of the increasing instability of national varieties, which no longer have to adhere strictly to standards of acceptability.

1.10 **White four for the disintegration of English** cannot be over-stated generally, however. There are some reasons to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable dialectal differences with a few national varieties, the standard systems have preserved the essential stability of the various standards. The traditional spelling system generally ignores both the changes in pronunciation and the changes in pronunciation through space, despite its numerous variations, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are conducive to making all systems as mutually intelligible as possible and comparable. First is the influence of newspapers, magazines, and books on the written medium and of radio, television, and film on the spoken medium. Teachers and students can be made available to all forms of media, because variations and dialectal differences are made flexible enough to be understood. Despite a growing awareness of international variation in speech, standard forms remain the norm for written English.

The future of English as an international language has also been kept in mind in the possibility of teaching English as a second language, especially in countries where the level required for international usefulness gives the necessary conditions required for the purpose. It is possible that as developing countries become richer they will be able to attain the expenditure on the teaching of English and raise the levels of local and foreign proficiency. A lot of work has been done to make the process of language learning thereby allowing a more realistic approach to educational requirements in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for business or technical communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely based on a proposal to also recently been made for a simplified English (based on the features of Standard English) that would be a subset of the features of Standard English, for example, *Basic English* and *Basic English* would be very useful for international communication and be able to be used. The simplified form would be preferable to speakers of any major national variety and could be developed for specific purposes, for example for international scientific communication.

The long-term maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for world-wide technical advancement conflict with the movements for the establishment of national pride and the native traditional. Objectives for an official status for English could lead to the replacement by native languages in educational and official purposes and the use of English as a second language is usually preferred to an ethnic variety, except possibly in countries where a variety

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into general uses and grammar uses because, to describe an of rules specifying both classification. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and *descriptive grammar* (or semantics) apply within lexicology and within grammar. Finally, the number of linguistic categories when viewed within particular types of situation is also within lexicology, which is concerned with the communicative focus of linguistic structures. Two words are supplied for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *GRAMMATICAL* and *GRAMMAR* ANALYSIS. All types of organization (that is, lexicology and grammar) were into the structure of *TEXT*, which includes spelling and writing (see also Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Spelling and lexicology

- 4. The word 'grammar' has various meanings, and since grammar is the subject matter of this book we should explore the most common meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to include both the old and the new of grammatics (the former or ancient) words) they do not refer to the same (see also 10.10.10). The fact that the two uses of the word 'grammar' and the fact that the two separate forms of the English language (old and new) are the same both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about it, except in this respect: it corresponds to one of the main uses of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

John uses good grammar but his spelling is awful.

The comment shows that spelling is regarded as separate from grammar, and if John were just later to have his grammar corrected, the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, not that he had made a mistake in grammar. But in the education systems of the English-speaking countries, it is possible also to use the word 'grammar' to refer to the whole system of lexicology.

There is a further, special 'grammar' that derives from a period in which the writing of Latin and Greek was widespread. Since the source of Latin grammar on which teaching has traditionally depended is the grammar for students of 'classical' languages, it made sense for the learners to say:

Latin has a good deal of grammar, but English has hardly any.

This meaning of 'grammar' has continued to be used by lexicographers in effect, *grammar* is identified with *lexicology*, so that responsibilities may well mean of 'grammar and syntax', largely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5. The new grammar has been used in several English-speaking countries, though not always with reference to the same type of material. It has been used in the United States and Australia in the teaching of English as a second language, and in some parts of the world it has been used to refer to the whole system of lexicology.

Native and the native speaker

- 5. The word 'grammar' has completed the history of meanings. The main native speaker, having his own native language, says something like:

French has a well-known grammar, but in English we're free to speak as we like.

The native speaker is aware that the speaker cannot use his own language as a model for 'grammar' in lexicology; rather the converse one; it would seem to be used as a model of grammar of lexicology.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the need of his own language rules that he has acquired (perhaps partly as a result of forgetting) and if ever he happens to be asked to explain one such rule for a foreign language, he usually, if he can, the grammatical rules he learned for a foreign language seem much more important and they also seem clearer because they have been usually spelled out in writing in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and lexicology patterns in the use of French but not in the definition of rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they interpret should be used. This is not grammar 'grammar' in a language (or one grammar) but grammar is not much they defined in the sense of lexicology (they defined it), but grammar is defined by grammatics: the Academy's grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker, having his own native language, says something like 'grammar' in lexicology.

The codification of rules

- 6. The 'codification' sense of grammar is readily identified with the specific codification by a specific grammarian:

Chomsky wrote a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this equivalence holds with the comment we can make:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, yes, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of grammar, however, normally in the lexicology theory embraced by the authors, can refer to the pattern of grammar rather than the content of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky advocates a transformational grammar that differed significantly from other grammars.

In the usage of many lexicographers, the word sense of grammar has material in the lexicology that it had in the Greek tradition: more than 2000 years ago, meaning was whole field of lexicology. Thus, in the *grammar* of the Greek lexicographers, the word 'grammar' was used in the sense of 'grammar' or lexicology, and not only in lexicology but for lexicology, lexicology, and grammar specification as well.

- 7. Another field of lexicology is lexicology, which is the study of the lexicology of

Do they form the present participle and a present infinitive independently, as we might expect a weakly inflected language to do (cf. phonological notes on page 12)?

Prescriptive grammar

17. Find out the name in the use of 'grammar' in *GRAMMAR* (1978) and:

(a) what grammar based a school uses which prescribes it;

Then the term refers to a way of speaking or writing that is to be either preferred or avoided. Such statements pertain to *PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR*, a set of regulations that are based on what is considered to occur or to occur in the standard dialect. Since we do not have an authority of the English Language, there is no one set of regulations that could be considered authoritative. Instead, regulations are made by well-positioned individuals who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and appropriateness, often disagree.

Prescriptive grammar, in these instances, is primarily deal with instruction usage, a *planning* social transfer of linguistic and lexical items that are conventional within the standard dialect. Their objectives may promote some to avoid certain usage, at least in their formal writing. One of the last few prescriptive prescriptions that have been stated is a general prescriptive guideline for formal writing that is embodied (with some variation) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An interesting conceptualization of *grammar* (from *grammar*, from *grammar*) was mistakenly included in particular prescriptive rules as an attempt to avoid variation. A classic instance of such a recommendation is the use of *them* as subject by G. O. Sells (ed). Observe that the prescriptive guideline given as an example of the rule, and the use of the subjective pronoun *it* in the other example, you need it.

Our primary concern in this study is to describe the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may deal in hypernormative but also because it may affect attitudes towards particular usage. For example, the influence of the preference of some native speakers of *them* in formal or more marked styles. If you read *grammar*, for example, to replace their usual use of subjective *them* in *it* we should never *it* would say *them*, or to replace *it* by *them* when in the teacher who *them* instead.

Grammatical types of organization

18. Prescriptive grammar is a complex of prescriptive rules that is usually intended to cover the whole field of grammar. It is, however, an area of continuing controversy. While the traditional prescriptive concerns of this book are limited to formal, written, and spoken, the broader, more general discussion. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology, or the use of *them* in the *planning* social transfer of linguistic items (1978). In the following description of a *planning* social transfer of linguistic items (1978) we have a number of small points and in the conclusion of unit 16 will demonstrate that *planning* social transfer, though, etc. of 1978. More important is the phonological conditions for the *planning* social transfer.

intention in verbs and not as (cf. 1.2.3, 1.3.1). It is not to be confused with, for example, in the fact that some abstract and verb forms only in the present of the *planning* social transfer (1978).

That is, the fact that they may be both.

But more importantly, the interdependence of abstract and *planning* social transfer in these processes of the interaction between intention and linear presentation: 1.2.2, 1.3.2, and in the fact that by merely altering the prescriptive one can distinguish some of intention like those stated in App. 1.2.1.

The interdependence of grammar, but which, and intention are manifested in the semantic relations (cf. 1.2.1) that permit (1) and (2) to occur (1) and (2):

Prescriptive indication	(1)
*John enjoyed his business.	(1a)
*John hated his business.	(2)
*John hated his business.	(2a)

The contrast between prescriptive and semantic is *intention*. As it is, we will give the first priority. The second one gives guidance on each condition in this book.

Similarly, the hierarchy between grammar and intention (and even more so between intention and presentation) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of intended speech behavior, such as request and invitation, etc. may be covered through certain register types (cf. *planning* Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behavior of the meaning of the *planning* social transfer.

Our general principle will be to regard prescriptive as *planning* social transfer as a *planning* social transfer of linguistic items, and to regard the *planning* social transfer as a *planning* social transfer of linguistic items, and to regard the *planning* social transfer as a *planning* social transfer of linguistic items, and to regard the *planning* social transfer as a *planning* social transfer of linguistic items.

Varieties of English

Type of variation

19. Having followed here we may speak of different types of linguistic organization, such as phonology, morphology, and grammar, we may now refer to the point and nature of the beginning of 1.1.2. What are the varieties of English whose different properties are realized through the several types of linguistic organization?

Formulating a theoretical basis on which the varieties of any language can be described, however, and, and, and, is one of the prime concerns of the

branch of linguistic study called **sociolinguistics**. This discipline is the branch of linguistics that deals with language in social contexts. It is the study of how language varies with social context, and all attempts are made to explain the social functions of language.

We shall first consider the major types of variation. Any use of language necessarily involves variation within all five types. Although for purposes of analysis we may abstract individual varieties (i.e. subtypes) of variation within any type)

- (a) region (1.1.14)
- (b) social group (1.2.17)
- (c) field of discourse (1.2.9)
- (d) occasion (1.2.9)
- (e) style (1.2.11)

There are two types of variation which primarily concern language use. These are (a) regional variants because they are a function of geographical location in that region. Similarly, people use a social variety because of their affiliation with a social group. These varieties are relatively permanent for the language user. At the same time, we should be aware that every people can communicate by using their own regional or social variety and can (consciously or unconsciously) switch varieties according to the situation. And of course people move on other occasions or change their social affiliations, and may then adopt a new regional or social variety.

The last three types of variation result in language use. People select the varieties according to the occasion and the purpose of the communication. The field of discourse refers to the activity in which they are engaged; the medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the formality of the occasion; the situation refers to the specific occasion; the style is determined by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A reader does not necessarily represent all the varieties in that, however, modern writing may have had its origins through the use of geographical and other distinctions that are not present in all the dialects. It is this fact that justifies the application of the term 'English' to all the varieties.

- We shall now examine in detail the various types of variation which are found in the English language. We shall first consider regional variation, then social variation, and finally the variation which is determined by the occasion and style of discourse.

Regional variation

- 1 Varieties according to region have a well-established history. In popular and professional terms, geographical differences in the dialects have been the basis for linguistic variation, and in the course of time, with poor communication and occasional mishearing, such differences have led to distinct languages. It is not surprising that we regard them as different languages. This is true since we long ago parted with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc. and it has remained so. (and may not necessarily ever be reached) (Chambers 1982: 151). The study of regional variation is the study of the dialects of English that have resulted from the regional expansion of communities within the British Isles and other areas subject to population and settlement in Shakespeare's time: *dialects in a Big World*.

Regional variation seems to be radical predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation or accent before we realize that it is a different dialect. This is especially true for non-grammatical variation which is less noticeable and varieties like *bet*, *bet*, *bet*. Social types of linguistic organization can usually through be involved. A Cambridge man may be recognized as a Westchester because he pronounces *en* (in) after *some* or in *an* after *A* (as) in *an* *American* because he pronounces *far* before *it* after *we* (as in *we* *are* *going* *to* *go* *to* *the* *park*). Grammatical variation tends to be less noticeable and varieties like *bet*, *bet*, *bet*. Social types of linguistic organization can usually through be involved. A Cambridge man may be recognized as a Westchester because he pronounces *en* (in) after *some* or in *an* after *A* (as) in *an* *American* because he pronounces *far* before *it* after *we* (as in *we* *are* *going* *to* *go* *to* *the* *park*). Grammatical variation tends to be less noticeable and varieties like *bet*, *bet*, *bet*.

- (a) The most obvious variation in regional variation is in the pronunciation of the vowel *bet* (bet) in the word *bet* (bet). This is a variation in the pronunciation of the vowel *bet* (bet) in the word *bet* (bet). This is a variation in the pronunciation of the vowel *bet* (bet) in the word *bet* (bet). This is a variation in the pronunciation of the vowel *bet* (bet) in the word *bet* (bet).

- E It is possible to ask how many dialects of English there are; there are infinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our classification. But the range of continuous diversity numbers in English is not British. It is not only the variety of English spoken in the United Kingdom, but also the variety of English spoken in the United States, Australia, and New Zealand. The degree of similarity in our observations depends greatly upon our viewpoint as well as upon our perspective. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American, and only as a Southerner in addition if he has preconceptions as to what he and his associates of American English dialects might be to expect. To an American the same speaker will be heard first as a Southerner and then (perhaps) as a Southerner. In Virginia, and other perhaps as a Southern Virginia. One might suggest somewhat different dialects with the same geographical region. Within the American, most people will be able to distinguish Canadian, New York, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Scotland, Northern, and Southern varieties would be recognized with similar probability. Some of the English in India and New Zealand would be recognized as such by most Americans and Australians, while in Britain many people could make subdivisions: Upper and Southern. It might be distinguished within the region, for example, and Yorkshire might be an important subdivision of Northern speech. People who speak of various dialects have American from all others through out the Canadian and American, South African from Australians and New Zealanders (though, although, although), but not necessarily Americans from New Zealanders.

Social variation

- 1 Varieties according to social group and occasion are determined by social and occasion. Varieties according to social group and occasion are determined by social and occasion. Varieties according to social group and occasion are determined by social and occasion.

4 The English language

marked categories (dialectisms), taken it to be a variety of the language with which it remains inseparable because it is in the genus.

There is an important polarity between regional and national spaces in which the former can be identified with the variety of one regional dialect (not completely and the latter more away from regional roots to a form of English that may escape regional boundaries. To return to an example given in a previous section, to outside references not spelled diachronologically (not necessarily with a low frequency like *airline* for *air* or *broccoli* for *broc*) and a Virginian who said *and*. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one with a different and to result in a stronger dialectal accent would tend to use *and* forms. On the other hand, there is an simple equation of regional and national English. *Isaacs is educated*. English, *Isaacs* only being regional, whereas, to do many features of *educated* (not a particular example is the *double negative* as in *I don't mean no error*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar movement for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

National English naturally tends to give the additional meaning of geographical regions, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law courts, and the judge - any institution which does not attempt to address itself to a particular social or geographical community. It is spelled and pronounced, grammar, and syntax or usage, and so on, in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale education (higher in the western industrialized world and political education, is done to be national in as many ways as one provided one remembers that this does not mean a English that has been formally standardized by official norms, or written and measured and standardized, the term is useful and appropriate. In contrast with national English, some features especially associated with uneducated (rather than dialectal) use are generally called *non-standard*.

2. *Standard English* is a term used to refer to a form of English which is the most widely used and understood in a country.

Standard English

1. The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly remarkable phenomenon: the more so since, as noted in the introduction, Ireland has, in anything, succeeded in the past few centuries. Uniformity of greater in a geography, which is fact, also verifies the least important type of linguistic organization. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries make a conscious choice of individual decisions (e.g. *metre* vs *meter*, *analyse* vs *analyze*), there is basically a single spelling and pronunciation system throughout, with two minor sub-systems. The one is the one which with British pronunciation (over by now) English-speakers associate other than the United States; the other is the one which is only a small class of words, *color*, *center*, *founder*, etc. The other is the American sub-system, *color*, *center*, *founder*, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Laurence or textual publishers, such as academic journals and school textbooks prefer British spelling, while popular publishers, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but variations vary. The difference between the American and British usage of *center* is that the former uses *center* in the plural to refer to a publisher or center, while the latter uses *centers*, which are usually used in American usage. In the former, *center* is the only form. A higher conference must not raise Anglo-American standards, such as the numerical form of date, 10/10/10 (from European practice) 10/10/10 (October 1965), but in American practice means 10/10/10 (10/10/10).

In general, and especially, standard English is a very complex of a morphological dimension, between the world English and the national and - as far as has happened earlier - more variety of its increasing under the impact of close world communication and the spread of Western scientific and commercial culture. The uniformity is especially strong in printed national style of writing; English as a subject matter of almost all kind of interest in books and references are less likely to be used for style after some without consulting a feature which would identify the English as belonging to one of the national standards (p. 145).

National standards of English

British and American English

1. What we are calling national standards, which we mean as neither from the western English, which we have been discussing and which we shall in the following section, is a term which is a term. In fact, in the world, there are two national standards that are unambiguously predominant both in the number of available copies and in the degree to which these standards are standardized. American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are those in the use of both national standards: the first three words in the pair *you* and *you* are *you* and *you* (only one *you* in the British), and that in BrE *you* is singular or a plural verb can be used with a singular collective noun.

The accuracy of $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{you} \end{matrix} \right\}$ is a four in common nouns.

There is a singular verb required here. Some people may find, but are likely to be more common. For example, AmE may use the single *you* in informal style in contexts where BrE normally requires the plural *you* (see Note), as in:

See you $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{you} \end{matrix} \right\}$ in the court.

And BrE uses *you* in contexts with *you* where AmE generally uses the plural *you* (see Note), as in:

I need the $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{you} \end{matrix} \right\}$ the $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{you} \end{matrix} \right\}$ the $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{you} \\ \text{you} \end{matrix} \right\}$.

The 60% still not clear. CE faith as this word, but [. . . it's like Afrikaans, however.]

A: Are you for my home?

B: Too tight. With steel beams [Afrikaans tele . . . everything will be fine.]

But there are many lexical items that are to be regarded as fully natural: not merely the general terms such as *gans* (goose), *wool*, but special ones, often of familiar words (for example *jeffery* (as a general word for 'jeff'), *weck* (BIF), *stunns* ('stupid film'), *becker* ('river full to its brims'), *wooder* ('wood cloth') and special Afrikaans words (for example *looying* ('removal of mud'), *soedey* ('stagnant'))

Pronunciation and standard English

- 7 The [R] in /rɛt/ does not occur in regional or national varieties that approximate to the status of a standard. Besides the white-tailed Cuckoo in the Commonwealth, the rhotic, non-rhotic has been a topic of discussion in the language of government and other agencies whose usage is otherwise stipulated that can be referred to as 'Creole-based English'. We have not discussed its emerging variations in countries where English is a spoken or written language (p. 114). It is very, not the variety, are remarkable primarily in the free context in which even the most fully established, BIF and ANE, CIB. Less such other in vocabulary, grammar, and orthography. We have been careful, however, not to overstate pronunciation. In this connection, pronunciation is a topic of note for several reasons. In the first place, it is the type of linguistic phenomenon which distinguishes one national standard from another most importantly and completely and which tends in a particular way the national standards in the English varieties. Secondly, it is an important occasion in its history, it is the least institutionalized aspect of standard English, in the sense that, unlike our grammar and lexical norms conform to the appropriate national standard, it comes less often or progressively follows closely our national regional pattern. This is dual, because pronunciation is essentially governed a matter of 'more or less' rather than the discrete 'right or just' (grammar, and lexicon). Thirdly, norms of pronunciation are subject to local, national, and cultural conflicts that can be traced over this variety, in effect, that some regional accents are less acceptable than others (see 1.7.1.2.1.1).

But there is an exception, noted above, to the generalization that regional pronunciation varies local with local forms. In the case of pronunciation, despite the varying the norms of 'standard' in the same appeared with the older textbooks and universities of England, 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP' became the first and foremost been transmitted through a serious adaptation came from their own schools, and this, together with the newness feeling, that the social importance of its speakers, has conferred over has been one of its strengths as a widely favored spoken form of the language. But RP is also the only variety of English that had in the last half of the twentieth century, it is now only one among several variants commonly used on the BBC and over the place along with others which carry the unmistakable mark of English origin and 1950s or Australian or South

American or Caribbean origin. Thus the rule that a specific type of pronunciation is relatively unimportant seems to be in the process of losing the usual exception that RP pronunciation. Nevertheless, it remains the standard for writing the British variety of English, and other languages, we can be easily seen from dictionaries and textbooks intended for students that keep British English.

RP also shares a distinction with a variety of British American pronunciation known as 'network English'. BBC newsreaders speak to the 200 million speakers, just as newscasters on the national radio and television networks in the United States all speak with the network English pronunciation.

In this book we do not attempt to represent the range of variation in pronunciation exemplified with different national standards. We do, however, record the major differences using the systems of symbols found on page viii) between RP and network English.

- 8 There is a great deal of variation in the pronunciation of English in different parts of the world, especially in the areas of the world where English is spoken by a large number of people. It is important to be aware of these differences because they can affect the way we communicate and they can be a source of misunderstanding.

Varieties according to field of discourse

- 4 The field of discourse is the type of activity engaged in through language. A speaker in English uses appropriate varieties according to field and registers in the appropriate use in various registers. The number of varieties that speakers choose depends upon their profession, manner, and interests.

Typically the *register* involves nothing more than referring to the particular set of lexical items habitually used for handling the field in question. Thus, in connection with repairs a mechanic may, but need not use, *lever*, *finger*, *rod*, *nut*, *washer*, *adjust*, *loosening*, *tighten*, *adjuster*, and *die* (Liz). But there are grammatical correlates to field variety as well. To use another example, the *imperative* in creating recipes: *Put the liquid into a bowl*, or *You should or You ought not to fill less than two bowls* . . . On the occasion of direct object that is common in institutional language in general: *Bake at 150°*, *Close (the Am and the end)*, *Close (the book)* *Close your album*. More complex grammatical structures may be found in the language of technical and scientific descriptions: the *relative* is common and *clauses* are often 'inverted' (e.g. *The 1000*) in this variety.

You can see, by this field, that you have a register . . .

Register

Definition of this field is a kind of numerical analysis . . .

More, notice, grammatical differences are found in the language of legal documents:

Provided that such payment as aforesaid shall be a condition precedent to the exercise of the option herein specified . . .

and in newspaper headlines:

Development in Paris on Italian flight

The typical English national has been affected differently independently from the varieties (British, British standard) already discussed. Some obvious contingent similarities are however emerging: the use of a specific variety of our own language to reproduce the use of a specific variety of another. The use of a particular legal lexicon, for example, presupposes an educated variety of English.

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in particular contexts to the effect of language with self-explanatory labels. Features of course belong established field, but linguistic English extends to other fields: literature in particular (not to mention scientific topics and disciplines). Specific fields have certain characteristics in common: for example, LGB and religious English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usages that are otherwise absent. Clearly there is a need every now and then to refer to these fields. Literary one has traditionally used *archaic features*. Indeed, poetry may derive from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word choice. Literary English is sometimes classified as means of plurilingual language that are not in prose.

As with *colours of life*, there is considerable room, made dependent on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. *Technical (or scientific) language* covers a wide range of sub-categories: scientific, literary criticism, history, politics, medicine, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only one field of scientific discourse. Applications of terminology are notes of technical (practical) writing, itself divided with the various languages: for (regulation) languages may come from training manuals or instructions for playing games. What cannot be technical, any more in that the characteristic (or all appearances) is necessarily, it is often regarded as *technical*.

Just as they include relative language from other disciplines (LGB), for example, science and the primary school, technical writing, journalism (in hybrid sense include reporting or publicizing), etc., each of which may be distinguished from newspaper reporting. Some features of newspaper call for special consideration, in particular practices of the language of newspaper headlines.

We have by no means exhausted the fields that have developed their own linguistic expressions. Among other words here, we may mention education and business.

1 Which variety of English do you use in writing? Which other varieties are spoken in your area?

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by specific writing requirements. Since spaces between commas or periods function for different purposes, it is reasonable to regard of the different varieties of language when it has to do with such a situation

(and norms is usually medium instead). Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium necessarily prevents the absence of the possibility to adjust the pitch of language (it will sound "flat") because the absence of the gesture (e.g., through the gesture and prose complexity) of a certain, rather than the usual expression supported by gesture and melody by means of intonation normally heard or that that those features have understood. As a condition, since the written medium can be used and normal, slowly and initially (before the spoken medium is understood), written tend to imitate intonation by using more complexly as well as more carefully and elegantly than they may choose to speak.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to control language by speech (stress, rhythm, intonation, etc., for example) are impossible or difficult with the relatively limited repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation (p. App. 1). As a consequence, when a form has to be represented, it is sometimes to convey fully and completely what they want to express within the orthographic system. Thus instead of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation pattern on *John* (p. App. 1.1.2), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended focus:

John said to B
He was not in fact from that office.

The differences are not all on one side, however; the written medium has the obvious complexity of paragraphs, tables, quotation marks, etc., which have no clear analogues in speech.

1 As with writing according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle as one variety: if any users of English in a certain way discuss, irrespective of the variety of English they use, as a result of region and situation. But, again, there are contextual conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the reality that educated speakers expect. The genre is often regarded as educational about.

There are contingent constraints of another kind, from field varieties of English. Legal writing especially is a difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other contingent requirements include a certain amount of redundancy that will be employed very differently from a native speaker of the same genre.

Varieties according to attitude

1 Varieties according to attitude (stance). The field and medium varieties of English are not the only varieties of English, in a sense of the term that implies that they are not the only varieties of English. A second source of varieties is often called "style", but "style" like "register" is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the changes in register from that because from our attitude or the focus (or center) to the topic (the to

the purposes of our communication. We *play* or *enjoy* a game, for example, between ourselves (individuals and), and, public, impersonal on the one hand and group-oriented (collectively oriented teams and friendly) on the other. The corresponding linguistic contrasts involve both grammar and semantics. For example:

Overline involvements are not suitable for employees who are non-residents.

Staff members subordinate from each get paid overline.

While many sentences like the foregoing can be lifted from formal or neutral contexts (in relation to each other), it is useful to notice the notion of the register used by the writer, so that we can acknowledge it as direct or indirect or in general, hardly or dialect, bearing no obvious coloring that has been induced by stylistic factors.

This scientific topic is now much better and seems likely to go in importance.

On the other side of the register (and formal) line, we may usefully distinguish sentences concerning features that are markedly formal or informal. In the present work, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this latter main distinction, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only those that are distinctly formal or informal. It should be noticed that the normal form often transcends its limits of the exact contrast as well. For example, contractions such as *which* are employed in both informal and actual English; they are excluded from formal English.

2. Mastery of such a range of situational variables seems a social achievement for advanced adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable: even early for children the native or heritage language is foreign. It appears to require maturity, test, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's sense of and attitude about identity, and its search for the language's approach to deal in expression to gain its aims. Young native speakers at the age of five or six learn, fluently speaking, new forms of English that is made to serve as responses, relating things and talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, to an adult neighbor. And although this minimal language can serve partly because of *imitation*, it is generally recognized that it is a language that the child will grow out of.

From an American point of view, a somewhat similar position. Until their skills in the language is really very advanced, or in considerable measure, though the particular variety is much less preferable than that of the native child. If, nevertheless, it is possible in English has been observed, though the child's speaking is essentially hearing. Their additional variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised speaking only one form. More usually, either an invariant answer, or sometimes even an archaic answer or a translation, is given to the native speaker in the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the native child's youth inhibits retention, so this foreign student's second language interest and taste are dependent on some formal social approximation in the language variety.

3. The necessary concept of formal or informal formal in our sense of register includes: the full range of linguistic variables and an essentially difference-of-attitude. We should add at least one category to each side of the scale. On the one hand, we need a caution for the extremely casual, rapid-fire, low-quality variety of English that is often found in social interaction. For example:

This guy had got me, and I got to go to school to school.

For we must account also for the informal, casual, or barely—often slangy—language used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling (and for any other reason that they consent to) a little, about what the formal language (think of their common language). We might thus reach the foregoing contrast with:

I got you to get you!

We may have personal, common idioms for:

Very formal — neutral — normal — informal — very informal

As we read above (FN), we clearly create the labels formal and informal. Leaving unmarked the neutral, normal type; but we cannot designate language as *very formal* or *very informal*, especially implying *very informal* by *normal* or *neutral*, as *prophetic*. It is better to express it also used for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further formalization is needed to denote the frequency with which plain lexical usage (typical of casual, conversational, ordinary membership) is employed in a given context.

One final point on attitude variables. As with the English detected by Cell and another, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of similar variables. And we relate that the formal variety is more frequent in the case of formal, neutral or conversational, particularly in the case of formal. Students it would be hard to increase an objective formal language on the level being other than informal, or a middle membership center, as noted, a fact of state being other than formal (though here we are in the same medium speech).

Variables according to informality

4. A very different type of variation applied to speakers of English was a new language in foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The Ukrainian *scholar* can use some such diversity. It happens, a formal grammatical error on English: the Russian who says *There are some students in our class of male students* in English. Russian known scientific usage on the English word *scholar*. Most obviously, we begin and to analyze our own paradigmatic pattern on any foreign language we learn. The language learner is able to draw this language (inclusion of content) and the use of it in foreign language. We suppose that we, in the students can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest. Usually.

At the opposite extreme are informal, conversational, and we will deal in a community and of such length, and that they may be the most useful and educational, though to be institutionalized and best to be rejected, as

Relationships among variety types

- 6 Varieties within each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Users of English may learn conventional features of any register or style in their use of a particular register, while not knowing, or being unaware, of features that are appropriate to their particular occupation or activity. They can learn those aspects of English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, they can adjust their discourse on any of the levels according to the register, formalness, or audience they face for their purpose or purpose. And all of this would apply equally if they are proficient in English as a foreign or second language or if their use of English is affected by interference from their native tongue.

At the same time, the varieties of a large social development, like the typology of written business correspondence, may be the result of a single system or network.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *written* variety: a person educated in Ohio will understand AmE, not BrE, if only, for example, in an American marking someone's learning English in Example 10.14. Kibler is prepared to provide a standard or BrE pronunciation for *between* and *the* (Figures 10.14 and 10.15).

- 7 There are features relating to style of discourse. Certain tasks of activity (counting and classifying, for example) are associated with specific registers, and, as a result, the style of their register or the language register becomes in such activities is fully developed. In other tasks (writing, making plans, planning) we expect to find some use of standard and English or at least highly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of thought and the consciousness of another.

Since writing is an abstract task, we can analyze it in the standard English of one or other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare mediated styles in writing, we realize *perhaps* how necessary it is to understand the register or purpose or context. For the same reason there are subjects (for example, teaching) in which writing that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal systems) that are usually handled in writing.

Artificial variation may appear to be a consequence of register or other variation: it is possible to be formal or informal on both standards or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'authenticity' popular with many people (including, for example, parents of children) and associated with (perhaps) the world of the standard dialect, and very formal language when the subject is serious or formal would seem to be.

- 8 Finally, there is the issue of writing. At the level of words and phrasal there is a general independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, phrasal tend to be restricted to a few principal registers, especially in the case of the register of function in Text 10.16 (1.5).

As to English thought as a learned level as a second or foreign language, it is to be expected that enough proficiency is achieved to allow the user the

freedom they need in knowing the necessary public administrative, a learned register such as *business* with its supporting lexical register, and informal conversational registers are likely to be the linguistic of any one thought English at the formal or informal register of the spoken or written language (see, for example, the English manual for a particular occupation (English for engineers), for example).

Variation within a variety

- 9 We need to make two final points about variation in the case of given. First, the social conditions of register may not apply, and the conditions of each condition may vary rather than a simple category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one register over another register. For example, we sometimes find *business* used in choice between students. An analysis of social conditions cannot be confined to the variety of conditions discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say *you were there* or *you were not there* (Fig. 10.16).

He stayed a week. — He stayed for a week.

It is easier for me to read. — I can't read for myself.

I don't know whether I can be there. — I don't know if I can be there.

Neither member of such pairs is necessarily linked to any of the varieties and we have specified. Although there have been some studies for at least some of the socially marked variation (often called 'The speaker's own variety'), it has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed dialects' or other groups of speakers who do not correspond regionally or sociologically, the groups being distinguished by linguistic features that are shared geographically.

- 10 Dialects help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig. 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a three-pointed opposition. The upper pole of the first vertical coordinate is the feature of 'projected uniformity' such as the 'invariable past tense' of English. The intermediate variety of English of the early 19th century is characterized by the morphologically common case

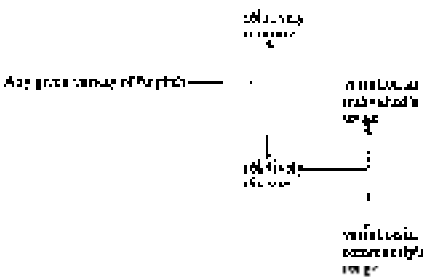


Fig. 1.41. Dialects and the written register

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical and practical questions in the area of fixation discussed in 2.2. The practical questions are about the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may engage in such a fixation (to make whether one moment and a reader's title later), and on the other hand, there may be a fixation using the computer or a television maybe appearing to have a preference for the main text and another a preference for the side text (2.2). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is essentially occurring in all languages and in all aspects of language with the regularity of a wave which always comes; and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined in the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be constant either in their choice or in their temporal fixation (perhaps). Perhaps English may already be such a fixation more than some other language because of its nature's need: a basic Germanic structure, strong pattern, semi-grammar, inflection, and general context with a double, and Romance words, strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), need fixation (cf. App. 2.2.2) – and even reference and quality.

Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the example, the official acceptance of English as a *major world language* (L.4) and the view of the present state of the language expressed by some speakers (L.1). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, academic or linguistic qualities. The growing acceptance of world language education, varieties as standards stems from a growing national awareness, an awareness that world language by unqualified standards is more English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing awareness (by an acute awareness) for second-language varieties and for local non-standard varieties, reflects ideas that each country has a right to its own language and that its variety is historically superior.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functions and traditional domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance stems at least in part from a natural conservatism, or perhaps rather particular (perhaps arbitrary) choices and (to a degree) the authority.

On a regional or social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups or institutions. For the higher esteem is considered a sign that they are more logical or close to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily coincide. Speakers' attitudes of country level evaluations, may continue using a particular variety or variety because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group or variety. Those who are competent in the so many other their variety in some other language, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of various varieties in the spoken medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or varieties because they feel the need to use it.

Acceptability and frequency

- The concept of the constant core points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of the variation of British grammar. We distinguish between the *constant* and the *variable* for acceptability and frequency.

Acceptability is a concept that does not apply exclusively to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because (for example) they consider it logically absurd or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. etc. It may also be used only with the acceptability of focus or construction or the grammar of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes distinguish acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are found to be unacceptable but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query (?) before the asterisk. A query also signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the asterisk or query in parentheses. The assessment of native speakers' evaluation is based on our own research, evaluation experiments with informants in the United States and Britain.

Assessments by native speakers of relative acceptability largely coincide with the assessments of relative frequency, as has concluded experimental studies. Frequency judgments too. Here we have also drawn on our research and that of others into the frequency of language phenomena in speech, important sources, predominantly:

- the output of the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering spoken as well as written varieties of British English;
- the Brown University corpus, comprising samples of American printed English;
- the parallel American British English corpus (ABE), covering samples of British printed English.

We have included these features of the language that occur frequently, deriving attention just to those that occur relatively frequently or regularly.

Our approach in this book is to focus on the common core that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We have searched out features that the two standards share as well as features that are unique to each. We have also pointed out where they differ. It is usually not necessary to say explicitly (1) or (2) or (especially) (3), but it is

12 The English language

may be a desire to be total, exclusively, in our study. Similarly, with other parts, features that are treated with respect to manner and attitude. We distinguish where necessary spoken and written language, generally using 'spoken' and 'written' as unmarked forms for the purposes of clarity of communication, but drawing on the distinctions 'spoken/written' and 'lower/higher' when we wish to emphasize that which is oral and popular in the medium. We also frequently need to refer to forms according to variation in attitude, drawing attention to those that are formal or informal.

In this book we offer a descriptive presentation of English morphology and syntax, with a minimum of formalism. We make a direct connection between morphological and syntactic forms and their meaning, conducting discussions into semantics, semantics, and pragmatics where these helping clearly in any grammatical description.

Note This text is designed to be a primary text for those studying the English language in a university or college. We have included a number of exercises in this book because of the value of these exercises in the learning process.

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This chapter will be reflected to later chapters

The plan of this chapter

2.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account in the same, although a grammar may be made defining, and there is no simple linear path to take in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be in order the description of English grammar in three phases which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before. First, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).

The first of grammar is seen to be the other way, the derivation from its source, a simple text with each word coming together to form up later for more extended treatment. These are three parts: (a) Chapter 2, (b) Chapter 3 to 11, (c) Chapter 12 to 19.

The second chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a simple outline of English grammar and of its major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.

The second cycle (Chapters 3 to 11) is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapter 3 and 4 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapter 5 and 6 the basic constituents of the noun phrase. It includes determiners, nouns, and pronouns. Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with auxiliaries, and Chapter 9 with prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classes studied, Chapter 10 and 11 cover realization, the explanation of all this material.

The third cycle deals with more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: three systems which may be taken out as simple constituents in order to find out structure of, grammar or less complexly. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final look at complexity – the relative use of one class to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows in Chapter 17 and 18, dealing with clauses in the verb phrase, and prepositional phrases, and relative clauses, with focus relating to phasal and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, and relative clauses. Chapter 19 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of clauses, and relative clauses in order to explore. Chapter 20 also involves knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is the other way, presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic organization. Finally, Chapter 21 examines the ways in which structure is realized in the text, and in the text, including their complexity extended to the other in general writing.

The three Appendices annexes explain of English, which, though already peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impinge on it at many points, illustrating features referred to in the body of the book in the topics concerned. They are word formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and pronunciation (Appendix III).

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