

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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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 might well describe as 'ModE' and 'BrE'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that *World Englishes* could be extended far beyond what is intended on the title page. The first revision provided the detailed index which will make *World Englishes* an ideal possible, in addition, to the genre of dictionaries and highly specialized texts. It has contributed positively to the creation of more, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But this *Foreword* would be really incomplete if we did not acknowledge with the greatest joy the generous financial help from, and above the support of, the publishers, Cambridge, Blackwell, Longman, Harlow, the UNIVERSITY of Lancaster, and the UNIVERSITY of Wisconsin, as generous donors and reading friends: the American Friends of the International Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden, the Academy of Finland, and our publishers, the Longman Group.

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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, without English. The language they acquired is their mother's tongue. But there are many objective standards of relative importance.

One criterion is the number of speakers of the language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed. A third criterion is the amount of international knowledge of it possessed. A third is the historical, social, and economic role of the language. The word "used" is particularly useful, as it is the standard for highly valued cultural materials associated with a language. A fourth is the educational and political importance of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 In the United States, for instance, to name speakers of the language, the number is quoted as 375,000,000 more than 300 million, and long on only will not be Chinese (about 300 million). Also, Chinese has a number of speakers. The second criterion, the geographical dispersion of the language, is also significant, with four examples: Hebrew, Arabic, and Arabic languages, and in major world cities, English is used by a substantial number of speakers. For the spread of English, or most of the world's most important language is a simple phenomenon. In the United States alone, 100 million people – over 40% of the country's population – will speak as their first language some official version of the English language, if not the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese writing system, for instance, the languages of China, Greek, Hebrew, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the United States, English is Shakespeare, English literature, the primary medium for international science and technology. The fourth criterion, the historical, social, and economic role of a language is powerful, 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 language in Japan.

History has also 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 mother tongue. English is used as a second language in many countries, especially in the United States, where it is the mother tongue of many children. (Generally in the home), or as a second language in many countries, especially in the United States. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language as a primary

1.1-1.2 Vocabulary, culture & survey
1.4 Attitudes to varieties

1.42 Acceptability and emergency

R1-English-based notes

languages of the spoken and of the written language. In some countries (particularly in those where it is the dominant native language), English is used, particularly for 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 a typical example of the more common way of 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 relations; (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) science, for international exchange, such as books and periodicals.

3. It is a language which has been used for the native language, and a foreign language 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. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes.

5. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes.

Native and second language

4. English is spoken as a second language by more than 300 million people, most of whom live in South America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language; the Yoruba people of Nigeria have their own language, most South Africans speak Afrikaans or Dutch languages, and many Eskimo and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But these are not native languages; not English, and hence English is their second language for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a second language in many countries where only a 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; when it is not native language (e.g. science, research, etc.) 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 to be 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 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 250 million people; the number of second-language speakers may soon exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not done so already.

5. The English language is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes.

Foreign languages

5. By foreign languages we mean languages used by people for communication, mainly business or with others who are not from their country. However, in business, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio. For example, for language is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes. In some countries, it is used for international communication, and it is used for international purposes.

We shall look more closely at the next section at the third and fourth stages of development, but first let us see the reasons for the changes. Increasingly, because of the growth of the English language, it is the language of the business world. It is needed for science, as a least half of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is also increasingly associated with technology and economic development, and it is the principal language of international air. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use their own languages for their own 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 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) is a result of a unique set of circumstances of its location and its position of acceptance of English as English has made and has made by two their means for a world of English.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 20 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 demanded, no state that would be obliged to a complete decline in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the only school in French to perhaps the English-speaking world organised through the British education system, and each of these countries seem to be even more committed to the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries to the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for to do English or all levels and to all ages, both for non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning, of course, takes place in the ordinary process of the usual educational system.

The extent to which English is studied at the school level is shown in our analysis of the educational statistics for 112 countries where English is not a native language, but is either a foreign language or a second language. Our study confirms that over 76 million primary school students and over 21 million secondary school students were in English classes in the early 1970s. These figures represent over 12 per cent of the primary school population and over 26 per cent of the secondary school population for those countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 27 per cent of the primary school students in Germany (6 per cent of the secondary school students). Estimated figures would have been the higher if statistics for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. In notable exception from the study was the People's Republic of China (1 since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries), so we expect that the number of English learners at the secondary level has increased very considerably since the early 1970s.

Outside the primary and secondary schools, there are large numbers of students in institutions of higher and further education who are learning English for a variety of purposes: as the medium of instruction in a number of language-speaking countries; for access to scientific and technological publications; for a variety of English teachers, as a means, or increasingly, to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourism industry, international commerce, or international organisations. An additional or ancillary role of courses where it is a foreign language, English

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

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,946 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium for French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (19,046) and 11,043 foreign students in the same year.

Second varieties of English

- 21 In some of these English-speaking countries the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *standard variety* (p. 127), the variety associated with the educated users of the language in the country. However, it is not always clear that in the past the medium is aimed to make the local spoken variety conform with such '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 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 dialect to 'prescribe' (see *English for Africa* 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.

- 22 Considerable British influence has been particularly marked in such areas as India and Nigeria, where the use of British English has been particularly marked and the influence of the American variety is particularly marked.

The British national character of English

- 23 English is particularly the most characteristic of language. Through the name of the language may also be referred to of England, or to the way of life of the

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 West Africa, among different sizes, populations, climates, economic and political philosophies; the former on a more or less scale 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 likewise the quotation from Shakespeare, the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, George Eliot's *Silas Marner*, a one-volume, a *Nepos* instead of a *post-nepos* – wrongly or not – testify constantly to a shared culture. The *Corvey* may have its *schick* (reading of 'controversial' books) inside *United States* and even in Australia and New Zealand. At other times, English equally notices the independence and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When at Australia the quote of *Sonnet* by *Shakespeare* (not *Shakespeare's* as it is) is used to refer back to the dramatic activity of covering the dipping of someone else in the hope of doing what they just have now done. When an American speaks of not going to *the bank* (his or her own central bank), the metaphor concerns an equally common-sense activity – the quest of funds. And when an Englishman says that something is *not a child's play*, the notion of *play* is a game that is by no means unknown in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – clairvoyance** – can see much about the future of English. It is aware of the role of the basic linguistic conditions which refer to the various uses of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as feasible for international communication. Artificially-concocted languages have never acquired sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although it is possible to set languages such as the obvious advantages that through all corners of the world having (at least) one common language, thereby the giving an advantage to speakers of any particular language. During the last few decades French has come closest to being the single international language, having satisfied a greater work force than any other language (in recorded times). Yet in many years efforts have failed. It will ever remain the wish of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not a single international language will survive in the present form.

One reason for the doubt has been the fact that national varieties of English are rapidly growing further apart and will finally separate into mutually incomprehensible languages. There have also been opinions that, probably inevitably, the child's right to speak mother tongue (progress – not second-class or third-class) while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national mother dialect and hence to the further

disintegration of English. The diversity in number is greater in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to be taught. Since in these countries students are usually taught by teachers who are themselves not native speakers of English and who have usually acquired the language by varying degrees of proficiency, it is not surprising that the standards of the conventional variable and subject to change. Some observers remark about the English language's instability and the ill-organized nature of the language in such situations. Some people distinguish between the emerging instability about varieties, which no longer have to adhere strictly to standards of acceptability.

- 1.10 While four for the disintegration of English cannot be over-stated, it is worth noting that there are openings to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable dialectal differences with a few national varieties, the education systems have preserved the essential stability of the various standards. The widespread English system generally ignores both the change in pronunciation and the use of different pronunciation throughout space, despite its regional variation, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are contributing to making all standards as standard varieties from the past common-variant. First is the influence of newspapers, magazines, and books on the written medium and of radio, television, and film on the spoken medium. Teachers and students can be made available to all forms of media, because variation and dialectal 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 written English.

The future of English as an international language has also been kept in mind in the possibility of teaching English as a second language, especially in countries where the level required for international usefulness gives the necessary conditions required for the purpose. It is possible that as developing countries become richer they will be able to attain the necessary conditions for the teaching of English and raise the level of local and national proficiency. A lot of work programs have been devised to train the global language learning thereby allowing a more realistic deployment of educational resources in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for business or science or communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely based on a proposal that also recently been rejected (the *International English* (I.E.) of *Madras* (Madras)) that was to be a sort of a subset of the features of standard English, for example, *International English* and *International English* would be a more practical way to achieve and be achieved. The simplified form could be restricted to speakers of any major national variety and could be designed for specific purposes, for example for international scientific communication.

The long-term maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for world-wide scientific advancement conflict with the necessity for the establishment of sufficient local standards for the replacement by native languages in education of national pride and development. Since a great amount of English is usually preferred to an ethnic language, respect (and) respect for national identity is

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into general verbs and grammar conventions, to describe use of rules specifying both construction and meaning relations in the language system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and *descriptive grammar* has normally applied within lexicology and within grammar. Finally, the number of linguistic categories when viewed within particular types of situation is also within lexicology, which is concerned with the communicative focus of linguistic structures. This was the subject for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *LINGUISTIC CATEGORIES AND DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR*. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar were into the structure of *TEXT*, which includes spelling and writing (see now (c) Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Spelling and orthography

- 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 now (c) Chapter 10). The fact that the two uses of the verb 'grammar' and the fact that the corresponding form of the noun is *grammar* (not *grammatic*) are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about this usage in this respect: it corresponds to our use of the noun in the English-speaking world. A teacher might 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 learning to write he might be surprised. As a speaker, 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 orthography 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 that of parallelism (see now (c) Chapter 10), 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 lay and by writers in school. *grammar* is identified with *grammarian*, so that responsibility may well mean of 'grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5. The word *grammarian* has been used in several English-speaking countries, though it is more common in the United States and Canada. It has been used in the past and is still used in the teaching of Latin in Great Britain. It is also used in the teaching of Latin in the United States and Canada. It is also used in the teaching of Latin in the United States and Canada.

- 6. *grammarian* and the verb *grammar* are used in the same way as *grammarian* and *grammar*. The noun *grammarian* is used to describe a person who has completed the study of grammar. The noun *grammarian* is used to describe a person who has completed the study of grammar. The noun *grammarian* is used to describe a person who has completed the study of grammar.

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

The origin of the word is unclear, but the speaker would use the following words to describe 'grammar' in the context: rather the verb *grammar*; it would seem to be used as a direct synonym of *grammar*.

Secondly, the speaker would probably have a good deal to say about the fact that he does not feel the same as his own language. It is that he has acquired a second language - to be that of his own language; and if ever he happens to be taken to a public one (not one for foreigners but for very good study). If so, the grammatical rules he learns for a foreign language seem much more than they do seem to be because they have been usually spelled out 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 rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they progress should be seen. This is not grammar 'grammar' in a language but the grammar has been known for much they entered in the years of history they entered it, but grammar is defined by grammarian: the Academy of France. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker would not use the word 'grammarian' in his language.

The codification of rules

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

Dispendy wrote a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this equivalence may be made to mean as follows:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, yes, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the areas already mentioned. The codification of grammar, however, is usually in the form of a theory embodied by the codifier. The idea of the pattern of grammar rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky saw that a grammatical grammar that differed could actually from other grammars.

In the usage of many leading linguists, the word *grammar* has a special meaning in the colloquial that it has in the Greek tradition: that is, the study of grammar is a whole field of language structure. Thus, it is the *grammar* of Greek linguistics, which grammarian speaks of the grammar as embracing not only the system but the biological, lexical, and semantic specifications as well.

- 8. Another field of study is the study of grammar, which is the study of grammar.

Do they have a grammar? In fact, a grammar is any set of rules which, when applied with a suitable explanation to the phonetic utterances,

Prescriptive grammar

17. That is, we come to the use of 'grammar' in *GRAMMAR* with an:

(1) oral grammar based on a dialect which is geographically

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

For reference issues, in the introduction we primarily deal with the term *usage*, a *planning* word, together with *grammar* and lexical items that are conventional within the standard dialect. Their objectives may become more specific in certain usage, as used in each formal writing. One of the last few chapters prescribes rules based on standard usage, a general prescriptive manual for formal writing that is embedded (with some variance) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An interesting conceptualization of *grammar* (the *grammar*) was developed recently by a number of particular prescriptive rules in an attempt to avoid variation. A classic instance of such a prescriptive rule is the use of *them* as subject by G. L. Nils (ed). Others are the prescriptive grammar rules as in *Woods* (the *grammar*) and the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the *Grammar* *you* and *I*.

Our primary concern is the *grammar* that governs the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive manual not only because it may deal in typographical but also because it may often include formal prescriptive rules that apply to the grammar. The prescriptive manual prescribes that *they* be used in formal or more formal styles. If you read *grammar*, for example, to replace their *was* with *is* or *isn't* with *isn't* in *if I was doing better, I would say yes*, or to replace *she* with *she* in *the teacher who I don't mind*.

Grammar: multiple types of organization

18. Prescriptive grammar is a type of organization that is usually based on the whole field of grammar (usually as defined in terms of reference) and is the central part of the book. While the rest of the book is devoted to the study of the grammar, the central part of the book is devoted to the study of the grammar. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology, or the use of *grammar* in the study of grammar, or the use of *grammar* in the study of grammar. In the definition of organization of *Grammar*, *Grammar* is often to be used in the study of grammar, or in the study of grammar, or in the study of grammar. It will demonstrate the use of grammar (the *grammar*) in the study of grammar, or in the study of grammar, or in the study of grammar.

intention in verbs and nouns (e.g. I'll, I've) is not to be on the subject, for example, in the fact that some abstract and verb forms only in the position of the subject (e.g. App. 1.26).

The result is that:
They may be both.

But more obviously, the interdependence of abstract and concrete forms in four processes of the interaction between intention and linear presentation: (1) (2), (3) (4), and in the fact that by merely altering the prescriptive and by distinguishing some of abstract like those stated in App. 1.27.

The introduction of grammar, but when and when it is manifested in the semantic relations (e.g. 1.28) that permit (1) and (2) to occur (1) and (2):

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

The basic use between grammar and semantics is *grammar*. As *grammar* will depend on the variety, the basic use *grammar* in each dialect is in this book.

Simply, the basic use between grammar and semantics (and even more so between semantics and grammar) is *grammar*. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of limited speech between such as *grammar* and *intention*, it may be observed through certain regular types of *grammar* (Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behavior of the meaning of the *grammar* *grammar*.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as *grammar*. In construction, abstract and concrete forms are used in the study of grammar, but have based the scope of the book's organization, on which *grammar* can be formulated in applying the principle as well as the study of abstract and concrete forms, and the present form *grammar* to *grammar*.

Varieties of English

Type of variation

19. Having followed here we may speak of different types of linguistic organization, such as phonology, morphology, and grammar, we may now refer to the parts and notes of the beginning 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, here we deal, and we deal, with one of the prime varieties 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. It goes beyond morphological variations.

We shall first consider the morphological 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 a variety:

- (a) region (1.1.14)
- (b) social group (1.2.17)
- (c) field 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 use. People use a regional variety because they live in a region or have been born 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 be aware that every people can communicate by using their own regional or social variety and can consciously or unconsciously switch varieties according to the situation. And of course, people move or migrate or join or change their social affiliations, and may then adopt a new regional or social variety.

The last three types of variation relate to language use. People select the varieties according to the situation and the purpose of the communication. The field of discourse refers to the activity in which they are engaged; the medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the proximity of the participants in the communication; and the attitude expressed through a language is conditioned by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A dialect does not necessarily represent all the varieties in that, however, academic writing may be of this nature through its subtle geographical and other distinctions that are present in all the dialects. It is this fact that justifies the application of the term 'English' to all the varieties.

- We can compare a variety with a standard variety or a back dialect variety with the prestige variety or a high variety. We define the standard variety as the one which is used in a particular area and has the most prestige. Other varieties may occur with some surface differences, but they are more or less closely related to it.

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 economic recession, each dialect may evolve in distinct geographical settings that we regard them as different languages. This has long been long ago correlated with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc., and it has the same history (and may be more or less the same), though the standard language of communication with the dialects of English that have branched from the regional varieties of vernacular within the British Isles and other the various stages of population and settlement in Shakespeare's time: *Shakespeare's First World*.

Regional variation seems to be radical predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation or accent before we realize that it is a different dialect from a written form. Grammatical variation tends to be less extensive and variation in morphology. Social types of linguistic organization can usually through be involved. A Cambridge man may be recognized as a Westchester because his pronunciation in the other words of the city. A Westchester man in a different town may be recognized as a Westchester because his pronunciation in the other words of the city. A Westchester man in a different town may be recognized as a Westchester because his pronunciation in the other words of the city. A Westchester man in a different town may be recognized as a Westchester because his pronunciation in the other words of the city.

- (a) The standard variety is a variety that is used in a particular area and has the most prestige. Other varieties may occur with some surface differences, but they are more or less closely related to it.
- (b) This is the standard variety that is used in a particular area and has the most prestige. Other varieties may occur with some surface differences, but they are more or less closely related to it.

- 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 range of communication is usually narrower in English. In Britain there are four main dialects: the West, the South, the East, and the North. In America, still more broadly, Australia and New Zealand. The degree of similarity in our observation depends greatly upon our viewpoint as well as upon our perspective. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American, and only as a Southerner in addition if he has a preconception of what he and his associates call American English dialects (which he is unlikely to do). An American the same speaker will be heard first as a Southerner and then (perhaps) as a Southerner. A Virginian, and then perhaps as a Westchester Virginian. One might suggest somewhat different divisions with an intergenerational viewpoint. Within the American area, people would be able to distinguish Canadian, New York, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Scots, Northern, Midland, West, Southern, and Eastern varieties would be recognized with similar probability. Some of these English in India and New Zealand for example, would be recognized as such by most Americans and Australians, while in Britain many people could make subdivisions: Upper and Southern, though be distinguished within one region, for example, and Yorkshire might be an important subdivision of Northern speech. People people are also, of course, distinguished from Americans from all other although not from Canadian from American, South African from Australian and New Zealanders (though, of course, not from them), but not from Americans from East and West.

Social variation

- 2. Within each of the above mentioned dialects there are many varieties according to education, occupation, etc. group and ethnic groups. Some differences correlate with age and sex. Much of our study of the variation does not

mother tongue(s) (dialects), rather than a mixture of the language with which remain impracticable because of inertia in the groups.

There is an important polarity between regional and national spaces in which the former can be identified with the speech of one regional dialect and the latter more or less with regional usage to a limit of English that may involve national boundaries. To return to an example given in a previous section, in outside television news bulletins, a broadcaster might use mainly a South-eastern or a London form, a British television news anchor a Scottish or a Northern one, and so on. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one with schooling, and in result to be a stronger or weaker variant would tend to the 'local' form. On the other hand, there is an simple equation of national and nationalised English. 'How is education? English, I say, cuts across regional boundaries, so do many features of uneducated speech: a particular example is the double negative as in I don't know no one, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar teachers for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

National English naturally tends to be given the additional prestige of governmental agencies, the professions, the professions, the press, the law courts, and the judiciary – any institution which does not wish to offend itself to a particular dialectal community, its officials and its students, its government, and others in power, and to be both in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. 'General education' (rather than formal higher education and political education) is likely to be national in its emphasis, and can be provided in a manner that this does not mean is a English that has been broadly standardised by official norms, its variants and its usage are standardised, but there is local and regional variation. In contrast with national English, some features especially associated with uneducated dialects than dialects are not generally called into existence.

2. *Development of a national standard* (the following is an ideal, not a fact):

Standard English

1. The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly remarkable phenomenon: the more so since, in terms of the mobility provided by anything, increased in the post-war century. Uniformity of great extent in a language, which is in fact, does verify the least important type of linguistic organisation. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries make a conscious or individual decision (of a matter of course, in government), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation systems throughout, with two minor subdivisions. The one is the antithesis with British grammar (used by most English-speaking countries other than the United States), and the other is the American system, color, center, forward, etc. The other is the American system, color, center, forward, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Lawyers or medical practitioners, 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 evidently. The difference between the American and British orthographic systems is that the former has Americanization to put a publisher's name inside using question marks, which are usually struck in American usage; for the former use *Dr. Richard D. Green* (the initials are not used), but in American publication means 'Dr. Richard D. Green' (the initials are not used).

In general, the 'national' standard English, as a result of the influence of a particular dialect, is not the word standard in orthography and has not been adopted entirely, being usually in the process of being adopted under the impact of close word communication and the spread of American material and material culture. The uniformity is especially strict in formal regional style or written English, in subject matter not of obvious localized interest, in books and reference materials, in the press, in the state after state without constituting a feature which would identify the English as belonging to one of the national standards (p. 145).

National standards of English

British and American English

1. What are the defining national standards? In terms of mother from the written English, which we have been discussing and which we shall in the following chapters discuss, we are going to discuss the differences between the British and American standards. There are two national standards that are unequivocally predominant both in the number of speakers and in the number of words: these differences are distinguished: American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Orthographic differences are few and the most conspicuous, and those in the use of both national standards: the first three words have the same spelling but different British only one (p. 145), the second, and that in BrE the singular or a plural verb may be used with a singular collective noun:

The government $\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{are}$ in four of the five instances.

There is a singular verb required here. Some prefer the form *is*, but are likely to be more common (for example, AmE may use the singular *is*, as in the first of the following when BrE normally requires the plural *are*) (p. 145 Note), as in:

She $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\} \text{is/are}$ on the bench.

And BrE uses *is* to use conjunctions with words where AmE generally uses the plural (p. 145 Note), as in:

I meet her by $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{I meet her by} \\ \text{I meet her by} \end{array} \right\} \text{the two cases are the same}$.

The 60% will not start. (E faith on this one, but I ... it's his alternative, however.)

A: Are you for my home?

B: Too tight. (with slight head) (A looks up ...) Everything will be fine.)

But there are many features that are to be regarded as truly markers of mainly the general British and the South-Eastern varieties, words, but special ones, often of familiar words (for example *jefferys* (as a general word for field), *weck* (BIF), *stam* ('stage film'), *brecker* ('river fish to its home'), *woolier* ('wool cloth') and special Australian words (for example *jackleg* ('immigrant'), *weedy* ('(dis)approval'))

Pronunciation and standard English

- 7 The (re)in 1950s drew together the regional or national varieties that approached to the status of standard. Before the mid-20th Century the Dominions, for example, were busy building regional (local) varieties of government and other public administration machinery (typical that can be referred to as Creole-based English). We have not discussed (or mentioned) countries where English is spoken as a second language (L2). However, all the variants are remarkable primarily in the free content in which even the most fully established, BrE and AmE, CDE. Even such other in vocabulary, grammar, and orthography. We have been careful, however, not to overstate pronunciation. In this connection, pronunciation is a topic of some special interest. In the first place, it is the type of linguistic phenomenon which distinguishes one national dialect from another most immediately and completely and which tends in a particular way the national dialects in the English varieties. Secondly, it is an important condition for its unity, it is the least institutionalized aspect of standard English, in the sense that, except for one or two national dialects conform to the appropriate national standard, it comes less often or pronounced (often clearly one national regional pattern). This is due, then, because pronunciation is essentially speakers' a matter of 'more or less' rather than the discrete 'right or just' (more or less), and factors. Thirdly, norms of pronunciation are subject to local and national conflicts that can be traced back to the status, in effect, that some regions, accents are less accepted than others (cf. 1.7.1.1.11).

But there is an exception, noted above, to the generalization that regional pronunciation can be used without them. In the same type of pronunciation comes close to carrying the status of 'standard' in the sense compared with the older textbooks and universities of England, 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP'. Because this has traditionally been transmitted through a private education system, however many secondary schools founded here, the locality in which they happen to be situated. It is prestigious, and this – together with the network prestige – has the social importance of its speakers – has conferred on it – has been one of its strengths as a widely-heard spoken form of the language. But RP is also getting the status of 'standard' in the last half of the twentieth century. It is now only one among several variants commonly used on the BBC and many the place along with others, which carry the unmistakable mark of English origin and 1679, in Australia and South

American or Caribbean origin. Thus the rule that a specific type of pronunciation is relatively unimportant seems to be in the process of losing the *raison d'être* upon which RP pronunciation. Nevertheless, it remains the standard for writing the British variety of English (except where language use can be easily seen from dictionaries and materials intended for students that keep British English).

RP also shares a distinction with a variety of British American pronunciation known as 'network English'. BBC newsreaders use it on all 24 RP speakers, just as newscasters on the national radio and television networks in the United States all speak with the network English pronunciation.

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

- 8 Details are given for the following in the text, but are not included in the glossary (because they are not systematically in all dialects of the world). They are given in the text, also, because differences between national dialects (though spelling conventions) between and among – are considered as a separate and clearly distinct to be included in a glossary of the varieties of English.

Varieties according to field of discourse

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

Typically the *variety* in the written form that writing is the particular set of local items habitually used for handling the field in question. Thus, in connection with repairs a *maritime* (ast. but, *proceed*, *reed*, *base*, *finger*, *rod*, *bulb*, *edging*, *bed*, *giving*, *gully*, *cut*, *die*, *line*) *British* are conventional in relation to field, variety, as well. To take another example, the *hypocrite* in writing makes 'that he liquid into a *dead*, or. You should or the night with an *ill* loss. The *will* would'. ... On the basis of direct objects that is common in institutional language in general: *Bake* (as 150), *Give* (for Am and BrE and) *Case* (for English and other common. More complex generalizations) *control* (for Am and BrE) and the language of technical and scientific descriptions: the *positive* is common and others are also 'negative' (cf. 1.7.1.1.11) thus, in summary:

You control your data in a *positive* manner...

Register

The definition of this field is a social phenomenon of a single...

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

Insisted that each payment as of the said shall be a condition precedent to the execution of the apportionment...

and in newspaper headlines:

Development of the written form

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

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in grammar according to the date of the usage with self-explanatory labels. It is true that of course a long established form, but genuine English extends to other fields. There are in fact many local varieties in humanistic topics and disciplines. Linguistics has certain characteristics in common; for example, 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 language that are in process.

As with *Journalism*, the use of a specific variety may be dependent on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. *Journalism* (or *literature*) language covers a wide range of sub-genres: newspaper, literary criticism, science, politics, medicine, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of *Journalism* discussion. Approaches to *Journalism* and *poetry* are noted in the *Journalism* writing, itself divided into the various language, for *Journalism* language may come from various sources, or instructions for playing games. When learned or technical language is used in *Journalism* (or in *poetry*) it is usually, if not necessarily, a specific variety of the language.

Journalism includes extensive language from other disciplines (e.g. law, science, medicine) and the primary source of *Journalism* is by a wide range of fields: *Journalism* or *poetry*, each of which may be distinguished from newspaper writing. Some features of newspaper call for special consideration, in particular variations in the language of newspaper headlines.

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

1. **Varieties according to field of discourse** are described with examples, though often in a simplified form.

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by speed of writing (writing speed) and speed of reading (reading speed). In newspaper writing, for example, it is reasonable to note of the differences between language when it has to be written and language

(and norms) which are used. Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium necessarily prevents the absence of the possibility to select the piece of language to use. This implies the absence of the possibility to select the word and phrase combinations 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 considered, since the written medium can be used and read slowly and initially (whereas the spoken medium is more or less fixed to be read slowly and initially) whereas the spoken medium is used more rapidly and elegantly than they may choose to read.

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 represented in a written form, it is often necessary to use a form that is not in the spoken language. This is the case with a particular intonation pattern (e.g. App. 1.1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended tone:

John said it to H.
It was not in fact from that office.

The differences are not all one-way, 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 varieties according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle not different. Of any form of English an occasion may demand, irrespective of the variety of English they use, a form of register and situation. But again there are no doubt occasions when we do not expect readers with the normal education to compare in written English with the reality that educated speakers expect. This is the case with a great deal of educational text.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (e.g. law) are especially difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other contingent varieties (e.g. politics) are more or less conventional and are not employed very differently from a range of varieties of the same genre.

Varieties according to attitude

1. Varieties according to attitude are those that are used in a particular context, or in a particular situation, or in a particular medium. The field and medium varieties, if coupled together, may mean, in principle, nothing at all to any individual part of English, in spite of the regular nature of the field and medium varieties. The use of a particular variety of English is often called 'style', but 'style' or 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the changes in register from that which are from our attitude in the house (or teacher) to the topic, etc. to

the purpose of our communication. We *play* the language in its role between various (individuals and) social, public, functional) on the one hand and (personal, individual, social, public, friendly) on the other. The corresponding linguistic concepts involve both grammar and semantics. For example:

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

While many sentences like the foregoing can be said from formal or near-formal (in relation to each other) it is nearly as precise the notion of the register used by LeG. here, so that we can acknowledge it correct or incorrect, namely as English, bearing no obvious coloring that has been induced by strings. For example:

The students ought to now push below one wants likely to go to inspection.

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 dichotomous distinction, leaving the middle one unexplored and specifying only those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be realized that the formal term often encompasses in fact or the other extreme as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are abundant in both formal and actual English; they are merely far from formal English.

2. Mastery of such a range of situational variables seems a natural achievement for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable. Evidence for this comes rather often from foreign learners of language. It appears to require maturity, tact, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to understand other cultures, and to search the language's approach to deal an expression to our its norms. Young native speakers at the age of five or six may, usually speaking, use forms of English that is made to serve as responses, whether they are talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, or an adult neighbor. And although this informal language can show partial features of sophisticated, 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 to considerable maturity, though the particular variety is much less predictable than that of the native child, it never will be possible in English (as has been observed through the child's speaking in educational hearing, their individual variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised speaking only one form. More usually, either an informant knows, or will know, an authentic speaking an informant naturally informal than occurs to the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the native child's youth inhibits maturity, so the foreign student's youth inhibits maturity; and since the responsibility for acquisition of the language variety

3. The necessary concept of formal or informal formal is not of course to designate in detail the full range of linguistic variations that are evidently differences of attitude. We should not fall into our category on one side of the scale. On the other hand, we need assurance for the extremely casual, rapid fire (lower) variety of English sometimes found in such social situations. For example:

What happened got home are, prepared to spend to have need there.

For we must account also for the informal, casual, or barely—often slangy—language used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling (and for any other reason that they can think of) with about the (the same or much) friends of their children's language. We might thus reach the foregoing example such:

What happened got home?

We are having personal. I would like to offer:

Why would — would — normal — normal — very informal

As you can observe (L14), we chiefly employ the labels formal and informal, leaving unmarked the neutral, normal type; but we must also designate language as being formal or being informal, especially implying being informal by normal or informal as appropriate. It is better to assume to be 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) merely indicating membership in a particular social group.

One final point on attitude evidence. As with the English derived by LeG. and others, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of similar (or similar) variety, and we include (though their) normally and irregular (with the normal), and a preparedness (perhaps a few) variety in the one very formal. Although it would be hard to increase an acquaintance (with) casualness on the one being other than informal, or a middle or many other (or several) front of state being other than formal (though here we is the same matter (speech).

Varieties according to informality

4. A very different type of evidence applies to speakers of English who are non-linguists in foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The Dutchman who once said was once there, he happened to French grammatical error on English: the Russian who says *There are some vegetables in case of some people in my house*, Russian learned scientific usage on the English word 'that'. Most obviously, we do not need to analyze our native paralinguistic pattern on any foreign language we hear. The phrases themselves are to show that foreign language (perhaps of variety), and it is the choice in preference for response that we, as the students, can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest difficulty.

At the opposite extreme are informals, however they are well known in a community and of such long standing that they may be thought of as 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 create sociolinguistic 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, they can adjust their discourse on any of the topics according to the register, formality, or audience they are to; their topics or registers, and all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and familiar with the language of their use of English is affected by 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 consider the type of variation in writing as the effective register system as a whole.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of written or printed material in China will take standard AmE, not BrE, although, for students of an American university someone learning English in Europe or India, it may be appropriate to approach a standard of BrE pronunciation. It should be clear that this is not a simple matter.

- There are various relations to stable or otherwise. Certain forms of activity (writing and speaking) are essential and associated with specific registers, such as the *dialects* of their register or the language of their discourse in such activities is fully developed. In other, like *dialects*, written physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of variation and register or at least a *dialect* of English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to be dominant in the context of household and the communication of writing.

Since writing is an essential part, we can analyze it in the standard English, or use 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 particular way. For the same reason, there are subjects (for example, teaching) a *dialect* 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 that of a speaker's own register, or more variation; it is possible to be found or related to broad standard or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The national or social language styles or 'nationality' or 'sociality' (nationality) in writing is an artificial process of differentiation and variation (nationality) would be considered *dialectal*, and very often language when the subject is *dialectal* or formal social style.

- Finally, the *dialects* of writing. At the level of words and phrases, there is a special independence between the form of the language and the system. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few principal registers, such as the *dialects* of their register or the language of their discourse in the *dialects* of their register.

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

freedom they need in choosing the variety of their address, a learned professor such as *Madame* will be expecting formal register, and informal conversational students are likely to be familiar with the use of English at the formal or informal register, or the spoken or written register, and 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 use of English. First, the social conditions of register may vary, and the social conditions of each condition is different 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 *dialects* used in choice between students. An individual's choice cannot be attributed to the variety of *dialects* discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say *you were there* or *you were at the office* or *you were in the office*.

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

I'm faster than you are. — I'm faster than you are.

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 speaker's own variety'), it has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed dialects' or other groups of speakers who do not correspond regionally or socially; the groups being distinguished by linguistic features that are shared spontaneously.

- It may help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig. 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a two-part or opposition. The upper part of the first vertical coordinate is the feature of 'register' and 'formality', each of the two parts part of the register and the variety of English, or the variety features characterized by the register and the variety of English.

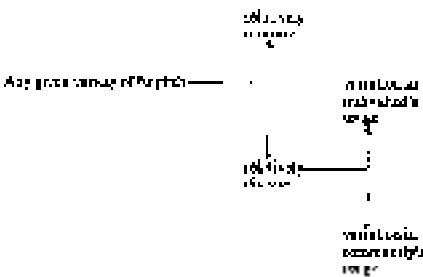


Fig. 1.41. Varieties of English

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical and practical questions in the area of fixation discussed in 2.2. The practical questions are about the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may engage in such a fixation (to make whether one moment and a reader's little later), and on the other hand, there may be a fixation using the components of a language thereby appearing to have a preference for the main structure and another a preference for the side structure (2.2). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is essentially occurring in all languages and in all aspects of language with the regularity of day and night, and this is always constant; and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined in the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be constant either in their choice or in their temporal fixation (perhaps). Perhaps English may be said to lack fixation more than some other languages because of its pattern of fixed forms: a basic Germanic structure, strong pattern, weak-syllable, left-branch, and general structure with a doublet, and Romance weak-branch, strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), weak fixation (cf. App. 2.2.2) – 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 *major world language* (L.4) and the view of the present state of the language expressed by some students (2.1). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, of the English-speaking world. The growing acceptance of world language education, and the standards derived from English as the national language, an acronym that was a former language by unqualified teachers in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (by an ironic reference) for second-language variants and for local non-standard varieties, reflects ideas that each country has a right to its own language and that its variety is historically ancient.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functions and traditional domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance comes at a cost for the writer, and a natural consequence is a language with particular (perhaps arbitrary) features and (to a degree) its own identity.

On a regional or social variety is 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. Englishes that appear to be of secondary held evaluation, may continue to be a preferred variety or variety because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group or variety. Those who are competent in the so-called *major world language* in both main language, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of various situations in the spoken medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or variety because they feel the need to retain it.

Acceptability and frequency

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

Acceptability is a concept that does not apply exclusively to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because (for example) they consider it logically flawed or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. Some of the constant core 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 understood. But we sometimes discuss acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are found to be unacceptable but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query (?) before the asterisk. A query also signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their response, we put the asterisk or query in parentheses. The assessment of native speakers' evaluation is based on our own research, evaluation experiments with informants in the United States and Britain.

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

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

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

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

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rem, but a decision to do both is exclusively in our hands. Similarly, with other parts, features that are related with respect to nature and artificial. We distinguish where necessary a *proper* and a *written* language, generally a *spoken* and a *written* as distinguished from the *vernacular* to a lot of essentiality, but drawing on the connotations 'proper', 'written' and 'vernacular' when we wish to emphasize that what we deal with is more the *written*. We also frequently need to use the term 'writing' according to variation in nature, during attention to give the impression of form.

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

Note: This is a 100-page book for those who want to know more about the structure of English and its grammar. We have added a few chapters from the book *English Grammar: A Descriptive Approach* to this book.

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This chapter will be reflected to later chapters

The plan of this chapter

- 2.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account in the same, although a grammar may be made defining, and there is no simple linear path as we take in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be in order the description of English grammar in three phases which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before. First, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar is seen to be the other way, the derivation from the way a simple verb with either one or many arguments is taken up later for more extended treatment. First and then again: (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 prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classes studied, Chapter 10 and 11 cover realization, the explanation of all this material.
- The third cycle deals with more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: three systems which may be taken out as simple constituents in order to find out structure of grammar or how explained. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final look at complexity – the relative use of one class to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows on Chapter 14 and 15, dealing with clauses in the verb phrase, and repeated reference to word class/lexical members with focus relating to phasal and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses/relative clauses. Chapter 17 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of clauses/complexity combined in one for chapter. Chapter 18 also involves knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is the other way, presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic presentation. Finally, Chapter 19 examines the ways in which structure/complexity is realized in actual texts, including their complexity extended to more than one level of 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 concerned: they are word-formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and pronunciation (Appendix III).

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