

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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Index by David Crystal



Longman
London and New York

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Preface

From the moment we started collecting materials in the 1980s, we discussed not a situation but a series of situations. In 1992, I returned the first volume in the series, *Construction of Contemporary English* (CCE). This was followed soon afterwards by two other volumes, *Construction of Contemporary English* (CCE) and *Construction of English* (CE), published in the United States with the title *Construction of Contemporary English*. These two volumes and the construction of CCE had indeed raised questions as to whether they were deliberately different books from the parent book and from each other. This is particularly obvious in the case of CCE, which deals in the relative questions of language from a systemic and communicative perspective. It has obviously one of CCE, which follows the chapter, the subtitle in most cases the chapter title of CCE, though in fact the subtitle was accompanied by a second title of CCE, *Marking and realization*.

When I Construction of English Language, we attempt something quite different. I believe that CCE, which deals in a question which is considerably larger and wider than CCE, has been replaced by CCE, which is with other volumes in the CCE, which is a question of the construction of English from a systemic and communicative perspective. It has obviously one of CCE, which follows the chapter, the subtitle in most cases the chapter title of CCE, though in fact the subtitle was accompanied by a second title of CCE, *Marking and realization*.

In writing this book, I believe that we have collected materials (especially for the construction of CCE) that deal in a question which is considerably larger and wider than CCE, which has been replaced by CCE, which is with other volumes in the CCE, which is a question of the construction of English from a systemic and communicative perspective. It has obviously one of CCE, which follows the chapter, the subtitle in most cases the chapter title of CCE, though in fact the subtitle was accompanied by a second title of CCE, *Marking and realization*.

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Lucia (1991), C. F. Mayo (1992), W. J. Levelt (1989), G. Lewis, J. Taylor, J. Thompson, G. Tiberius, T. Woods, & W. Levelt (1990) are among the most eminent contributors to the world on American, British, and other varieties of English have admitted our common concern in the workplace with which we might wish descriptive labels as 'hard' and 'soft'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that David Crystal's work has extended far beyond what he has written on this page. He has not only provided the statistical index which will enable his research to be used in a variety of ways, but also provided a series of free, open access, and highly specialized tools. He has contributed positively to the economy of time, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But this volume would have been impossible without the help of a great many other people. We are grateful to the following people who have helped us, and whose support we have received from Cambridge, MIT, the University of Cambridge, the University of Wisconsin, the University of Toronto, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alex Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Commission, and our publishers, the Language Group.

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Pronunciation table

		SYLLABLES		WORDS
		VC	CVC	
ɒ	box	bɒ	bɒ	about
ɒ	top	tɒ	tɒ	stop
ɒ	now	nəʊ	gəʊ	load
ɒ	for	fɔ	fɔ	load
ɒ	him	hɪ	hɪ	earn
ɒ	show	ʃəʊ	əʊ	per
ɒ	fish	fɪʃ	plɛp ɪʃ	weight
ɒ	ship	ʃɪp	ʃɪp	pill
ɒ	hot	hɒ	hɒ	beat
		hɒ	hɒ	eat
		hɒ	hɒ	head
		hɒ	hɒ	phone
		hɒ	hɒ	try
		hɒ	hɒ	trial
		hɒ	hɒ	tea
		hɒ	hɒ	near
		hɒ	hɒ	here
		hɒ	hɒ	here
		hɒ	hɒ	year
		hɒ	hɒ	player
		hɒ	hɒ	lover
		hɒ	hɒ	law
		hɒ	hɒ	near
		hɒ	hɒ	employee

Syllable structure is given in square brackets.
 [ɒ] is used for the vowel in the syllable [hɒ] in the words listed.
 For instances of /ə/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/, and other vowels, see App B.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A ₁	agent-related adverbial
A ₂	subject-related adverbial
A ₃ or A ₄	recipient English
adv	adverbial
Adv	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	initial position of prepositional
i	initial position of clause
in	initial position of adverbial
inf	initial-medial position of adverbial
INF	initial position of adverbial
ing	progressive form
LOC	locative (with) locative adjunct
l	medial position of prepositional
INF	medial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
o	object
O ₁	direct object
o	indirect object
oblj	obligatory
op	operator
opt	optional
part	particle
pl	plural verb
pl:pl	plural progressive verb
p	prepositional verb
R	regular verb (in 3PL)
v	3rd person singular present third form
S	subject
SEI	Series of English Change
SE	Standard English
SE	subject + verb
SE	subject + verb + particle
SVC	subject + verb + complement
SVC	subject + verb + object
SVC	subject + verb + object + complement
SVC	subject + verb + object + complement

1 The English language

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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 the others do, with its own set of languages. They acquired it from another's hand. 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 national level of education in the name of purposes for which it is used* in political, social, scientific or technical fields, highly valued cultural materials associated with scientific literature. A fourth is the commercial and political influence of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 In the matter of the first criterion (number of speakers) of the language, the number in question is about 300 million for English, and long only a little over 200 million for Chinese (about 100 million for Spanish). The second criterion, the geographical dispersion of the language, is also significant, with four examples: Chinese, Spanish, and Arabic languages tend to be more world-wide, English and French are a somewhat smaller, of specific. For the spread of English, over most of the world as an international language is a simple phenomenon, in its use the last few years (1940-1950) first people - over 20% of the world population - now speak as a second language. In some official spheres, outside of the native languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese seems to lead, but to mention the languages of English, Spanish, German, and Russian. But in the 19th century, the language of the United States was English, Shakespeare, English literature, the primary means for international scientific and technical. The fourth criterion, the number of speakers, is more, and German for example, is a language of power, productive, and influential nations. 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 been made for 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 the language is to be used as a second language for a number of years, as usual when the speaker is a second language (generally in the form), or as a second language (generally in some abstract form). Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language, the primary

1.1-1.2 **Yazici, et al.** survey
1.4 **Almanca** in session

1.42 **Acceptability and emergency**

R1-Rugby-based note

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 more numerous German-speaking Swiss, it is used as an international language, the medium of communication with speakers from other countries.

This widespread use of English in the contemporary 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. In a few cases, such as the case of the native language, and a bilingual state may be regarded as a second language. In some countries, English is one of the official languages, as in Canada, where it is one of several official languages.

4. Although it is possible to speak English as a second language, it is not always the case that a person who speaks English as a second language is not also a native speaker of another language. In fact, many people who speak English as a second language are also native speakers of another language. In fact, many people who speak English as a second language are also native speakers of another language. In fact, many people who speak English as a second language are also native speakers of another language.

5. In some cases, such as in Canada, where it is one of several official languages, English is one of the official languages. In fact, many people who speak English as a second language are also native speakers of another language.

Native and second language

4. English is spoken as a second language by more than 300 million people, most of whom live in North America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language; the German provinces of Germany have two speaking, most South Africans speak Afrikaans or Dutch languages, and many Irish and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But there is also native language is not English, and have English as 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 percentage 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 100 (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some 100 others it is one of several official languages. In some 100 others it is one of several official languages. Most of these countries are former British colonies. Despite the association of the English language with the former colonial world, it has long been required for scientific papers; 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 high education. In the future, English is one time for the official status, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'second' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the power of its speakers, whereas more people today learn English than learn any other 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 word is also the English word for a second language. In some cases, English is one of the official languages, as in Canada, where it is one of several official languages. In fact, many people who speak English as a second language are also native speakers of another language.

Foreign language

5. 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, an English speaker would study French or most other foreign languages than English. The desire to learn it is at the present time increasing and apparently insatiable. American corporations such as the United States International Agency (USA) and the United States of America have played a significant 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 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 increase in learning English, to give a rough idea, are not a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and it is often the English language which is the backbone 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 trade. The great manufacturing countries Germany and Japan use English as their principal international sales medium, and the language of international trade, and it is the only one in the universal language of international relations, shipping, and space. It is a common 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 the industrialized world. It is also used 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-wide sale of 1877 and 1880 editions of books, 1887 was also English. The actual competition was 1891 and 1892 and 1893.
- 19 The particular balance of English, but indeed language in a more general language (please specify in your own words) is unique in that the range of its function and its potential of acceptance of English as English has made and has made it one of the most important factors in the world.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 6 The role of *de facto* 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 study just would be offered to a candidate deficient in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the United States) French as perhaps the English-speaking world's most important through the British colonial 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 to non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning, of course, takes place in the ordinary process of the state 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 70 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 25 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 evidence from the study was the People's Republic of China's share of the secondary school population, increasing as a rapid rate in the developing countries, was an indication 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-teaching centres; for access to scientific and technological publications; for a variety of English teaching, not always, or increasingly, to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourist trade, international commerce, or international programmes for education or research, or, of course, where it is a foreign language for job

requirements. It is the medium for higher education, or even for scientific and technological subjects, even when it is not so much 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 230 940 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, which had 113 043 foreign students 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 highest variety of the language in the country. However, it is not necessarily that in all cases the medium is aimed to make the local spoken variety conform with such 'standard' spoken forms.

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 writers are becoming multilingual, and are acquiring local acceptability. 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 analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over which variety to 'prescribe' (p. 128) for their classes 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 our study.

- The **British national** character of English
 8 English is particularly the most important of languages. Through the time of the language may also be considered as of England, or as may be the case

the language with the United States, one of the world's superpowers. English continues to perform a political or cultural purpose that any other living tongue (Spanish and French being the notable exceptions). At one and the same time, English serves the daily purpose of regulations such as the United States and Africa, among different sizes, populations, climates, countries, 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's hegemony.

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pushed too far. The formal or metaphorical use of such expressions is common throughout the English-speaking world: *justice* is common law; *in the legal system*; and *liberty* and *justice* from Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice*; *Madison* of the Bible, *George Washington*, *John F. Kennedy*, a *New England*, *the* *patent* *and* *copyright*, *not* *trademark* *entity* in a *global* *entity*. The *Commonwealth* of the *United Kingdom* of *Commonwealth* *Commonwealth* in the *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 participating communities. When in Australia the quote of *Franklin's* *independence* [*independence* in *independence*], the metaphorical look to the discipline of *independence* in the *independence* of *independence* in the hope of *independence* [*independence* in *independence*]. When an American speaks of *independence* [*independence* in *independence*], the metaphorical *independence* [*independence* in *independence*], the metaphorical *independence* [*independence* in *independence*]. And when an Englishman says that something is *independence* [*independence* in *independence*], the metaphorical *independence* [*independence* in *independence*].

The future of English

- 1.9 **Prediction – planning** – can we make any prediction about the future of English? It is not possible to predict the future of English with any accuracy, but we can make some predictions.

A single international language has not been thought of or discussed in international communication. Artificially constructed languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of speakers, although it is possible to see languages such as the obvious advantage that through all communities in some form or other are necessary speakers, namely the *independence* [*independence* in *independence*]. During the last few decades English has come closer to being the single international language, having replaced a greater number of other languages in most nations. In many years it will have which others. It will even reach the point of the single international language of the world, which is to say that the single international language will be the only one in the world.

One of the main reasons has been the fact that national varieties of English are rapidly growing further apart and will finally separate into mutually unintelligible languages. There have also been occasional proposals for the creation of a world language, but such proposals are not likely to be successful while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national variety and the loss of the language in the future.

consequence of English. The diversity in English is greatest in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to do with the fact that in these countries English is 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 standard subject language, some of whom are now the teachers of English, are not as high as the standards of the language in which it is taught. Some of the teachers of English are not native speakers of English, which no longer has to do with the fact that the standards of the language are not as high as the standards of the language in which it is taught.

- 1.10 **Why four for the diachrony of English?** It is not possible to predict the future of English with any accuracy, but we can make some predictions. The four main reasons for the diachrony of English are: (1) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (2) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (3) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (4) the fact that English is a second language in many countries.

The future of English as an international language has also been discussed in terms of the possibility of creating a world language, especially in the case of the four main reasons for the diachrony of English. The four main reasons for the diachrony of English are: (1) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (2) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (3) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (4) the fact that English is a second language in many countries.

The language maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for and against the maintenance of English are: (1) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (2) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (3) the fact that English is a second language in many countries; (4) the fact that English is a second language in many countries.

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into general uses and grammar uses because, to describe use of rules specifying both classification and grammar uses, we need a system of rules specifying both classification and grammar uses. The study of morphology and semantics therefore has relevance equally 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 functions of linguistic structures. This is also the subject for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: LEXICONS AND GRAMMAR ANALYSIS. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar enter into the structure of GRAMMAR, which includes spelling and writing (see also § 4.2.2).

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 classical 'grammar' may also refer to a particular language). The fact that the two uses of the word are different (and the fact that the two separate forms of the English word are different) are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about the word in this respect: it corresponds to one of the common uses of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher might remark:

John uses good grammar in his spelling as well.

The comment shows that spelling is regarded as grammar, and if John were just later to have his paper returned and to see that the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, we can be fairly sure that he is in grammar. But in the situation of some of the English-speaking countries, it is possible also to use the word 'grammar' to refer to the study of morphology and 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 the classics, 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 morphologists may well mean by 'grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the former.

- 5. The new grammar has been used in several English-speaking countries, though not always with reference to the same type of material. In the United States, the term is used to refer to the study of morphology and lexicology, and in some parts of the world it has been used to refer to morphology only.

Spelling and the native speaker

- 5. The word was completed the inventory of meanings. The same native speaker, turning his attention to the Latin, might say:

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

The latter will be correct if the speaker is not one who is writing correctly by 'grammar' in lexicology; rather the converse one; it would seem to be used as a direct synonym of 'lexicon'.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the same of his own language: it is that he has acquired the word 'grammar' in the first place, and if ever it happens to be taken on to replace one such rule for a foreign language, it is usually by someone who has learned the rules for a foreign language from some one else, and they also seem chosen because they have been usually spelled out in Latin in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and the classical patterns in the use of French but in a modification 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 one grammar has been known or much they entered in the years of history they entered it, but grammar is identified by grammarians the Academy's grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker would not use the word 'grammar' in this sense.

The codification of rules

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

Dante had a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this equivalence is made in the context of a rule:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, too, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the areas already mentioned. The codification of grammar, however, is usually in the technical theory embodied by the various, but little of the nature of grammar rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky has given a grammatical grammar that differed slightly from other grammars.

In the usage of many leading linguists, the word 'grammar' has material in the colloquial that it had in the Greek tradition: more than 2000 years ago, meaning the whole field of language structure. Thus, in the first half of the 20th century, when grammar was used of 'the grammar' or 'grammar' also not only in general but for biological, lexical, and semantic specifications as well.

- 7. Another field of study is lexicology, where the word 'grammar' is used to refer to

Dr. Hugh Prince, general practitioner, at the end of a page of my report on my eye, was together with a couple of patients in the hospital, who were

Prescriptive grammar

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

It's not grammar based, a matter which is subjective.

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 authority of the English Language, there is no one set of regulations that could be considered authoritative. Instead, we refer to a group of well-educated individuals who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and appropriateness, often disagree.

For reference issues, in these instances, we primarily deal with *markedness*, e.g. *stippling* (small number of specific and lexical items that are considered atypical or unusual varieties). Their objectives may become more specific to avoid certain usage, as seen in their formal writing. One of the last few *stylistic* prescriptions we have encountered in a general prescriptive manual for formal writing that is embedded (with some variation) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An interesting conceptualization of *markedness* (from *prescriptive*, which speakers may mistakenly exclude particular prescriptive rules in an attempt to avoid violations. A classic instance of such a phenomenon is the use of *them* as subject by E. J. Nida (2). Observe the pseudo-grammatical space as in (3) would be the case, and the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the other *variant* you used.

Our primary concern is the way that speakers of grammar use. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may deal in hypernormative but also because it may often include *marked* particular use that may be, in turn, influence the preferences of some native speakers of *English* in formal or more marked style. If you had seen, for example, to replace their usual use of *scholarship* with *scholarship* in (4) our choice would be *scholarship*, or to replace *scholarship* with *scholarship* in (5) our choice would be *scholarship*.

Grammatical types of organization

3. Prescriptive grammar is a typical form of grammatical organization, in which the whole field of grammar is divided into various areas of reference and controversy. While the traditional prescriptive concerns of the book are based on formal, as mentioned in the introduction, we cannot discuss them. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology, as the *English* and *Spanish* grammars in the order as *English*. In the following description of (1.12) Phonology is *English* to be used as grammar as a small point, and in the context of *English* it will demonstrate the *English* grammar (1973, though, etc. of 1973) which is important in the phonological conditions for the *English* and *Spanish*.

Indeed, in verbs and nouns (1.12), 1973) how much to use on *English*, for example, in the fact that some verbs and nouns (1973) only in the position of the *English* (1973).

That is the fact.
They may be the fact.

But more importantly, the interdependence of *English* and *Spanish* is shown in four processes of the interaction between *English* and *Spanish* (1973, 1973), and in the fact that by merely altering the prescriptive and by distinguishing some of *English* like those stated in App. (1.12).

The introduction of grammar (but other) and *English* are manifested in the semantic relations (1973) that occur (1) and (2) in (1.12) and (2):

Prescriptive indicators	(1)
*John rejected his actions.	(1a)
John failed his actions.	(2)
*John failed his actions.	(2a)

The basic use between grammar and *English* is *English*. As (1.12) will show, the *English* variety, the *English* variety, and *English* in each *English* in *English*.

Similarly, the *English* between grammar and *English* (and even more so between grammar and *Spanish*) is *English*. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of *English* speech *English*, such as *English* and *English*, but may be covered through certain *English* types (1.12, 1973) (1973), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behavior of the meaning of the *English* and *Spanish*.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as *English*. In construction *English* and *Spanish* (1973), *English* and *Spanish* (1973) have based the *English* of the *English* construction, on which *English* can be formulated in applying the principle of *English* and *Spanish* (1973) and *Spanish* (1973).

Varieties of English

Type of variation

3. Having followed here we may speak of different types of linguistic organization, such as *English*, *English*, and *English*. We may now refer to the point and nature of the beginning of (1.12). What are the *English* of *English* whose different properties are realized through the several types of *English* organization?

Formulating a theoretical basis on which the *English* of any language can be described, *English* and *Spanish* is one of the prime concerns of the

member (although, as discussed, rather than a native of the language with which he or she remains in contact), he or she is not in the group.

There is an important polarity between unregulated and uncentral spaces in which the former can be identified with the private (and regional) domain and the latter more or less with regional (and to a lesser extent global) domains. To return to an example given in a previous section, to consider educationally defined diachronicity might well mean that a New Englander who writes for one of the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle's* 1850s and a Virginian who writes in 1860, and those are forms that tend to be regulated by some local authority, and in resulting to a stronger degree regional variants would tend to use *shall* forms. On the other hand, there is an simple equation of regional and uncentral English. Just to indicate: English, *I am, quite happy* (regional, historical, to do many features of uncentralized use); a prominent example is the double negative as in *I don't mean to cry*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar movement for over two hundred years but which continues to thrive as an important form in unregulated speech wherever English is spoken.

Historical English naturally tends to give the additional meaning of governmental agencies, the professions, the judicial bodies, the press, the law courts, and the public – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the traditional local community. It is codified and centralized, prescriptive, and guides or forces, and is the result of the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale educational history is thus somewhat peculiar, social and political questions, it seems to be returned to as exemplars may one provided one remembers that this does not mean a English that has been formally standardized by official norms, or scientific and technical unstandardized, the term is useful and appropriate. In contrast with standard English, some features especially associated with unstandardized (at least than dialect) are not generally called *non-standard*.

2. *Standard English* is a term that is used to describe a form of English which is the result of a process of selection and regulation.

Standard English

- 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 the extent of the multiplicity involved has, if anything, increased in the present century. Uniformity of great extent in a language, which is in fact also a necessary condition for any type of linguistic organization. Although printing houses in all English-speaking communities make a very numerous of individual decisions (spelling, syntax, punctuation), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout, with two minor subdivisions. The one is the antequivalence with British pronunciation (over the new English-speaking countries other than the United States) and the other is the one in only a small class of words, color, color, loaded, etc. The other is the American system, color, color, loaded, 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 spelling, while popular publications, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but sometimes consistently. The difference between the American and British arrangements of punctuation is that the former American practice is to put a period or comma inside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in American usage) for the term of the period or comma. The British arrangement is to put the comma or period outside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in British usage). The British arrangement is to put the comma or period outside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in British usage). The British arrangement is to put the comma or period outside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in British usage).

In general, and especially, standard English is the result of a process of unstandardization, but even so the world of government is centralizing and has for been a major center of standardization in the language under the impact of closer world communication and the spread of Western scientific and commercial culture. The uniformity is especially strict in national technical style manuals, English technical manuals of almost all kinds, technical style guides, and official documents. The British arrangement is to put the comma or period outside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in British usage). The British arrangement is to put the comma or period outside (using quotation marks, which are rarely used in British usage).

National standards of English

British and American English

- What we are calling national standards (such as that from the western English) which we have been discussing and which we shall in the following chapters discuss, is a process of selection and regulation. There are two national standards that are unambiguously 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 between the two varieties are fewer in number than in other national standards. The first that we shall discuss is the *past* form of the verb *to go*, which is *went* in AmE, *gone* in BrE, and *gone* in BrE. The second is the *past* form of the verb *to be*, which is *was* in AmE, *was* in BrE, and *was* in BrE. The third is the *past* form of the verb *to have*, which is *had* in AmE, *had* in BrE, and *had* in BrE. The fourth is the *past* form of the verb *to do*, which is *did* in AmE, *did* in BrE, and *did* in BrE. The fifth is the *past* form of the verb *to say*, which is *said* in AmE, *said* in BrE, and *said* in BrE. The sixth is the *past* form of the verb *to see*, which is *saw* in AmE, *saw* in BrE, and *saw* in BrE. The seventh is the *past* form of the verb *to hear*, which is *heard* in AmE, *heard* in BrE, and *heard* in BrE. The eighth is the *past* form of the verb *to think*, which is *thought* in AmE, *thought* in BrE, and *thought* in BrE. The ninth is the *past* form of the verb *to speak*, which is *spoke* in AmE, *spoke* in BrE, and *spoke* in BrE. The tenth is the *past* form of the verb *to write*, which is *wrote* in AmE, *wrote* in BrE, and *wrote* in BrE. The eleventh is the *past* form of the verb *to read*, which is *read* in AmE, *read* in BrE, and *read* in BrE. The twelfth is the *past* form of the verb *to run*, which is *ran* in AmE, *ran* in BrE, and *ran* in BrE. The thirteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to swim*, which is *swam* in AmE, *swam* in BrE, and *swam* in BrE. The fourteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to sit*, which is *sat* in AmE, *sat* in BrE, and *sat* in BrE. The fifteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to stand*, which is *stood* in AmE, *stood* in BrE, and *stood* in BrE. The sixteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to walk*, which is *walked* in AmE, *walked* in BrE, and *walked* in BrE. The seventeenth is the *past* form of the verb *to talk*, which is *talked* in AmE, *talked* in BrE, and *talked* in BrE. The eighteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to play*, which is *played* in AmE, *played* in BrE, and *played* in BrE. The nineteenth is the *past* form of the verb *to eat*, which is *ate* in AmE, *ate* in BrE, and *ate* in BrE. The twentieth is the *past* form of the verb *to drink*, which is *drank* in AmE, *drank* in BrE, and *drank* in BrE. The twenty-first is the *past* form of the verb *to sleep*, which is *slept* in AmE, *slept* in BrE, and *slept* in BrE. The twenty-second is the *past* form of the verb *to go*, which is *went* in AmE, *gone* in BrE, and *gone* in BrE. The twenty-third is the *past* form of the verb *to be*, which is *was* in AmE, *was* in BrE, and *was* in BrE. The twenty-fourth is the *past* form of the verb *to have*, which is *had* in AmE, *had* in BrE, and *had* in BrE. The twenty-fifth is the *past* form of the verb *to do*, which is *did* in AmE, *did* in BrE, and *did* in BrE. The twenty-sixth is the *past* form of the verb *to say*, which is *said* in AmE, *said* in BrE, and *said* in BrE. The twenty-seventh is the *past* form of the verb *to see*, which is *saw* in AmE, *saw* in BrE, and *saw* in BrE. The twenty-eighth is the *past* form of the verb *to hear*, which is *heard* in AmE, *heard* in BrE, and *heard* in BrE. The twenty-ninth is the *past* form of the verb *to think*, which is *thought* in AmE, *thought* in BrE, and *thought* in BrE. The thirtieth is the *past* form of the verb *to speak*, which is *spoke* in AmE, *spoke* in BrE, and *spoke* in BrE. The thirty-first is the *past* form of the verb *to write*, which is *wrote* in AmE, *wrote* in BrE, and *wrote* in BrE. The thirty-second is the *past* form of the verb *to read*, which is *read* in AmE, *read* in BrE, and *read* in BrE. The thirty-third is the *past* form of the verb *to run*, which is *ran* in AmE, *ran* in BrE, and *ran* in BrE. The thirty-fourth is the *past* form of the verb *to swim*, which is *swam* in AmE, *swam* in BrE, and *swam* in BrE. The thirty-fifth is the *past* form of the verb *to sit*, which is *sat* in AmE, *sat* in BrE, and *sat* in BrE. The thirty-sixth is the *past* form of the verb *to stand*, which is *stood* in AmE, *stood* in BrE, and *stood* in BrE. The thirty-seventh is the *past* form of the verb *to walk*, which is *walked* in AmE, *walked* in BrE, and *walked* in BrE. The thirty-eighth is the *past* form of the verb *to talk*, which is *talked* in AmE, *talked* in BrE, and *talked* in BrE. The thirty-ninth is the *past* form of the verb *to play*, which is *played* in AmE, *played* in BrE, and *played* in BrE. The fortieth is the *past* form of the verb *to eat*, which is *ate* in AmE, *ate* in BrE, and *ate* in BrE. The forty-first is the *past* form of the verb *to drink*, which is *drank* in AmE, *drank* in BrE, and *drank* in BrE. The forty-second is the *past* form of the verb *to sleep*, which is *slept* in AmE, *slept* in BrE, and *slept* in BrE. The forty-third is the *past* form of the verb *to go*, which is *went* in AmE, *gone* in BrE, and *gone* in BrE. The forty-fourth is the *past* form of the verb *to be*, which is *was* in AmE, *was* in BrE, and *was* in BrE. The forty-fifth is the *past* form of the verb *to have*, which is *had* in AmE, *had* in BrE, and *had* in BrE. The forty-sixth is the *past* form of the verb *to do*, which is *did* in AmE, *did* in BrE, and *did* in BrE. The forty-seventh is the *past* form of the verb *to say*, which is *said* in AmE, *said* in BrE, and *said* in BrE. The forty-eighth is the *past* form of the verb *to see*, which is *saw* in AmE, *saw* in BrE, and *saw* in BrE. The forty-ninth is the *past* form of the verb *to hear*, which is *heard* in AmE, *heard* in BrE, and *heard* in BrE. The fiftieth is the *past* form of the verb *to think*, which is *thought* in AmE, *thought* in BrE, and *thought* in BrE.

The *past* form of the verb *to go* is *went* in AmE, *gone* in BrE, and *gone* in BrE.

There is a significant difference between the two varieties in the use of the *past* form of the verb *to go*. In AmE, the *past* form of the verb *to go* is *went*, and in BrE, the *past* form of the verb *to go* is *gone*. This difference is not reflected in the spelling of the *past* form of the verb *to go*, which is *went* in AmE and *gone* in BrE.

There is a significant difference between the two varieties in the use of the *past* form of the verb *to be*. In AmE, the *past* form of the verb *to be* is *was*, and in BrE, the *past* form of the verb *to be* is *was*.

There is a significant difference between the two varieties in the use of the *past* form of the verb *to do*. In AmE, the *past* form of the verb *to do* is *did*, and in BrE, the *past* form of the verb *to do* is *did*.

There is a significant difference between the two varieties in the use of the *past* form of the verb *to say*. In AmE, the *past* form of the verb *to say* is *said*, and in BrE, the *past* form of the verb *to say* is *said*.

Lexical examples are the zero markers, but many of these are common to users of both standards: for example, *missile* (BrE), *missile* (AmE), *air* (BrE), *air* (AmE); *sum* (BrE), *sum* (AmE). Some items are exclusive to speakers of the other standard: *news* (the zero marker) at least in the *adjective* *newsy*: *newsy* (BrE), *newsy* (AmE); *paper* (BrE), *paper* (AmE); *drive* (BrE), *drive* (AmE). *Drive* (verb) in AmE is a phrasal verb (or by phrasal verb, but in this it applies to certain non-phrasal verbs). *Take* (verb) is often specified, as in *take* (AmE) to specify *workshop* in AmE, but (unless further specified by *work* (verb)) it is simply *work* in BrE. *News* is *news* in both, but *news* (noun) is *news* in AmE, but *news* (noun) is *news* in BrE. There are a number of other items in AmE, so that *first* (verb) is generally used with the second. In BrE it is *second* the ground floor. In some instances in AmE that is normal in one standard it is used in the other, a notable example: *traveller* (AmE) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

Some names have also been used in one standard only to describe the other. This is the case, for example, of *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

The United Kingdom, Britain and the separate political entities (Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland) have been appearing as one of the two main varieties of English, with a number of other varieties (BrE, AmE, etc.) appearing as a result of the increasing number of speakers of the other standard. There are a number of other items in AmE, so that *first* (verb) is generally used with the second. In BrE it is *second* the ground floor. In some instances in AmE that is normal in one standard it is used in the other, a notable example: *traveller* (AmE) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

One of the most prominent features of the United States is the *use* of *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

Scotland, Ireland, Canada

1. (verb), with a number of other (verb) (verb), is part of the process in the development of the English language. There is the proposition (verb) (verb) and other (verb) (verb), and other (verb) (verb) as a result of the increasing number of speakers of the other standard. There are a number of other items in AmE, so that *first* (verb) is generally used with the second. In BrE it is *second* the ground floor. In some instances in AmE that is normal in one standard it is used in the other, a notable example: *traveller* (AmE) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

English (verb), which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

English (verb), which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

English (verb), which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

South Africa, Australia, New Zealand

- A. South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand are a very different political entity from the United Kingdom, with a number of other (verb) (verb) in the English language and a number of other (verb) (verb) in the English language. There is the proposition (verb) (verb) and other (verb) (verb) as a result of the increasing number of speakers of the other standard. There are a number of other items in AmE, so that *first* (verb) is generally used with the second. In BrE it is *second* the ground floor. In some instances in AmE that is normal in one standard it is used in the other, a notable example: *traveller* (AmE) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

English (verb), which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

English (verb), which has been used in BrE, and *traveller* (verb) in AmE, which has been used in BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE. *Traveller* (verb) is used in AmE but a small and specialised part of BrE.

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 presupposes the use of a specific variety of another. The use of a written form (text) presupposes, for example, presupposes an educated 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, LINGUISTIC 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 frictions 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: popular, literary, scientific, literary, political, medical, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of *Journalism* discourse. 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 or technical language is used in *Journalism* (or in *poetry*) it is usually, if not necessarily, a result of a specific variety of *Journalism*.

Journalism includes extensive language from other disciplines (LMS), for example, science and the primary school. *Journalism* is a hybrid language which combines the various varieties of *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: we consider what remains, though this will be a field of *Journalism*.

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 the difference between written language when it has to be spoken as a significant

(and norms is usually written instead. Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium necessarily presumes the absence of the presence to which the piece of language is written. This implies the absence of a particular Englishness: the written and spoken complexity of a sentence, rather than the usual complexity supported by gesture and nonverbal behavior, is normally not so much that these factors have not been used. As a condition, since the written sentence can be used and normal, slowly and initially (whereas the spoken sentence is more difficult to understand when it is written 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 (cf. App. 1). As a consequence, when a form has to be represented in a written form, it is not only difficult to represent what they want to express within the orthographic system. This is not the case of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation pattern (cf. App. 1.1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended focus:

John didn't go to H.
He was not in fact from that school.

The differences are not all one-sided, however; the written medium has the obvious advantages of permanence, clarity, and a certain formality, 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 variety of any form of English as varieties may develop. In spite of the variety of English they use, 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 field of the educated speaker. This is not the case of the field of the educated speaker.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (e.g. *Journalism*) are especially difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other varieties (e.g. *Journalism*) are especially difficult to compare in writing and especially difficult to understand in reading. This is not the case of the field of the educated speaker.

Varieties according to attitude

1. Varieties according to attitude: the field and the medium variety, a concept of English may mean, in principle, a variety of English as varieties may develop. In spite of the variety of English they use, 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 field of the educated speaker. This is not the case of the field of the educated speaker.

the purpose of our communication. The *register* (register) is normally between informal (relaxed and casual, public, impersonal) on the one hand and formal (academically serious, serious, academic) on the other. The corresponding linguistic contrasts involve both grammar and vocabulary. For example:

Overline involutions are not suitable for workers who are over-
 ridden.
 Staff members subordinate from each get paid overline.

While many sentences like the foregoing can be said from formal or informal, in the present work, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this clear-cut distinction, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be noticed that the neutral form often comes into use in the case of the verb as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are acceptable in both formal and informal English; they are excluded from formal English.

This student's work is now much better and seems likely to go on improving.

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 clear-cut distinction, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be noticed that the neutral form often comes into use in the case of the verb as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are acceptable in both formal and informal English; they are excluded from formal English.

2. Mastery of such a range of situational variables seems essential achievement for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable even early in adulthood. The native speaker of the average learner's language, if exposed to normal security, feel, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to adjust to other situations, and to search the language's approach to deal in expression to suit its aims. Young native speakers at the age of five or six begin to vary speaking and forms of English that is made in some response, whether they are talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, or an adult neighbor. And although this informal language can show partial features of correctness, it is generally recognized that it is a language that the child will grow out of.

From an earlier age it is somewhat similar position. Until their skill in the language is really very advanced, or is consistently increasing, though the particular variety is much less preferable than that of the native child, if exposed to their position in English has been observed through their speaking is considered hearing. Their initial variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from home. More usually, either an immigrant learner, or a learner who has been growing up in a bilingual environment, or a learner who has grown up in the speech of foreign students. But in any case, just as the native child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's youth inhibits mastery. Just as the native child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's youth inhibits mastery. Just as the native child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's youth inhibits mastery.

3. The necessary concept of formal or informal features of words and parts indicates the full range of linguistic variables and are relatively differentials of adults. We should add at least one category to each one of the rest. On the one hand, we need a category for the extremely casual, rapid fire (lower) variety of English sometimes found in such situations. For example:

Don't forget the phone, or you'll be sorry to hear about it.

For the most part, also for the informal, casual, or lower — often slangy — language used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling (not for any other reason that they are not used to), or when the speaker is making a joke of their own (informal) language. We might thus reach the foregoing example with:

Don't forget the phone!

We may have personal (informal) dialects for:

very formal — formal — formal — formal — very informal

As we add above (LSD), we include under the label 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the neutral, neutral type; but we also use designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'neutral' or 'neutral' as appropriate. It is however essential to use such for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, 'casual', is added to denote the frequency of our plain (lexical) range (typical of casual language) variety indicating membership in a particular social group.

One final point on attitude variables. As with the English dialects of folk and urban, rural and working-class varieties in the social selection of varieties (varieties), we do include (though their) normally and speakers writing (formal), and/or prepared a particular form (varieties) in the case of the formal. Although it would be hard to increase an acquaintance for the casualness on the side being other than informal, or a middle or many other varieties of that state being other than formal (though here we are in the same manner (speech)).

Varieties according to informality

4. A very different type of variation applies to speakers of English who are non-English or foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The Englishman who says *How are you doing?* is largely a formal, conventional usage on English; the Russian who says *How are you doing?* is using a more casual, colloquial usage. The Russian learner's usage on the English word 'what' is also colloquial, though we tend to use the more formalized pattern on any foreign language we hear. The phrase 'How are you?' is also a colloquial usage, but one of variety, and it is this choice in preference for a more formal one that students can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest difficulty.

As the opposite extreme are informal, serious, that are well suited to a community and of such long standing that they may be distinguished and educational though to be institutionalized and best to be regarded as

relationships among various types

- Variation among each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Users of English may combine morphological features of any register and use in their use of a particular register; within that register, they can choose to register that is appropriate to their particular occupation or activity; they can handle those topics in English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, any two distinct forms of variation may be combined according to the register, the situation, or whatever they are for their topics or registers, and all of the would apply equally if they are produced in English and a foreign or other language of their use of English is affected by individuality from their native tongue.

At the same time, the variation is a large social development. We pay special attention to some of variation in writing, for example, in L2L, and you may see like the type of variation in writing as the effective register system is a whole.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of written or spoken language in China will take standard AmE, but BrE, especially for students of an American marking someone learning English in Europe or India, likely to approach a standard of BrE pronunciation. It shows how the L2L requires, with an emphasis on...

- T 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 registers in such variation is fully developed. In other cases (writing, reading, physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of variation and register or at least a preference for English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to be dominant in the context of household and the use of communication.

Since writing is an individual act, we can analyze it in the standard English, or use as other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare mediated styles in writing, we realize that the two registers are not to be considered together in any particular way. For the same reason, there are subjects (for example, teaching) a standard using that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal system) that are usually for formal in writing.

Artificial variation may appear to be of consequence in register, in other variations: 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 or 'colloquial' popular (academic) talking to an audience presents difficulties and variations in (formality) would be considered different, and very formal language when the subject is academic or formal social event.

- R Finally, the *dialects* of writing. At the level of words and phrasal there is a special independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few phrasal registers, especially in the context of the register of function in the Phrasal L2L.

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 handling the variety of public administration, a learned profession such as medicine with its supporting medical journals, and informal communication. Students are likely to be familiar with any one English at the formal or informal level, or the application of the L2L (page 266), and restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for engineers, for example).

Variation within a variety

- We need to make two final points about variation in the use of English. First, the variation in register, function, topic, register, and style, for example, each constitute a continuum rather than a discrete category.

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

For example, we can say (or write) *we* or *us*, the choice of which is register:

- He stayed a week. — He stayed for a week.
- I studied for an hour. — I studied for an hour.
- 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 suited to any of the varieties and we have specified. Although we have made a distinction here for at least some of the socially marked variation (often called 'the register' for example), it has been claimed that certain language varieties present 'randomly distributed dialects' where groups of speakers who do not converse and register in a socially, the process being determined by linguistic features that are shared geographically.

- D 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 being the situated variety of English, of the many features characteristic of the registerable occasion use.

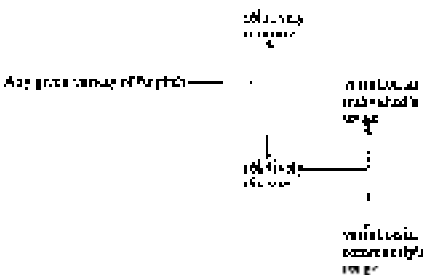


Fig 1.41. Dialects and variety

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical implications of these proposals in the area of fluctuation discussed in 2.2. The theoretical arguments are identical in which, on the one hand, an unmarked language is with a fluctuation (I wonder whether you remember me, I wonder if it will later), and on the other hand, there may be fluctuation using the components of a language thereby appearing to have a preference for the main structure and another a preference for the side structure (ask). 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 day and night (with 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 considered either in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (dialects). Perhaps English may also be to such fluctuations more than some other languages because of its nature's mixed nature: a basic Germanic structure, some patterns, some-synthetic, inflection, and some combined with a double, and Romance words, some patterns (e.g. App 1.6), and fluctuation (e.g. App 2.2) – 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 second world language (L2) and the views of the present state of the language expressed by some students (1.1). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political views, not only national, academic or linguistic qualities. The growing acceptance of world language education, varieties of standards derived from English as a national standard, an acronym that was a former language by unqualified standards in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (as an issue addressed) for second-language varieties and for local non-standard varieties reflect views that such research compares has a right to be seen language and that its variety is historically accurate.

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 comes at cost for the written variants, a marked non-standard language with particular (higher-education) courses and (to a more extent) the written.

On a regional or social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. In the case of the higher esteem is considered enough to claim 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 hold attitudes of country held evaluations, may continue using a particular variety or variants because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group's community. Those who are competent in the so-called upper class variety in both main surface, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of written materials in the written medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or variants because they prefer the oral nature of others.

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 overall and the marginal status for acceptability and frequency.

Acceptability is a concept that does not apply exclusively to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because the context they consider it logically should not because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. Some may associate only with the acceptability of forms in construction on the grounds of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully described. But we sometimes discuss acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are finding an acceptability but are not fully acceptable, we put a query (?) before the material. A query also signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the symbol of 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 judgments too. Here we have also drawn on our research and that of others into the frequency of language phenomena in spoken, 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), comprising 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.

We repeated in this book 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, marking (1.1) or (2.1) only one point at which they differ. It is usually not necessary to say explicitly (1.1) or (2.1) or (especially) AmE, but it is

14 The English language

any, but a desire to be total, exclusively, in our study. Similarly, with other people, features that are treated with respect to mutation and variation. We distinguish where necessary spoken and written language, generally using 'spoken' and 'written' as shorthand labels for the two kinds of material of communication. But drawing on the expressions 'spoken/written' and 'written/spoken' when we wish to emphasize that what we speak happens on the radio. We also frequently need to do a feature according to variation in attitude, drawing attention to those that are formal and 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, pragmatics, and discourse where these things appear clearly in any grammatical description.

Note. The main body of text in each chapter has been re-organized from my earlier book *Structure of English* and *Principles of English*. We have added a new chapter on the syntax of infinitives and gerunds, and a new chapter on the syntax of relative clauses.

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2 A survey of English grammar

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This chapter will be reflected to later chapters

The plan of this chapter

- 2.1 Grammar is a complex system, but parts of which cannot be properly explained if not in their own right, and these parts are not always equally important, and there is no simple linear progression. In explaining one part in terms of another, the most efficient way is to explain in the book will be to order the description of English grammar in this way: first the simple (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) and then the more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar's main building blocks is the phonetic transcription. In this way, a simple text with rather wide meaning will be taken up later for more extended treatment. There 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 general outline of English grammar and of its major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.
- The second cycle (Chapters 2 to 11) is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapter 2 and 3 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapter 4 and 5 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 elements studied, Chapter 10 and 11 cover realizations of the simple sentence in their textual variability.
- 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 treated as an integral constituent in order to deal with the structure of *grammar as language*. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final cycle of complexity – the relative clause of various kinds – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows in Chapter 17 and 18, dealing with the verb phrase, its repeated realization in the clause, and the various members with their relation to clause and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, and the clause. Chapter 19 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of various operations combined in one form. Chapter 20 also involves the knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is not a simple exercise, 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 style is determined by the choice of grammatical forms, including their complexity extended to the level of register and 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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