

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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Index by David Crystal



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

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

But this *Textbook* would not be here to support the work of so many a multitude of the grammarians, lexicographers, and others, and above the support they are owed from Cambridge, Wiley, Oxford, the University of Cambridge, the University of Wisconsin, the publishers, the various research and writing projects: the American Council on Education, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Commission, and our publishers, the Longman Group.

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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 other languages do. The languages they acquired in their mother's knee. But there are more 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 institutions concerned in the name of purposes for which it is used* In particular, the latter criteria is the standard for highly valued cultural materials associated with a national identity. A fourth is the conventional political importance of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 If we measure the first criterion in terms of speakers of the language, the number in question is about 300 million for English, and long short only will be Chinese (about 500 million). Also Chinese has a number of speakers. The second criterion, the geographical dispersion of the language, is also significant, with four examples: Chinese, Hindi, and Arabic. The third criterion, the number of speakers, is also significant, with four examples: Chinese, Hindi, Arabic, and English. For the spread of English, over most of the world as an international language is a unique phenomenon. In the world's largest state, 140 million first people – over a third of the world's population – still speak as their first language some other official language. But of the other languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great numbers of the Chinese speak English. For the number of the languages of English, Spanish, German, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the United States, English is Shakespearean. English is also the primary medium for the transmission of science and technology. The fourth criterion, the number of speakers, is also significant for various languages of power, productivity, and influence matters. But English is the language of the United States, whose population in 1960 was over 100 million. It is the most important language in 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. It always is political, economic, and demographic.

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 writer to be used as a second language. The reason is a very clear, (generally in the form), or as a second language. It is used as a second language. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language. The primary

1.1-1.2 Vocabulary survey
1.4-1.5 Attitudes in writing

1.12 Acceptability and emergency

R1-English based notes

languages of the spoken and of the written language. In some countries (especially in those where it is the dominant native language), English is used, particularly for internal purposes, as an international language; for example, in the United States, it is used by the speakers of the other country to allow business chiefly as an international language, the medium of communication with people from other countries.

This will be illustrated by referring more extensively to 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) academic, for educational activities, such as lecture and printed works.

3. It is a language which has been used for the native language, and a foreign one may be spoken as a second language. In some countries, English is one of the most widely spoken languages, and it is used for international communication.

4. Although it is not a native language, it is used for international communication, and it is used 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) academic, for educational activities, such as lecture and printed works.

5. In some countries, it is used for the native language, and a foreign one may be spoken as a second language. In some countries, English is one of the most widely spoken languages, and it is used for international communication.

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 African 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 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 100 (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some 100 others (such as India) it is one of the official languages 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 papers; whereas the native languages (e.g. French, Spanish, Russian) are a second language that is politically important, 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 (including the former Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for higher education. In the former, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'second' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the influx of immigrants, whereas more people today learn English than learn any 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 language is used for the native language, and a foreign one may be spoken as a second language. In some countries, English is one of the most widely spoken languages, and it is used for international communication.

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 or narrow fields of newspapers, engineering, etc. English is a foreign language for many people in most of the world. For example, in the United States it is used for international communication, and it is used 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) academic, for educational activities, such as lecture and printed works.

We shall look more closely at the next section at the third and fourth stages of development, but the reasons for the changes are very clearly seen. To get a picture, they are a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and it is often the language of the world of the highest of good jobs is needed. 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 second language, despite the common language of science and public communication, but the English language of the world is the most frequently used language both in the industrialized world, and in the developing world of 100 billion people.

- 18 In some contexts it is considered appropriate to distinguish the role played by the number of hours of study of English lessons. In 1975, an official world-wide study of 200 schools of boys, 15–17 years old, taught English. The actual comparisons were made in 1976 and 1977.
- 19 The particular balance of English, its related language or form or other language (please specify) is a concern which is unique to most of the range of its function and is peculiar to the acceptance of English as a (1) first language and (2) second language. See their manual for more details of the study.

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 (in the United States) Spanish in 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 demanded, no doubt that would be offset to a considerable extent in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the living school in French or perhaps the English-speaking school organised through the British Council in Canada and other non-English-speaking countries. In the countries of the West, there are also considerable commercial organisations that teach English or all levels and to all ages, both to non-English-speaking communities in English-speaking countries. Most language teaching, of course, takes place in the ordinary system of the national 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 in English classes 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 (50 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 contrast 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), so it is expected 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 ability to English teachers, researchers, or inspectors; to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourism trade, international commerce, or international organisations. An additional or ancillary role of courses where it is a foreign language is to give

it a secondary role 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 230 940 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, of 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22 148 in Canada (where English is the medium of instruction in all institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (49 046) with 11 3043 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, for teachers may attempt 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 writers are becoming multilingual and are acquiring varied 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 analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over dialect usage in 'prestige' or 'general' varieties 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 general varieties of non-English countries such as Australia, in regions where there is the special influence of those countries.

- 2 Considerable attention is given to the study of the English language in many countries, but the results are mixed. The results are mixed in many countries.

The British national character of English

- 8 English is prevalent in the most important of languages. Through the force of the language may also be said to be of England, or to be of the United States.

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 former on a more or less as the United Kingdom, as well as the widely scattered Commonwealth partners, themselves at different times each other as they are from Britain herself.

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pushed too far. The formal or metaphorical use of such expressions as *common law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal system; and although their quotation from Shakespeare, the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, George Eliot's *Silas Marner*, a one-volume, a *Novel* entitled, by a post-war – warlike or not – simile evoking to a shared culture. The *Common Law* has its roots in the history of common law 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 English-speaking communities. When an Australian quote of *Swainson's* (a bird) is used in a sentence, the metaphorical link to the distinctive activity of searching the dipping of swainson also is the link of doing what that has been noted. When an American quote is not given to find her (his) as a source of an initial source, the metaphor contains an explicit reference to the source of the word. And when an Englishman says that something is a *well-known fact*, the reference is also to a quote that is by no means unknown in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – a theory** – can see much about the future of English. It is a theory of the future of the language, based on the current state of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as the best or most convenient compromise. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although in principle both languages have the obvious advantages that through all corners of the world, including all the necessary speakers, thereby the global or universal to everyone of the world's languages. During the last few decades English has come closer to being the single international language, having satisfied a greater work force than any other language in recorded times. In many years decades have which which. It will even reach the day of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not as an international language will continue to be present.

One theory for the future has been the idea 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 inevitably, the world's first to use the world's first language, and secondly or thirdly while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national member distinct and free in the future.

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

- 1.10 While fears for the disintegration of English cannot be over-stated, it is possible to see some ways in which the unity of the language. Despite considerable regional differences with a few national varieties, the standard systems have preserved the essential stability of the common standards. The widespread English system generally ignores both the change in pronunciation and the change in pronunciation through space, despite its regional variation, it is a unifying force in world English. Many factors are contributing to making all systems in various varieties from the post-colonial world. But a clear language of respect, respect, and love of the common medium and of code, integrity, and fire in the western world. Teachers and students can be made available to, and to be used, 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 small scale, 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 raise the levels of local and global proficiency. A lot of work has been done to reduce the cost of language learning, thereby allowing a more realistic deployment of educational resources in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for language of reference communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely based on a proposal to also recently been made for a simplified English (the *Basic English*), the *Basic English* (the *Basic English*) that was to be a subset of the features of standard English, for example, *Basic English* and *Basic English* would be used by a wide range of people in the world and be used in. The simplified form would be intended 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 standardization conflict with the movements for the establishment of national or regional varieties. The arguments for the establishment of national or regional varieties for the replacement by native languages are the movements of national pride and the movements. Since a great amount of English is usually preferred to an other way, the support of the movements for a national

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into *linguistic units* and *grammar components* to describe an of rules specifying both construction and meaning relations in the linguistic system are the business of *descriptive*, the study of structure and *descriptive grammar* for reference equally within lexicology and within grammar. Finally, the function of linguistic operations when viewed within particular types of situation is also within lexicology, which is concerned with the communicative function of linguistic structures. The words are supplied for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *LANGUAGE ACQUISITION* and *GRAMMAR ANALYSIS*. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar were into the structure of *TEXT*, which *GRAMMAR SPEAK* and *WRITER* *AND READER* (cf. Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Source and function

- 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 verb and that aspect of grammarian (the learned or learned) which they do not imply (see *GRAMMARIAN*). The fact that the two uses of the word are different (inflection) and the fact that the two separate forms of the English are *OLD ENGLISH* (syntax) and *NEW ENGLISH* (syntax) are 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 may comment:

John uses good grammar but his spelling is awful.

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

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

This meaning of 'grammar' has continued to be used by lexicographers. In effect, *grammar* is identified with *inflection*, so that *morphology* may well mean 'grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the former.

- 5. The word *grammar* has been used in a second English-speaking context. English language was introduced into the area of the Mediterranean basin in the 16th century and an author on the subject of 1710 said that the first grammar was written by a man from that district (see *THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE*, p. 101).

Rule and the native speaker

- 5. The 17th century completed the history of meanings. The learned lexicographer, turning his attention from Latin, says something like:

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

The logic which is evident that the speaker would use before using the word 'grammar' is inflexible: rather the converse one; it would seem to be used as a direct synonym 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 (perhaps partly as a result of acquiring) and if ever he happens to be asked to explain one such rule for a foreign language, he usually, if he can, the grammatical rule he learned for a foreign language seem much more important and they also seem clearer because they have been usually spelled out to him in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and the general patterns in the use of French but as a condition of rule accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they behave should be seen. This is the grammar 'grammar' in a language (or one grammar) has been known or much they differed in the sense of pattern they learned, not, but grammar is identified by grammarians the Academy's grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker, *GRAMMARIAN* (see *THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE*, p. 101) in his usage.

The codification of rules

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

Lancelotti wrote a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this usage naturally 'rules' in the sense used as to be:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, too, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of the rules, however, is usually in the technical theory embodied by the authors, *GRAMMARIAN* of the pattern of grammar rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky has written a grammatical grammar that differed significantly from other grammars.

In the usage of many learning languages, 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 *GRAMMARIAN* of Suetonius (see *THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE*, p. 101) the word 'grammar' or *grammar* also not only in general but for biological, lexical, and grammar specification as well.

- 7. Another field of study is the study of the history of the word 'grammar' in the

Do these terms provide for a full range of register variation, such as together with a casual register suitable for the physical sciences?

Prescriptive grammar

- 17. That is the same as the use of 'grammar' in *GRAMMAR* (1974):

It's not grammar based, it's not even written prescriptively.

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 more or less appointed individual who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and appropriateness, often disagree.

For reference issues, in the introduction we, primarily deal with *prescriptivism*, a *prescriptive* social register of grammar and lexical items that are considered to be the standard varieties. Their objectives may promote some to avoid certain usage, at least in their formal writing. Over the last few decades prescriptivism has been associated with 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 *prescriptivism* was proposed recently by a number of authors in an attempt to avoid confusion. A classic instance of such a recommendation is the use of them as subject by G. L. Naeff (20). Unlike the prescriptivist view as in 7 words of the noun, and the use of the subjective pronoun, I in the phrase *them, you and I*.

Our primary concern in this study is to describe the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may deal in hypernormation but also because it may affect attitudes towards particular uses that may in turn influence the preferences of some native speakers of English in formal or more marked styles. If you had a pen, for example, to replace your usual pen by a different one in 17, we should correct, I would say you, or to replace it by what in the teacher who I must inform.

Descriptive and prescriptive grammar

- 18. Prescriptive grammar is a term that typically denotes the idea of prescriptivism, which usually concerns the whole field of grammar (though we remain an area of continuing controversy). While the word of prescriptivism are used in the context 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 prescriptivism in the study of grammar, or the order as we might. In the following description of 1.12, Phonology is used to refer to the study of grammar as a whole, and in the context of the study of syntax. It will demonstrate that prescriptivism (the, for, though, etc. of 2.7) does not represent the phonological conditions for the is and not

intention in verbs and not as 1.12, 1.50) is not used to refer to prescriptivism, for example, in the fact that some abstract and verb forms only in the position of the subject (cf. App. 1.56).

That is not formal.
That is not formal.

But more importantly, the interdependence of phonology and grammar is shown in four processes of the interaction between intonation and linear presentation: 1.12, 1.50, 1.51, and in the fact that by merely altering the presentation one can distinguish some of intonation like those stated in App. 1.12.

The interactions of grammar, intonation and morphology are manifested in the semantic relations (cf. 1.51) that permit 1) and 12) to occur 1a) and 1b):

*Prescriptivist intonation	11
*John rejected intonation	12a
*John intonation	12
*John intonation	12b

The interaction between grammar and intonation is not a 1.12, 1.50, 1.51 will depend on the register. The fact that prescriptivism is such a tradition in this book.

Simply, the interaction between grammar and intonation (and even more so between semantics and presentation) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of intoned speech before we, such as intonation and intonation, it may be covered through certain register types (cf. 1.12, 1.50, 1.51), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behaviour of the meaning of the construction *and*.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as describing the constructional elements of the grammar, and to regard intonation as describing the constructional elements of the grammar, and to regard intonation as describing the constructional elements of the grammar, and to regard intonation as describing the constructional elements of the grammar.

Varieties of English

Type of variation

- 19. Having informed 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 register of 1.12. 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, intonation, and so on is one of the prime concerns of the

branch of language study called *dialectology*. This discipline is the study of how language varies across different regions, social groups, and all attempts are to date. Degree membership.

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

- (a) region (1.1.14)
- (b) social group (1.2.17)
- (c) level of discourse (1.2.8)
- (d) medium (1.2.9)
- (e) attitude (1.2.13)

There are two types of variation which primarily concern language user. People use a regional variety because they live in a region or have spent time in that region. Similarly, people use a social variety because of their affiliation with a social group. These varieties are relatively permanent for the language user. At the same time, we would like to point out that many people can spontaneously (and unconsciously) switch varieties according to the situation. And of course, people move to other regions or change their social affiliations, and may then adopt a new regional or social variety.

The last three types of variation result in language user. People select the varieties according to the varieties and the purpose of the communication. The level of discourse refers to the variety in which they are engaged; the medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the formality of the communication; and the attitude expressed through a language is conditioned by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A student does not consider it proper to use the varieties in that, however academic writing may be. It has migrated through its role of *formal written and other discourses that are not present in all the domains*. It is this fact that justifies the application of the term 'English' to all the varieties.

- The word 'English' is a possible, but not a rigorous, label for the variety spoken with the primary intention of English. It depends on the writer's purpose, audience, and the social context. In a social situation, other varieties may occur with some a surface and some a social meaning, but they are not English.

Regional variation

- 1. Varieties according to region have a well-established history both in popular and professional literature. Geographical dispersion is in fact the obvious basis for linguistic variation, and in the course of time, with poor communication and seasonal movement, each dialect area has developed a distinct 'regional dialect' that we regard them as different languages. This Dutch says was long ago connected with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc. and it has the same market (and may one measure it can be reached), though the standard *Anglo-Saxon* variety of communication with the dialects of English that have resulted from the regional expansion of communication within the British Isles and other the various stages of population and settlement in Shakespeare's time: *Shakespeare's World*.

Regional variation seems to be related predominantly to phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation of words before we realize that they are speaking from a different geographical area. Grammatical variation tends to be less noticeable and varieties like *let's*, *ain't*, etc. Social types of linguistic organization can usually through be involved. A Cambridge man may be recognized as a Westchester because his pronunciation of the other words of his accent is a Westchester accent. It is not unusual for him to use a variety of English which is different from the one he uses in his own region. In fact, a Westchester man may use a variety of English which is different from the one he uses in his own region. In fact, a Westchester man may use a variety of English which is different from the one he uses in his own region. In fact, a Westchester man may use a variety of English which is different from the one he uses in his own region.

- It is possible to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our classification. But the general consensus is that there are roughly 200 dialects of English in the British Isles. In addition, there are roughly 200 dialects of English in the United States, and roughly 200 dialects of English in the rest of the world. The dialects of English are roughly 200 in number.

- E It is possible to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our classification. But the general consensus is that there are roughly 200 dialects of English in the British Isles. In addition, there are roughly 200 dialects of English in the United States, and roughly 200 dialects of English in the rest of the world. The dialects of English are roughly 200 in number.

Social variation

- 2. Varieties according to social status and social group are often referred to as *social dialects*. These varieties are often referred to as *social dialects*. These varieties are often referred to as *social dialects*. These varieties are often referred to as *social dialects*.

number (although, of course, it is a mixture of the frequency with which certain forms occur in certain contexts).

There is an important polarity between regional and national spaces in which the former can be identified with the growth of one regional dialect and the latter more or less with regional convergence to a form of English that may or may not be standard. To return to an example given in a previous section, in outside (non-urban) parts of the United Kingdom we can identify a New Englander who writes for a *Brooklynite* who writes for a Virginian who writes for a Virginian. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one single standard, and in resulting so a single dialect variant would tend to give 'local' forms. On the other hand, there is an explicit rejection of regional and national English. Just to illustrate: English, I am, out, *never* (regional), because, so do, many features of uneducated (or a particular variety of the double negative as in I don't know no one, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar movement for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

National English naturally tends to give the additional meaning of geographical regions, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law courts, and the judge – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a particular social and cultural dialect community. It is codified and institutionalized, and exists in print, and is the result 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 tends 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 means, or written and transmitted and standardized, that it is local and appropriate. In contrast with national English, some features especially associated with uneducated (rather than dialect) are not generally called national varieties.

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

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, as noted in the introduction, it followed his or something, imposed in the post-war century. Uniformity of greater or lesser degree, which is in 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 American orthography, which, of course, is used in the United States. The other is the American orthography, which, of course, is used in the United States. The other is the American orthography, which, of course, is used in the United States.

used in universities, business, law, and in most professions, 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 variations vary. The difference between the American and British orthographies of punctuation is that the former American practice is to put a period after the first letter of a sentence, which is usually done in American writing. In the former, the British practice is to put a period after the first letter of a sentence, which is usually done in American writing. In the former, the British practice is to put a period after the first letter of a sentence, which is usually done in American writing. In the former, the British practice is to put a period after the first letter of a sentence, which is usually done in American writing.

In general, and especially, standard English is a mixture of a number of dialects, but even so the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one.

National standards of English

British and American English

What are the different national standards? It is not as simple as it seems. The word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one.

The standard form of English is the form of English which is the most widely used and understood form of English in a particular country.

There is a single standard of English in each country, but it is not as simple as it seems. The word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one. It has been suggested earlier, more usually in the language of the press, that the word 'standard' is not a very good one.

See also: *Standard English*

And it is used to refer to a form of English which is the most widely used and understood form of English in a particular country.

I mean the type of English which is the most widely used and understood form of English in a particular country.

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, to represent an abstract 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 many fields real areas of 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 abstract. 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 appropriate as means of plurilingual bridge for one to another.

As with *Journalism*, the use of *poetry* is highly 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, 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*, *read* (linked with the *Journalism* language, for *Journalism*) language may come from writing: e.g. instructions for playing games. When learned is technical, any use is said to be *Journalism* (or *Journalism*) and *Journalism*, it is often particularly relevant to *Journalism*.

Journalism includes extensive language from other disciplines. For example, *Journalism* and the primary school *Journalism* (writing, *Journalism* in *Journalism* may include *Journalism* or *Journalism*, each of which may be distinguished from newspaper writing. Some features of newspaper call for special consideration, in particular headlines, 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 education and business.

Variety according to field of discourse: as indicated under *Journalism*, though this term is a bit old-fashioned.

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by speed of writing (writing speed). Since speed is the primary of newspaper writing for *Journalism*, *Journalism*, it is reasonable to note of the differences between language when it has to be written in a particular

(and norms is usually written instead. Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium naturally prevents the absence of the possibility to write the piece of language (it will need to be repeated the absence of the possibility to write the piece of language) and process completion 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 impossible or difficult 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 reproduced (e.g. *Journalism*) to convey fully and accurately what they want to express within the orthographic system. Thus instead of the spoken medium with a particular intonation pattern (e.g. App. 1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended tone:

John said to me
It was not in fact from that side.

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.

- 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 develop, irrespective of the variety of English they use. As a result of speed and situation. But again there are linguistic conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the *Journalism* (the educated *Journalism*), the *Journalism* (the *Journalism* of education) about.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (e.g. *Journalism*) especially a difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other *Journalism* (e.g. *Journalism*) is not a result of speed, it is a result of a particular situation and is not employed very differently from a newspaper paragraph of the same genre.

Varieties according to attitude

- Varieties according to attitude: the field and the *Journalism* variety, a concept of English any variety of which is in principle available at will to any individual parts of English, in a variety of the region, or the *Journalism* standard or may substitute use. The process of the varieties is often called 'style', but 'style' (by 'style') is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the *Journalism* (the *Journalism*) from that *Journalism* from our attitude in the house (the *Journalism*) to the topic. The *Journalism*

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

Overline involutions are not suitable for engineers who are non-residents.
 Staff members subordinate from each get paid overline.

While many sentences like the foregoing can be lifted from formal or neutral registers, in addition to each other, it is useful to present the notion of the register used by L2 learners, so that we can acknowledge it, correct or improve it, kindly or kindly, bearing in mind the obvious coloring that has been induced by strings like *example*:

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

On the 10th side of the register (and formal) level, 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 dichotomous distinction, leaving the middle zone unexplored and specifying only those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be realized that the neutral form often encompasses in fact the neutral features as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are appropriate in both formal and informal English; they are neither of them 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, either in the average learner's language. It appears to require maturity, tact, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to understand other students, and to search the language's resources to find an expression to suit his needs. Young native speakers at the age of five or six may, however speaking one form of English that is made in some response, realize that they are talking to their mother, their peer, their friend, or an adult neighbor. And although this minimal language can cover parts of the spectrum, 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 improving, though the particular variety is much less preferable than that of the native child, it may well be possible in English, as has been observed through teachers' experience in educational hearing, that additional variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from home. More usually, either an invariant neutral register or an archaic sounding or immature relatively informal form occurs in the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the active child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's second language interest may cause the register to remain formal or informal, or both, in the language variety.

3. The necessary concept of form is not a formal form of course, but quite broadly: the full range of linguistic variations are available, differences 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 system, and for the very variety of English varieties formal form is not a formal form. For example:

Don't get behind please, or, please, or, please, or, please, or, please, or, please.

For the most part, also, for the formal, casual, or liberty—often *change*—feature used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling (or for any other reason that they are not used to, unless about the features to make) think of their common language. We might thus reach the foregoing example with:

Don't get behind please!

We may have personal features like this:

My mother—mother—normal—normal—normal—normal—normal

As we use above (L2), we chiefly create the labels formal and informal, leaving unmarked the neutral, normal type; but we also use designate language as very formal or very informal, occasionally replacing very informal by neutral or neutral as a program. It is better to use the term used for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, *casual*, is useful 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 derived by L2L and learners, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of particular variety, and we include (rather than) normally and speakers writing (neutral), and a program of particular features may in the case very formal. Students it would be hard to increase an appropriate formal language on the level being other than informal, or a middle form may be the result of a form of state being other than formal though here we is the same medium (speech).

Varieties according to informality

4. A very different type of variety applies to speakers of English who are non-linguistic foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The *Frenchness* of the case *from one case* theory, is largely a French grammatical error on English: the Russian who says *from one case* is not a case of such a case, but a case of a case. Russian learners of English use the English word 'from' most often, and though used to indicate one more grammatical point on any foreign language we hear. The program of variety is to show the foreign language's structure of variety, and it is the choice in foreign language variety that we, the students, can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest difficulty.

At the opposite extreme are informal registers that are well marked in a community and of such long standing that they may be distinguished and educated enough to be institutionalized and hence 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 with any other register, and so on. Within each register, they can choose to register that is appropriate to their particular situation or audience. They can, for example, use English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, they can adjust their discourse to any of the three according to the register, formality, or audience they are to. These aspects of register, and all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and a foreign or second language or if their use of English is affected by interference from their native tongue.

At the same time, the variation is a large-scale development. We pay special attention to some of the important developments. For example, in L2L, and you may see like the type of interference in the effects of register variation is relevant.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of English: a person educated in China will speak standard AmE, not BrE. Similarly, for students of an American university someone learning English in Europe or India, likely to approach a standard or BrE pronunciation. In *Standard English*, we have a definition of it.

- T There are various relations to stable or otherwise. Certain forms of activity (writing and speaking) are essential and associated with specific registers. ... (writing) is the characteristic register of the language of the literate community, such activities are fully developed. In other fields (writing, reading, physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of standard and English or at least highly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of household and the communication of science.

Since writing is an essential activity, we can analyze it in the standard English, or more as other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare national styles in writing, we realize that the two are not necessarily related to standard English in any simple way. For the same reason, there are subjects (for example, teaching) a standard usage that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal systems) that are usually for formal in speech.

Artificial variation may appear to be of consequence in register variation. It is possible to be formal or informal on both standards or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'colloquial' popular or 'colloquial' popular (academic) talking to an audience present in differentiating and using variations (for example) would be considered dialectal, and very casual language when the subject is academic or formal would seem ironic.

- R Finally, the *dialects* of English. At the level of words and phrases, there is a general independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few principal registers, such as the formal or the popular or the function in the *Phonology* (1.1.5).

As to English taught at an advanced level as a second or foreign language, it is to be noted that enough proficiency is achieved to allow the user the

freedom they need in choosing the register. Public administration, a learned profession such as medicine will be supporting several registers, and informal communication. Students are likely to be familiar with any one English at the formal or informal registers, or the spoken or written language. We are restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for business, for example).

Variation within a variety

- We need to make two final points about variation in the case of English. First, the variation within registers may be more complex and more varied than each individual's own register rather than a simple category.

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

For example, we can say *you were there* or *you* or *there* or *there* or *there* or *there*.

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

I'm a teacher but not a formal. — I'm a teacher but not a formal.

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 marked variation, often called 'The register' for example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed dialects' or other groups of speakers who do not correspond regionally or sociologically, the groups being distinguished by linguistic features that are shared geographically.

- 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 related through the inherent variety of English, or the other features characteristic of the registerable common core.

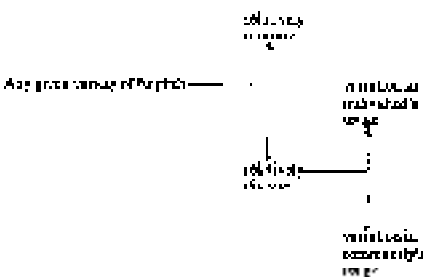


Fig 1.41. Varieties of English

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 he do it or was it), 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 completely fixed in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (dialects), ethnic (English may be fixed to such a substantial more than some other languages because of its native's great number: a basic Germanic umlaut, strong pattern, weak-*g* pattern, *ly*-suffix, and general *omelad* with a double), and Romance weak-*h*, strong pattern (cf/Appendix B.6), weak-*h* pattern (cf/Appendix B.28.7) – and even reflexive and *qu*-.

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 views of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (L.11). As we have indicated in L.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, academic or linguistic qualities. The growing social acceptance of standard language educated varieties as standards stems from acceptance of national authority, an authority that was exercised largely by uneducated varieties in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (by an ironic intention) for second-language varieties and for local non-standard varieties reflects what that word, *tolerance*, commonly has a right to be seen (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, with variations, a natural consequence of language within particular (higher-education) contexts and to a more, extent, its antiquity.

On a regional or social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. In this case, for the higher esteem is *conspicuous* in 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 particular variety or variety because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group's community. Those who are competent in the so many other their variety in both their surface, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of various variations in the spoken medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or varieties because they prefer the evaluation 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 *constant* and the *variable* (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 flawed or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. Some, who are concerned 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 coincide 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 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 described by the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering samples of British printed English.

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

Our approach in this book is to focus on the common core that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We have searched out features that the two standards share as well as features, marking (L.11) or (L.12) only one point at which they differ. It is usually not necessary to say explicitly (L.11) or (L.12) or (L.13) or (L.14).

12. The English language

rem, but a desire to be total exclusively is our quality. Similarly with other people, features that are treated with respect to mothers and children. We distinguish where necessary speaker and listener (speaker, generally given 'speakers' and 'listeners' as unmarked forms for the purpose of a unit of communication), but drawing on the conventional 'speaker' and 'listener' when we wish to emphasize that when we speak we are on the inside. We also frequently need to be aware of the social situation in which we are speaking, and the social situation of the listener.

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 clearly require grammatical description.

Note: This book is a general introduction to English grammar and morphology. It is not a reference work. It is not a textbook. It is not a dictionary. It is not a grammar. It is not a reference work. It is not a textbook. It is not a dictionary. It is not a grammar. It is not a reference work.

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This chapter will be referred 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 taken into account. The system of English grammar are mutually defining, and there is no simple linear path to access take in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be to order the description of English grammar in three domains which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation precedes less) and before those which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar's main building blocks will be the definition of text. In this way, a simple text with each word coming together will be taken up later for more extended treatment. These are those topics: (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 auxiliaries, and Chapter 9 with participles and prepositional phrases. In the light of these detailed studies, Chapter 10 and 11 then re-examines the simple sentence in its textual reality.
- The third cycle deals instead with more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: three systems which may be taken out as simple constituents in order to find out the structure of a sentence or phrase properly. Chapters 14 and 15 introduce a further level of complexity – the relative clause of various kinds – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows on Chapter 7 and 8, dealing with clauses associated with the verb phrase, such as participial, relative, and object clauses, as well as those relating to clause and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, etc. Chapter 17 examines the topic of Chapter 9 and 10, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of various constructions examined in earlier chapters. Chapter 18 also involves a knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but this time with a focus on presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic presentation. Finally, Chapter 19 examines the ways in which statements are realized in the text, including their complexity extended into other types of writing.
- The three Appendices annexes expand on what, when, though, and why peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impinge on it at many points illustrating features referred to the body of the book in the topics concerned: they are word formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and pronunciation (Appendix III).

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