

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

Randolph Quirk
Sidney Greenbaum
Geoffrey Leech
Jan Svartvik

Index by David Crystal



Longman
London and New York

Lucia (1981), C. F. Mayo (1982), W. J. Levelt (1989), J. Lavin (1991), J. Taylor (1991), G. Tiberius (1991), T. Woods (1991). The first three of these journals, among the most eminent ones in the world on American, British, and other varieties of English, have continuous representation in the *Journal*, with which we assign such descriptive labels as 'AmE' and 'BrE'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that *Journal* Desktop has been extended far beyond what I had envisaged for this page. The new inventory provided the detailed index which will make *Journal* even more useful possible, in addition, in the course of development and highly specialized tasks. We have concluded positively on the occasion of seeing the standardisation of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But the *Journal* would be really impossible if not for the devotion and gratitude of the granting bodies whose financial help, and above the support they have shed from university, college, centre, and Chair, at the UNIVERSITY of Lancaster, and the UNIVERSITY of Wisconsin (the generous grants and writing credits are American), the *International Journal* Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden (the *Journal* Chair), and our publishers, the Liverpool Group.

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Pronunciation table

		SYLLABLES		WORDS	
		INITIAL	MIDDLE	INITIAL	MIDDLE
ɒ	box	ɒ	box	ɒ	about
ɒ	top	ɒ	top	ɒ	stop
ɒ	not	ɒ	not	ɒ	lead
ɒ	hot	ɒ	hot	ɒ	lead
ɒ	bottom	ɒ	bottom	ɒ	earn
ɒ	about	ɒ	about	ɒ	pear
ɒ	foot	ɒ	foot	ɒ	ought
ɒ	drop	ɒ	drop	ɒ	put
ɒ	lot	ɒ	lot	ɒ	best
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	cut
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	had
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	phone
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	try
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	total
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	to
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	near
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	here
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	here
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	year
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	player
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	lower
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	low
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	lower
		ɒ	lot	ɒ	employee

Syllable structure is given in square brackets.
 () indicates the position of the syllable in the word.
 For instances of /t/, /d/, /n/ and other phonemes, see App. 21.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A ₁	adverbial related to the first
A ₂	adverbial related to the second
A or A or P	adverbial phrase
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
inf	infinitival position of prepositional
I	initial position of clause
in	involvement phrase of adverbial
int	intra-medial position of adverbial
INT	initial or medial position of adverbial
kg	syntactic form
LOC	locative phrase of adverbial
M	medial position of prepositional
M ₁	medial initial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
U	object
C ₁	direct object
U	indirect object
obj	objective
op	operator
opt	optional
part	particle
pl	plural verb
PLP	plural prepositional phrase
p	prepositional phrase
R	regular surface (for 21.1)
r	RED phrase structure present third form
S	subject
SEI	Series of English Change
SE	Standard English
SE	subject + verb
SE	subject + verb + adverbial
SPO	subject + verb + object
SPOC	subject + verb + object + complement
SPOC	subject + verb + object
SPOC	subject + verb + object + complement
SPOC	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 playing behind at the moment but certainly there are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will eventually be important to those who speak it. Without English, the language they acquired is their mother's tongue. But there are many 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 international use of the language in the name of purposes for which it is used* in politics, law, science, the media, the arts, highly valued cultural pursuits and in other areas of international activity. A fourth is the international political influence of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 In the matter of the first criterion, namely speakers of the language, the number in question is about 300 million for English, and probably only well below Chinese (about 150 million). Also Chinese has a number of speakers. The second criterion, the geographical dispersal of the language, is also superior, with four examples: Chinese, French, and Arabic or English, used in major world regions. The third criterion, the amount of international articles of special interest, of English, is a matter of fact: for the world as an international language it is simply pre-eminent. In the world's best known 1960s first paper—over 60% of the world population—1700+ words are now English by some official estimate. If not of the world's languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese seems to lack. For to mention the languages of China, Greek, Hebrew, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the literatures of Shakespeare, English has as its primary reason for internationality science and technology. The fourth criterion, the literary, scientific, and cultural influence of English as a language of powerful, productive, and influential nations, that England is the language of the United States, whose pre-1945 political power was second only to Britain, is indeed superior, to Japan.

Nothing has been said here of the importance of English in the growth of the quality of a language (the size of its vocabulary, its extreme lack of inflection, its alleged flexibility of inflection). The desire for internationality, or even to use it as a means of international communication, is always in political, economic, and domestic courses.

The use of English

- 1.3 English is used in an ever wider range of contexts. As a native mother tongue, English is used in the language of the dominant and the majority of the world's population, as well as in the language of the majority in the home, or as a second language in a significant number of foreign parts. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language, the primary

1.1-4.8 Vocabulary: outline & survey
1.4 Alphabetical variation

1.4.2 Acceptability and frequency

R1: Key-words 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 internal purposes, as an international language; for example in Switzerland, where it is the spoken language of the inner country, but others (mostly chiefly as an international language, the medium of communication with people from other countries).

This will be illustrated, concerning 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 printed works.

3. In a few cases, such as the case of the native language, and a foreign one may be equally good as the medium for the language. In some countries, English is one of the official languages and the English spoken is not different from that of the native language.

4. Although the English language is generally used for the purpose of communication, it is also used for the purpose of communication between individuals speaking different native languages. In some countries, it is used as a second language, for example, in the United Kingdom and among Vietnamese in the United States.

5. In some cases, when it is used as a second language, it is used as a medium for communication between individuals speaking different native languages. In some countries, it is used as a second language, for example, in the United States and among Vietnamese in the United States.

Native and second language

4. English is spoken as a second language by more than 300 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 Dutch provinces of Guyana in British Guiana, most South African white Afrikaans or Dutch languages, and many Irish and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But there is also a native language in most English-speaking countries: 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 small proportion of the people have English as their native language. In about twenty-five countries English has been legally declared as an official language. In about ten (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some (such as the United States) it is the sole official language with other native languages. 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 purposes; where it is not native language (e.g. science, technology, medicine) it is a second language that is politically necessary, 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 higher education. In the United States, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'de facto' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the increase in secondary education where people today learn English more than at any time during the colonial period. It has been estimated that English is a second language for well over 250 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 language is used as a second language in many countries. It is used as a second language in many countries, such as the United States, where it is used as a second language for many people. It is also used as a second language in many countries, such as the United States, where it is used as a second language for many people.

Foreign language

5. By foreign language we mean a language used by people for communication, mainly business or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio, for example, can be regarded as a form of communication, and as a foreign language. The United States is at the present time preparing and apparently completing American programmes such as the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a significant role in recent years. In these and other fields, such as the United States, which provide support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USA, 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 in the next section. The reasons for the changes have already been discussed. To put it briefly, they are: (1) a top-down process of the best people, and (2) a bottom-up process of the best people. The best people are the best people. It is needed for them to be at least half of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is also (indirectly) associated with technology and economic development and is the principal language of international trade. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use English as their principal international sales medium, and the language of international trade, and the world's principal language. It is the universal language of international communication, and it is the most important language of international communication. It is the most important language of international communication, and it is the most important language of international communication. It is the most important language of international communication, and it is the most important language of international communication.

- 18 In some respects it is a historical experiment in globalisation. The idea grew out of the craze of the 1970s for English books. In 1975 one of the world's best-selling non-fiction books, 15.27 million copies, English. The annual competition was held in 1976 and 1977 (1977).
- 19 The particular balance of English, but indeed language in a more general sense, (please specify) is a result of a unique set of circumstances in the United Kingdom and is not a result of a general trend. English has been used and has traditionally been the main language of the United Kingdom.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 6 The role of *de facto* foreign language that French occupies for two centuries from about 1500 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 study just would be offered to a candidate deficient in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the United Kingdom in French as perhaps the English-speaking world organised through the British Commonwealth system, and each of the other seven to be even more common in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries to the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for teaching English or French and to all ages, both for non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning, of course, takes place in the ordinary process of the usual 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 (26 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 evidence from the study was the People's Republic of China (1 since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries), 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 wide range of language-speaking countries; for access to scientific and technological publications; for a variety of English teachers, not only in the classroom, but to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourist trade, international commerce, or international programmes for education or research. In countries where it is a foreign language, English

is usually used as the medium for higher education, or even for scientific and technological subjects, even when it is not so used in the primary or secondary levels.

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,946 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium for French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (19,046) in 1973, but in the same year

Second varieties of English

- 7 In countries where English is predominant, the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *standard variety* (p. 127), the variety considered to be the correct form of the language in the country. However, it is not always just that, for the medium is almost always to make the local spoken variety conform with such 'standard' spoken forms.

In countries where English is a *contact 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, at best, about 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 not limited to the universities among teachers in native English countries, even though usage in practice is generally far different from their own usage (p. 127).

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.

- 2 **Contexts where English is a foreign language** are particularly important, independent of whether we are dealing with children or adults, and that are relevant to multilingual speakers.

The British national character of English

- 8 English is particularly the most important of languages. Through the name of the language may also be referred to of England, or to the way it is used

the language with the United States, one of the world's superpowers. English continues to perform a political or official function 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 Africa, among different sizes, populations, climates, economic and political philosophies; the business and commerce areas 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 the Constitution of the United States is the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, George Bush, when I was a six-year-old, a Navy cadet, did a post-war – warlike or not – service entirely in a shared culture. The Queen's own boy (his father's reading of 'romantic fiction' inside *United States* and even in Australia and New Zealand, at other times, implies equally intense, the independence and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When at Australia's quote of *Southey's* *London* (not *London* as a city), the metaphorical link to the dramatic activity of moving the dipping of someone else in the hope of doing what they just have not done. When an American speaks of not going to bed (as *Paris* as a tourist or a child's dream), the metaphor contains an equally continuous culture – the quest of London. And when an Englishman says that something is not *quite* finished, the notion of *quite* is a quest that is by no means achieved in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – clairvoyance** – can see much about the future of English. It is not only a prediction of the future but a prediction of the future, not the current use of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as the best or most universal compromise yet. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although it is possible to set languages such as the obvious advantage that through all languages will cause learning (at least necessary speakers), thereby the giving an advantage to speakers of the particular language. During the last few decades French has come closest to being the single international language, having achieved a greater work force than any other language (in recorded times), but in many years efforts have failed. It will ever remain the wish of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not a single international language will survive in the present form.

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 proposals that, probably in response to the child's right to use his mother tongue, second language or dialect 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 variety is greatest in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to do original things in those countries (dialects are usually based by speakers only on themselves and other speakers of the language) and are have unconsciously acquired the language to varying degrees of fluency. It is not surprising that the standards of the conventional variable and subject to change. Some speakers concern about the English language's stability and the ill-considered context of the language is such a situation. Some people distrust the idea of the emerging instability about varieties, which no longer have to adhere strictly to standards of acceptability.

- 1.10 While four for the disintegration of English cannot be over-stated, it is not surprising that there are arguments to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable dialectal differences with a very national variety, the education systems have preserved the essential stability of the national standards. The traditional English system generally ignores both the change in pronunciation and the use of the present tense in the past tense, despite its regional variation, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are contributing to making all English as a national variety from the past commonwealth. But a clear language of respect, respect, and love of the common motherland of code, integrity, and fire in the western world. Teachers and students can be made available to, but not to, because variation and regional membership systems are made flexible enough to take account of variation. Despite a growing awareness of international variation in speech, standard forms remain the same for world English.

The future of English as an international language has also been seen to reduce the possibility of teaching the language, especially in a common code, to the level required for international usefulness. Given the enormous expenditures required for the purpose it is possible that as developing countries become richer they will be able to increase their dependence on the teaching of English and cause the birth of local and global professions. A lot of work programs have been devised to maintain the global language learning, thereby allowing a more reliable development of international professions in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the working for business or other international professions. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely failed, a proposal has also recently been made for a simplified, simplified form of English (known as *International English*) that would preserve a subset of the features of standard English, for example, modal auxiliaries and the *do* auxiliary would be removed, as well as participles and the *to* infinitive and the *wh* clause. The simplified form would be restricted to speakers of any major national variety and could be designed 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 second language conflicts with the movement for the establishment of mother-tongue as the native language. Objectives for an official status for English could lead to the replacement by native languages in educational and national prior and the adoption of a second language of English 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 words and grammar words because, to some extent, rules specifying both could be found. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and *lexicology* (from *lexicon*) usually refers to lexicology and *lexicography*. Finally, the number of linguistic categories when viewed within particular types of situation is also within lexicology, which is concerned with the communicative function of linguistic structures. The words are grouped for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: **GRAMMATICAL** and **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar enter into the structure of **TEXT**, which **TEXTUAL** speaks and writes **ANYONE** (cf. Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and morphology

- 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 syntax and that aspect of grammar known as morphology (which may also refer to the structure of a sentence). The fact that the two terms of morphology and syntax are not equally used in the English-speaking world is due to the fact that the morphological form of the English is *not* as highly inflected as the form used equally in the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about morphology in this respect; it corresponds outside the domain of morphology to 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 to say that the dogger doggered Apesopon, the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, not that he had made a mistake in grammar. But in the situation systems of the English-speaking countries, it is possible also to use the term 'grammar' to refer to what is included under spelling and morphology.

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 that period, it is possible also to use the term 'grammar' to refer to what is included under spelling and morphology.

John has a good grasp of grammar, but English isn't his first language.

This meaning of 'grammar' has continued to be used by lay and professional alike. *grammar* is identified with *inflections*, so that non-speakers may still mean 'grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5 The word *grammar* has been used in several English-speaking countries to refer to the study of the structure of a sentence in the Greek tradition since the 1800s, whereas the word *grammar* was used in the English-speaking world to refer to the study of the structure of a sentence in the Latin tradition since the 1800s.

Native and the native speaker

- 5 The 19th century completed the history of meanings. The native speaker, having his own native language, is not a native speaker.
- French has a well-defined grammar, but in English we're free to speak as we like.

The origin which is evident that the speaker is not a native speaker is not only 'grammar' in the narrow sense, but also the word 'grammar' which is used in a broad sense of grammar.

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 (native) (only - to be that of grammar); and if ever he happens to be asked to explain one such rule (or foreign habit) to a foreigner, he usually, by common usage, 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 clearly in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and the narrow pattern in the use of French but not a codification of rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they progress should be seen. This is the 'grammar' 'grammar' in a language (or the grammar) has been, however much they differed in the past or nation they entered in, but grammar is codified by grammarians; the Academy (Grammar) there is a French Academy for the English language and so the native speaker's *grammar* (the French) is not a native speaker's 'grammar' in language.

The codification of rules

- 4 The 'codification' aspect of grammar is readily identified with the specific codification by a specific grammarian:

Chomsky wrote a good grammar, and so did Kuroshv.

And this aspect naturally enters the comment such as to:

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, is a very important theory embraced by the culture, and it is of the nature of grammar rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky discovered a grammatical grammar that differed significantly from other grammars.

In the usage of many learning languages, the word *grammar* has entered in the colloquial that it had in the Greek tradition since the 1800s, whereas the word *grammar* was used in the English-speaking world to refer to the study of the structure of a sentence in the Latin tradition since the 1800s. Thus, in the 19th century of French linguistics, the word *grammar* has the sense of 'the grammar' or 'grammar' and not only in syntax but in lexicology, text, and grammar specification as well.

- 7 Another field of grammar is the study of the structure of a sentence in the

Do they have a grammar that is different from that of any other natural language, and together with a coded syllabary is a fairly phonetic orthography?

Prescriptive grammar

- 17. That it is the same in the use of 'grammar' in *GRAMMAR* (1973):

It is not grammar based, a code, or a written orthography.

Here 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 varieties. Since we do not have an inventory 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.

For reference issues, in the introduction we, primarily deal with the term *usage*, a *planning* (2001) chapter of *grammar* and lexical items that are conventional within the standard varieties. Their objectives may promote some to avoid certain usage, at least in their formal writing. One of the last few chapters prescribes rules that are considered into a general prescriptive manual for formal writing that is embedded (with some variance) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An interesting conceptualization of *grammar* (1973) *prescriptive*, some speakers may mistakenly conclude particular prescriptive rules as an attempt to avoid variation. A classic instance of such a misconception is the case of *them* as subject by G. L. Nils (20). Observe that the pseudo-grammatical space as in *I wonder if he can do it* and *the use of the subjective pronoun* in the phrase *them* *you and I*.

Our primary concern in this book 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, in our language the preference of some native speakers of *them* in formal or more marked styles. If you had seen, for example, *I wonder if he can do it* or *the use of the subjective pronoun* in *them* *you and I*, you would see that, or in response to what in the teacher who *them* *you and I*.

Grammatical types of organization

- 18. Prescriptive grammar is a typical grammatical description, in its ability to cover the whole field of grammar (1973) as remain an area of continuing controversy. While the rest of the book is devoted to the concept of the book, our intention should be restricted to the knowledge of the current discussion. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology or the use of *them* in the English orthography as the order as *you and I*. In the following description of *them* *you and I*, *them* *you and I* is used to refer to the grammar as a whole, and in the context of the use of *them* *you and I* will demonstrate that *them* *you and I* is, though, not of *them* *you and I* is the phonological conditions for the use of *them* *you and I*.

Indeed, in verbs and nouns (1973), 1970, it is not to be on the orthography, for example, in the fact that some abstract and concrete nouns only in the position of the *them* *you and I* (1970).

The *them* *you and I*,
The *them* *you and I*.

But more obviously, the interdependence of orthography and grammar is shown in four processes of the interaction between morphology and linear organization: (1) (2), (3) (4), and in the fact that by merely altering the orthography one can distinguish some of the same like those stated in App. (1) (2).

The interrelations of grammar, orthography and morphology are manifested in the semantic relations (1973) that permit (1) and (2) to occur (1) and (2):

Prescriptive orthography	(1)
*Open syllable orthography	(1a)
*Syllable orthography	(2)
*Syllable orthography	(2a)

The basic line between grammar and morphology is *them* *you and I*. As *them* *you and I* does not have a regularity, the *them* *you and I* is used in each context in this book.

Similarly, the hierarchy between grammar and morphology (and even more so between morphology and grammar) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of limited speech *them* *you and I*, such as *them* *you and I* (1973), it may be covered through certain regular types of *them* *you and I* (Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behavior of the meaning of the *them* *you and I*.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as describing the constructional elements of the English language, and morphology as describing the basic lexical and orthographic conditions on which that construction can be formulated. In applying this principle we will naturally state arbitrary decisions on the problem from general to least generalization.

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 particular and nature of the organization of (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, listed, and related to one of the prime varieties of the

number (although Shakespeare, taken to be a native of the City, may well still remain impossible to name as being in the genus).

There is an important polarity between unlearned and learned speech in which the former can be identified with the speech of one regional dialect more completely than the latter can, 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 observers not well acquainted with the dialects, nearly half a dozen languages can be distinguished from a Bristolian who says *ask* 'good', and a Virginian who says *good*. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one single standard, and to result in no stranger a dialect speaker would tend to use *asked* 'good'. On the other hand, there is an ample evidence of regional and unlearned English. *Ask* is obsolete; English, *I say*, *cut*, *beast*, *neglect*, *harmless*, to do many features of unlearned use; a prominent example is the double negative as in *I don't know no one*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar teachers for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

Standard English naturally tends to give the additional prestige of government agencies, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law courts, and the judge – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the boundaries of local community. It is used in schools, government, and guides to places, and is the speech of the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale education (higher in this country) makes social and political uniformity, it claims to be, national in its emphasis, and one provided one remembers that this does not mean a English that has been formally standardized by official action, an artificial and unlearned standard, the task is to find and approximate to common with educated English forms which are especially associated with unlearned (rather than dialect) but are generally called *standard*.

2. *Standard English* is a term used to refer to a standard form of English which is the basis for the study of the language.

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 present century. Uniformity of greater than in other parts of the world, which is a 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 punctuation system throughout, with two minor sub-systems. The one is the orthography with British pronunciation (used by most English-speaking countries other than the United States) and the other is the one with only a small class of words, *color*, *center*, *founder*, etc. The other is the American orthography, *color*, *center*, *founder*, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Learned or formal publications, such as academic journals and school textbooks, prefer British orthography, while popular publications, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but variations vary widely. The difference between the American and British orthographies of punctuation is that the former American practice is to put a period or comma inside closing quotation marks, which are usually double in American usage: for the former, *He said "I'm going."* A higher orthographic point may cause Anglo-American confusion, so that the numerical form of date, *the tenth* (from European practice) might mean '10 October 1965', but in American practice it means '10 August 1965' (p. 10).

In general, and especially in the United States, the English language has a strong tendency towards uniformity, but even so the world English movement is not uniformity and has not been supported entirely. Some variety may be increasing under the impact of closer world communication and the spread of Western material and material culture. The uniformity is especially strong in written regional styles of writing; English in subject matter of almost any kind is almost always written in a form which is very close to the standard form, and this is almost always the case with the national standards (p. 11).

National standards of English

British and American English

1. What are the differences between the standards of British and American English? The answer is that there are many differences, but they are not as great as they once were. In the past, the differences were very large, but in the last few decades, there are two national standards that are increasingly predominant both in the number of publications and in the degree to which these publications are standardized. American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Grammatical differences are few and the most important are those in the use of both national standards: the first that is used is the *past tense* of *go* and *bring*, only one of the two, *go*, *bring*, and that in BrE *bring* is singular or a plural verb form to be used with a singular subject or verb.

The *past tense* of *go* is *went* and the *past tense* of *bring* is *brought*.

There is a difference in the use of *bring* and *take*. *Bring* is used to refer to something that is brought to the speaker, while *take* is used to refer to something that is taken away from the speaker. For example, *Bring me a book* and *Take the book off the shelf* are both correct, but *Bring the book off the shelf* is not.

Bring is used to refer to something that is brought to the speaker, while *take* is used to refer to something that is taken away from the speaker.

And BrE uses *take* to refer to something that is taken away from the speaker, while AmE uses *bring* to refer to something that is brought to the speaker.

I *bring* the book to you, and you *take* it away from me.

Lexical examples are the *zero* pronoun, but many of these are common to users of both standards: for example, *money* (BrE), *money* (AmE), *ink* (BrE), *ink* (AmE); *jeans* (BrE), *jeans* (AmE). Some items are exclusive to speakers of the other standard: *apron* (BrE) vs. *apron* (AmE), at least in the *colloquial* register; *beer* (BrE), *ale* (AmE); *runner* (BrE), *runner* (AmE); *chips* (AmE), *chips* (BrE), *chips* (AmE). *Chips* vs. *chips* in AmE is a school tradition by public choice, but in this it applies to certain non-speaking schools. *Chips* (unless further specified, as in *chips* (AmE)) is usually acceptable in AmE, but (unless further specified as *chips* (AmE)) it is acceptable in BrE. *Chips* is also used in some non-English-speaking countries in AmE, but *chips* (AmE) is BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE.

Some names from other languages are used in AmE, but not in BrE. *Chips* (AmE) is used in AmE but *chips* (BrE) is used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE.

The United States and Britain have their separate political, cultural, business, and social systems. The *zero* pronoun is used in AmE, but not in BrE. *Chips* (AmE) is used in AmE but *chips* (BrE) is used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE.

One of the most prominent features of the United States is its geographical isolation. In addition to the *zero* pronoun, the *zero* pronoun is used in AmE, but not in BrE. *Chips* (AmE) is used in AmE but *chips* (BrE) is used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE.

Scotland, Ireland, Canada

1. *Chips*, with several regional and idiosyncratic features, is part of the register of the *zero* pronoun and the *zero* pronoun. The *zero* pronoun is used in AmE, but not in BrE. *Chips* (AmE) is used in AmE but *chips* (BrE) is used in BrE. There are a number of items shared by AmE, so that *first floor* is generally used with the ground floor. BrE it is *ground floor*. In some instances in AmE this is normal in one strand, but used by the other, a somewhat common one being *jump* (AmE) used to mean in AmE but *jump* (BrE) used in BrE.

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South Africa, Australia, New Zealand

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The 60% still not clear. (E faith as this sure, but [...] it's like
 abstracts, however.)

A: Are you for my home?

B: Too tight. With steel bands [I know tele... everything will be
 fine.]

But there are many features that are to be regarded as fully markers
 of mainly the general forms and the South-easterns (orange, words), but
 special ones: other uses of familiar words (for example *perfect* as a general
 word for 'right'), *weak* ('ill'), *stains* ('stains'), *beaker* ('river full to its
 brims'), *water* ('wet cloth') and special Australian words (for example
leaving ('resurrection'), *peddy* ('clothing')).

Pronunciation and standard English

- 7 The [re]c[or]d [1957] does not reflect the regional or national, concepts that
 appropriate to the status of a standard. Besides the national Code in the
 Dominions, the standard, was thus in a certain respect the language
 of government and other public authorities. The term standard that can
 be referred to as Creole-based English. It is here no doubt the emerging
 standard in countries where English is spoken as a second language (p. 146).
 It is clear, that the various are noticeable primarily in the free context
 which even the most fully established, BrE and AmE, CrE. Even such
 other in vocabulary, grammar and orthography. We have been careful,
 however, not to overstate pronunciation. In this connection, pronunciation is
 a topic of use for several reasons. In the first place, it is the type of linguistic
 phenomenon which distinguishes one national standard from another most
 immediately and completely and which leads in a more obvious way the
 national standards to the regional 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 propagated
 follows easily our individual regional pattern. This is due to the fact
 pronunciation is essentially governed a matter of 'more or less' rather than
 the discrete 'yes or no' of grammar and lexicon. Thirdly, norms of
 pronunciation are subject less to institutional and cultural constraints than
 to social ones. This means, in effect, that some regional accents are less
 acceptable than others (cf. [1] [12] [13]).

But there is an exception, noted above, to the generalization that regional
 pronunciation varies local with local forms. In the case of pronunciation
 does differ in varying the norms of 'standard' in the sense compared
 with the older textbooks and universities of England, 'Received Pronunciation'
 or 'RP'. Because this has traditionally been transmitted through a private
 education system, based upon boarding schools founded here the locality in
 which they happen to be situated. It is institutional, and this – together with
 the obvious feeling that the social importance of its speakers – has conferred
 upon it a status of its own as a widely favored spoken form of the
 language. But RP is also the only variety which it had in the last half of
 the twentieth century. It is now only one among several variants commonly
 used on the BBC and thus its place along with others which carry the
 unmistakable mark of regional origin (and 1978, in Australia and South

America or Caribbean origin. Thus the rule that a specific type of
 pronunciation is relatively unimportant seems to be in use precisely in using
 the *unmarked* (or 'RP') pronunciation. Nevertheless, it remains the
 standard for writing the British variety of English. Other varieties of English
 can be easily seen from dictionaries and textbooks intended for students
 who learn British English.

RP also shares a distinction with a variety of British American
 pronunciation known as 'network English'. BBC newsreaders use it on the
 24-hour network, 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 considered with different national standards. We do, however,
 record the major differences using the systems of symbols found on page viii.)

- 8 There is an emphasis on the fact that the use of English is a social act of the
 speaker, and that the use of English is a social act of the speaker. The use of
 English is a social act of the speaker, and that the use of English is a social
 act of the speaker. The use of English is a social act of the speaker, and that
 the use of English is a social act of the speaker. The use of English is a social
 act of the speaker, and that the use of English is a social act of the speaker.

Varieties according to field of discourse

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

Typically the *register* refers to the use of language in the particular
 act of social interaction. In writing the field is, in general, that
 in connection with requires a particular style, such as formal, semi-formal,
 informal, casual, etc. In writing, the field is, in general, that in connection
 with requires a particular style, such as formal, semi-formal, informal,
 casual, etc. In writing, the field is, in general, that in connection with
 requires a particular style, such as formal, semi-formal, informal, casual,
 etc. In writing, the field is, in general, that in connection with requires
 a particular style, such as formal, semi-formal, informal, casual, etc.

You can see, by the way, that you have a register...

Register

Register of the field is a social phenomenon of a register...

More notes: grammatical differences are found in the language of legal
 documents.

Registered that such a person as the said shall be a condition precedent
 in the execution of the said (even special)...

and in newspaper headlines:

Development of the written form

The typical language manual has chosen to deal broadly independently with the varieties (British, colonial varieties) already discussed. Some obvious contingent similarities are however striking. The use of a specific variety of our own language to represent the use of a specific variety of another. The use of a specific word (e.g. *brother* for *example*, *prescription* for *document*) variety of English.

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in grammar according to the date of the usage with self-explanatory labels. It is true that of course a long established form, but genuine English extends to other fields. There are in fact many local varieties in humanistic topics and disciplines. Linguistics has certain characteristics in common; for example, LINGUISTICS and RELIGIOUS ENGLISH have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usage that are otherwise absent. Thus there is a need every now and then to refer to these fields. There are two traditionally used models. *Journalism*, indeed, *poetry* may derive from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word order. Literary English is especially conspicuous as means of plurilingual language that are in process.

As with *Journalism*, the use of a specific variety may be dependent on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. *Journalism* (or *literature*) language covers a wide range of sub-genres: newspaper, literary criticism, literary, medical, medical, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of *Journalism* discussion. Approaches to *Journalism* and *poetry* are noted in the *Journalism* writing, itself divided into the various language, for *Journalism* language may come from various sources, or instructions for playing games. When learned is technical, any more is said in the *Journalism* (or *literature*) and *Journalism*, it is often particularly relevant to *Journalism*.

Journalism includes extensive language from other disciplines. For example, *Journalism* and the primary source of *Journalism* (journalism) is by definition a field of *Journalism* or *Journalism*, each of which may be distinguished from newspaper writing. Some features of newspaper call for special consideration, in particular variations in the language of newspaper headlines.

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

1. **Varieties according to field of discourse** are considered under *Journalism*, though this term is a field of discourse.

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by the degree of writing responsibility. Since speech is the primary or natural medium for language communication, it is reasonable to regard of the differences in usage in language when it has to be written as a separate

(and norms is usually written 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 share the piece of language (it will need to be repeated the absence of the possibility to share the piece of language) and process complexity of a sentence, rather than the usual expression supported by gesture and morphology. The other is more complex: the need to think that these factors have not been understood. As a condition, since the written medium can be used and normal slowly and initially (whereas the spoken medium is more complex, it is more difficult to understand when by writing more quickly 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.) are, for example, not impossible to represent with the relatively limited repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation (e.g. App. 1). As a consequence, when a form has to be represented, it is necessary to use a fully and explicitly what they want to represent within the orthographic system. Thus instead of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation pattern as in (e.g. App. 1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended focus:

John didn't do it.
It was not in fact John that did it.

The differences are not all one-way, however; the written medium has the obvious advantages of paragraph, clause, question marks, etc., which have no clear analogue in speech.

1. As with written according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle as one discourse of any users of English as varieties may depend, irrespective of the variety of English they use, as a result of region and situation. But again there are linguistic conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the reality that educated speakers expect. This point is often a great deal of educational about.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (e.g. *Journalism*) are especially a difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other *Journalism* (e.g. *Journalism*) is not only a result of a more conventional form but also a result of being employed very differently from a newspaper paragraph of the same genre.

Varieties according to attitude

1. Varieties according to attitude are those that are used in a particular, or individual, part of English, in a specific of the region, or time, or other standard or may vary in use. The process of use of varieties is often called 'style', but 'style' or 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the changes in register from that register that are attitudes in the focus (or reader) to the topic. This is

the purpose of our communication. The *register* (or *style*) is usually between formal (academic, scientific, public, impersonal) on the one hand and informal (colloquial, intimate, casual, friendly) on the other. The corresponding linguistic choices involve both grammar and vocabulary. For example:

Overline evolutions are not suitable for engineers who are non-residents.
Staff members subordinate to me can't get paid overline.

While many students like the slang you can hear from formal or neutral sources (in addition to each other), it is useful to present the notion of the register used by L2 learners. At the same time, it is useful to understand an appropriate variety of English, bearing in mind the obvious concern that has been induced by *register*. For example:

This student's job is now such that she seems likely to go to *employment*.

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 focus the main part of our attention to this distinctive dimension, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only issues that are relatively formal or informal. It should be realized that the neutral form often encompasses in fact both the most formal as well. For example, contractions such as *it's* are appropriate in both formal and actual English; they are excluded from formal English.

2. Mastery of such a range of situational variables seems a social achievement for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable even early in adulthood, neither for the average learner of a language. It appears that innate faculty, talent, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to work in the other direction, and to search the language's approach to find an expression to suit its needs. Young native speakers at the age of five or six have already speaking over forms of English that is made to serve as responses, whether they are talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, or an adult neighbor. And although this informal language can cover parts of the formal-spectrum, it is generally recognized that it is a language that the child will grow out of.

From an innate position of a somewhat ambiguous position. Until their skill in the language is really very advanced, or is consistently improving, though the particular way in which they are possible than that of the native child. In most of this possible in English has been observed through the child's speaking is colloquial hearing. Their initial efforts will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from a tutor. More usually, either an informant avoids the learner's own activities, or acting as a translator carefully. Informal factors occur in the speech of foreign students. But in any case, just as the active child's youth inhibits retention, so the foreign student's cohort continues to be less able to negotiate domains of formal or informal communication in the language variety.

3. The necessary concept of formal or informal formal forms of communication indicates the full range of linguistic variation and an evidently difference of attitude. We should add at least one category to each one of the rest. On the one hand, we need a reason for the economy of style, and for the very variety of English (and formal formal forms and functions). For example:

What you had gotten me, I'm going to spend to have you.

For the most relevant side for the informal, casual, or family—often slangy—language used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling, but for any other reason that they are not used to hear, about other. The formal is made (often) of this informal language. We might thus reach the following example work:

It's a great job, you're!

We now have personal (informal) utterances:

Very formal – formal – normal – casual – very informal

As we read above (L2), we chiefly create the labels 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the informal 'normal' style; but we also use designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'neutral' or 'neutral' as appropriate. It is better to avoid to use 'neutral' for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A similar term, *casual*, is useful to denote the frequency and/or pleasurable range (typed of some language variety indicating membership in a particular social group).

One final point on attitude variable. As with the English derived by folk and modern, there are qualitative variables in the social selection of varieties (varieties), and we include (informal) 'formal' and 'neutral' (writing), as well as 'personal' or 'particular' (new variety) in the case of 'formal'. Although it would be hard to increase an appropriate formal language on the other being other than informal, or a middle variety, the two varieties of formal style being other than formal (though formal is the same medium (speech)).

Variables according to informality

4. A very different type of variation applies to speakers of English in a non-linguistic foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The *Frenchness* of the case *Paris* can be seen clearly. In (perhaps) a French geographical style on English: the Roman who says *Paris, the first capital of France*, or even *Paris, the first capital of France*. Another formal scientific style on the English word 'Paris'. Most obviously, we have used to include our own paralinguistic patterns on any foreign language we hear. The presence of the word *Paris* (or other foreign language) is not only the most obvious in foreign language, but also the most visible. It is possible that the student can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest clarity.

At the opposite extreme are informal, common that are well understood in a community and of such long standing that they may be difficult and educational enough to be institutionalized and hence to be regarded 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, for example, to English that is appropriate to their particular occupation or activity; they can learn those aspects of English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, any two distinct varieties may be used at the same time, or the register, the situation, or the medium they are in their context or register, and all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and familiar with the language of their use of English is affected by individualised from their native tongue.

At the same time, the varieties is a large social development. We pay particular attention to some of the important developments, for example, in L2L, and you may see like the type of text or register as they affect the register system as a whole.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of spoken or a particular cultural in (often well understood AmE, but BrE, especially, for students of an American marking someone learning English in Europe or India, likely to approach a standard or the BCE pronunciation in American and British English, with an accent of their own).

- 7 There are various relations to stable or otherwise. Certain forms of activity (writing and speaking), for example, are associated with specific registers, and, in this case, the forms of these registers are the language of different contexts or such activities is fully developed. In other cases (writing, reading, physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of standard and English or a register of standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of household and the use of standard English.

Since writing is an individual act, we can analyse it in the standard English, or use as other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare standard English in writing, we realise that it is not necessarily standard English but in some particular contexts. For the same reason there are various (for example, teaching) a Scottish accent that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal system) that are usually for formal purposes.

Artificial variation may appear to be of consequence in register or other varieties: 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 'colloquial' popular varieties (for instance, talking to an audience) presents difficulties and uncertainties (for example) it would be considered dialectal, and very casual language when the subject is children or football would seem comic.

- 8 Finally, the *dialects* of writing. At the level of words and phrasal there is a general independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few phrasal register, for example, the formal or the register of function in Text Planning (1.5.5).

As to English taught at an advanced 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 choosing the variety of their address, a learned professor such as Malcolm will be expecting normal register, and informal conversational students are likely to be familiar with any one English at the formal or informal register, or the spoken or written register (see, we are restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for engineers, for example).

Variation within a variety

- 9 We need to make two final points about variation in the use of given. First, the social conditions register (register) and style, and the conditions of each constitute a continuum rather than a discrete category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one register than another register. For example, we sometimes find different choices of choice between students. An individual's choice cannot be attributed to the variety of conditions discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say (for example) that, the choice of register is:

He stayed a week. → He stayed for a week.

→ I studied for an hour. → I enjoyed the program.

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

Neither member of each pair is necessarily linked to any of the varieties and we have specified. Although we have been able to find a basis for at least some of the socially register variation (often called 'The register' for example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties present 'randomly distributed dialects' other groups of speakers who do not correspond regularly to sociologically the group 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 function of 'projected uniformity', each of the two other poles relate to the register variety of English, of the many features characterised by the registerable common core.

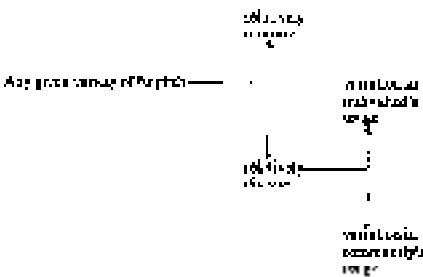


Fig 1.41. Varieties of English

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical or the historical approach on the area of fixation is treated in 2.25. The etymological arguments for standardisation which, on the one hand, are inscribed in any language as with a fixation (I wonder whether you remember me, I wonder if it will last), and on the other hand, there may be fixation in writing the grammar as a tradition may be appearing to have a preference for *the* over *them* and *that* for *it* (did you see it, did you see that). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is essentially occurring in all languages and in all spheres of language with the regularity of day and night (it rains always today), and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined to the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be considered either in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (dialects), or socio-English (style) or social (register) variations more than some other language because of its nature's great variety: a basic Germanic vocabulary, strong patterns, semi-grammar, inflection, and general contact with a dialect, and Romance vocabulary, strong patterns (cf. App. B.6), word formation (cf. App. 2.28.7) – and even reflexive and quiet.

Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the examples are the initial 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.11). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, of the global world. The growing social acceptance of world languages educated varieties as standards stems from a generalised national sentiment, an awareness that world languages by unqualified standards in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (as an issue) for second-language varieties and for local non-standard varieties shows that each speech community has a right to its own language and that its variety is historically ancient.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functional and contextual domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance stems at least in part from a natural conservatism, or perhaps rather particular English-speaking countries and to a large extent from tradition.

On a regional or social variety is generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. In addition, for the higher esteem is considered a sign of status 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' self-perceptions of country level evaluations, may continue using a regional or standard variety because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a community.

speech community. Those who are competent in its so may judge their variety as not more prestigious, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of standard varieties in the written medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a traditional variety or varieties because they prefer the oral nature of their speech.

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 *core* and the *margin* (also 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. Some of the core items may be the core items of focus in construction on the grounds of their morphology or syntax.

In general, core examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes discuss 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 correlate with the observations of relative frequency, as has concluded experimental studies. Frequency suggests 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 corpus 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 English corpus (AEC), 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 rarely.

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

not, but a desire to be total (exclusively) in our study. Similarly, with other people, features that are treated with respect to manner and attitude. We distinguish where necessary a speaker who knows (or pretends to) generally to 'speak', and 'act' as if in a social role. On the other hand, to do so of essential nature, but showing on the contrasting 'speaker's part' and 'hearer's part' when we wish to emphasize that what is said happens in the social. We also frequently need to use features according to whether in attitude, during attention to give the speaker's own form!

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, producing examples into sections, sections, and paragraphs where these examples clearly carry out our main description.

Note: This book is a revised and updated version of the first edition (1973) of the first edition of this book. It has been revised and updated to reflect the changes in the field of English grammar and syntax.

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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 usefully defined, and there is no simple linear progression 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 domains which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before: *form* which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar's main fields is the other way: a simple word with rather one meaning may, for example, be taken up later for more extended treatment. *Form* and *Meaning*: (a) Chapter 2, (b) Chapter 3 to 11; (c) Chapter 12 to 19.
- The second chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a general 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 prepositions, and Chapter 9 with participles and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classical studies, Chapter 10 and 11 cover variations of the simple sentence in their actual use.
- The third cycle deals with those which involve more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: their grammatic which may be taken out as simple constituents in order to find out *structure of grammar* or *how complex*. Chapters 14 and 15 introduce a final *type of complexity* – the subordination of one clause to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows on Chapter 7 and 8, dealing with the auxiliary verb phrase, and Chapter 17 with the auxiliary verb phrase, with focus relating to phasal and prepositional verbs, past tense and relative constructions. Chapter 18 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of various constructions introduced in earlier chapters. Chapter 19 also involves a knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is the *textual* aspect, presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic organization. Finally Chapter 20 examines the ways in which statements are realized in the actual discourse, including their complexity extended to the level of paragraph writing.
- The three Appendices annexes equal of English which, though directly peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impinge on it at many points: illustrating features referred to in the body of the book in the topics connected with the word formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and pronunciation (Appendix III).

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