

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 might well describe as the 'NewSE' and 'NewE'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that Donald Davidson's work has benefited *Explanatory Grammar* to not least the title page. He has not merely provided the standard index which we could not have done without, but has also, in the course of discussion and highly specialised work, he has contributed positively to the correction of errors, the standardisation of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But this *Postface* would be really too long if we did not acknowledge with gratitude to the granting bodies whose financial help, and above the support they have shed from a university, college, centre, foundation, or the UNIVERSITY of Cambridge, and the UNIVERSITY of Wisconsin, the generous grants and visiting positions: the Leverhulme Trust, the Volkswagen Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alex Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Commission, and our publishers, the Liverpool Group.

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Pronunciation table

|   |       | SYLLABLES |        | WORDS   |          |
|---|-------|-----------|--------|---------|----------|
|   |       | INITIAL   | MIDDLE | INITIAL | MIDDLE   |
| ð | the   | ðe        | the    | ðe      | about    |
| θ | top   | tɒ        | the    | tɒ      | stop     |
| ɒ | not   | nɒ        | got    | nɒ      | lead     |
| ɔ | for   | fɔ        | for    | fɔ      | lead     |
| ɪ | bit   | bɪ        | bit    | bɪ      | earn     |
| ə | about | ə         | about  | ə       | pre      |
| ɪ | fish  | fɪ        | fish   | fɪ      | ought    |
| ɪ | ship  | ʃɪ        | ship   | ʃɪ      | put      |
| ɪ | lot   | lɒ        | lot    | lɒ      | best     |
|   |       | ɪ         | lot    | ɪ       | cut      |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | had      |
|   |       | ɪ         | lot    | ɪ       | phone    |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | try      |
|   |       | ɪ         | put    | ɪ       | usual    |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | be       |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | near     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | less     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | here     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | there    |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | year     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | player   |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | lover    |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | line     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | near     |
|   |       | ɪ         | not    | ɪ       | employee |

Syllable structure is simplified in many of the words in this table. For a complete list of syllable structures, see the Appendix. For illustrations of initial, middle, and final positions, see App 21.

Abbreviations and symbols

|                |   |
|----------------|---|
| A              | adverbial                               |
| A <sub>1</sub> | adverbial related to the first          |
| A <sub>2</sub> | adverbial related to the second         |
| A or A or P    | Adverbial English                       |
| aux            | auxiliary                               |
| BrE            | British English                         |
| C              | complement                              |
| C <sub>1</sub> | object complement                       |
| C <sub>2</sub> | subject complement                      |
| comp           | comparative                             |
| C <sub>1</sub> | RED position of adverbial               |
| -ed            | -ed participle form                     |
| adj            | adjectival position of prepositional    |
| i              | initial position of clause              |
| in             | involvement process of adverbial        |
| int            | intra-medial position of adverbial      |
| INT            | initial or medial position of adverbial |
| kg             | syntactic form                          |
| LOC            | Location of the clause                  |
| M              | medial position of prepositional        |
| ME             | medial position of adverbial            |
| NP             | noun phrase                             |
| U              | clause                                  |
| C <sub>1</sub> | direct object                           |
| U              | indirect object                         |
| obj            | object                                  |
| op             | operator                                |
| opt            | optional                                |
| part           | particle                                |
| pl             | plural verb                             |
| PP             | prepositional phrase                    |
| p              | prepositional verb                      |
| R              | regular verb (for 21.1)                 |
| v              | RED phrase structure present tense form |
| S              | subject                                 |
| SEI            | Series of English Clauses               |
| SE             | Standard English                        |
| SE             | subject + verb                          |
| SEV            | subject + verb + adverbial              |
| SVC            | subject + verb + complement             |
| SEVC           | subject + verb + object                 |
| SEVVC          | subject + verb + object + complement    |
| SEVVC          | subject + verb + object + complement    |



# 1 The English language

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## The English language today

### The Importance of English

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

One criterion is the number of speakers of the language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed. A third criterion is the amount of research into a language's structure. A third is the 'prestige' which the language is the source or purveyor of when it is used\* in political, literary, scientific or the media fields. Highly valued cultural materials are usually written in a standard. A fourth is the educational and professional status 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 shortfalls will follow Chinese (about 500 million), also Chinese (but number of speakers). The second criterion, the geographical dispersal of the language, is also significant, with four examples: Chinese, Spanish, and Arabic (or languages used in major world religions), and English. English has a substantial number of speakers in the special of English, or most of the world as an international language is a simple phenomenon. In the world's largest state, 140 million people – over a third of the world population – speak some form of English. In some official spheres, outside of the native languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese seems to lead, but to mention the languages of Hebrew, Greek, German, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the literature of Shakespeare, English has for its primary reason for becoming a literary or scientific language. The fourth criterion, the prestige, is more complex. German has been the language of power, productivity, and intellectual matters. But English is the language of the United States, whose post-World War II 1960s was a time of a globalisation of its power, language, and ideas.

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 inflection, the alleged flexibility of its syntax). The desire for international language, or lingua franca, is never based on linguistic or scientific criteria, but always on political, economic, and demographic ones.

### The use of English

- 1.3 English is used worldwide as a second language. A common writer made the point that the language is to be used as a second language for people who are not equal to the resources of their own (generally in the form), or who want to improve their status in some international market. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language as a primary

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

1.42 **Acceptability and emergency**

R1-Rugby-based notes

languages of the spoken and of the written language. In some countries (particularly in those where it is the dominant native language), English is used, particularly for 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 considering more extensively the situation between a native language, a second language, and a foreign language. As a foreign language, English is used for international communication, but as a second language, it is used chiefly for international purposes. We can distinguish five typical functions for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a second language: (1) international, for federal institutions, (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) 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 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 500 million people, most of whom live in South America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language; the Yoruba people of Nigeria have 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, but their English, is their second language for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a second language in many countries where only a single language of the people may be spoken as their native language. In about twenty-five countries, English has been legally declared as an official language. In about 100 (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some 100 others (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, technology, medicine) it is a second language that is politically necessary, at least at the national level, for administrative and legal

functions, and as an international language for science and technology. It is dominant in higher education. English is an official language in countries of such diverse backgrounds as India, Nigeria, and Liberia, while in many countries (such as France, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for higher education. In the United States, English is not the official language, while retaining its special 'official' or 'de facto' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the laws of the secondary education, where more people today learn English than in any time during the colonial period. 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 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 language

5. By foreign language we mean a language used by people for communication, mainly business or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio, for example, can be regarded as a form of communication, and as a foreign language. The Centre for International Communication, which provides support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USA, has similar radio and television facilities devoted to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand, and Canada have similar facilities for teaching English as a foreign language.

We shall look more closely at the next section at the third and fourth stages of development in the next section. The reasons for the changes have already been discussed. To put it briefly, they are: (1) a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and (2) a desire for English to make use of the best of the world's scientific knowledge, and the most important scientific progress and technology. It is also naturally associated with technology and economic development, and it is the principal language of international trade. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use their own principal languages and also maintain that the language of international trade is not their own. The only one is the universal language of international communication, shipping, and space. It is a common mistake to regard the common language of science and public communication, but the English language of science and technology is the most frequently used language both in the industrialized world, and in the developing world of 100 billion people.



- 18 In some countries a standardized approach is given to the study process by the number of hours of study of English lessons. In 1975 an official world table of 200-210 lessons of books, 15-20 weeks' time, English. The actual completion was about a 50% and about 60%.
- 19 The particular balance of English, but indeed language in form or other language (please specify) is a concern which is unique to most of the range of its function and to present the acceptance of English as a global language and how it is used by two their means for work, a kind of useful feature.

#### The demand for English

##### The teaching of English

- 20 The role of *de facto* foreign language than 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 organizations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than would strictly be needed, no study just would be offered to a candidate deficient in English. The general equivalent of the international language European teaching school in French is perhaps the English-speaking school organized through the British Council's schools and study institutions seem to be even more common in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries to the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for teaching English in all levels and to all ages, both for non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning activities take 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 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 exception from the study was the People's Republic of China (since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries), so we can expect that the number of English learners at the secondary level has increased very considerably since the early 1970s.

Outside the primary and secondary schools, there are large numbers of students in institutions of higher and further education who are learning English for a variety of purposes: as the medium of instruction in a wide range of language-speaking countries; for access to scientific and technological publications; for mobility in English-speaking countries; or increasingly to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourism industry, international commerce, or international programmes for education or research. In all countries where it is a foreign language, English

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

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,940 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium for French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France, which had 113,043 foreign students in the same year.

##### Standard varieties of English

- 21 In countries where English is predominant the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *standard variety* (p. 127), the variety considered to be the correct form of the language in the country. However, it is not always 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 varieties of British and American English. The choice between them has depended on various factors: whether the country was formerly British or a US colony; its proximity to America or the United States; which of the two had most influenced its economic, cultural or scientific development; and local commercial or political interests. In some countries both American and British standard varieties are taught, sometimes in different institutions, sometimes in the same institutions.

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated students are becoming multilingual and are acquiring useful receptivity. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, at best, about the norms in which their teaching should be based: to the world the way they local standard or to those of some selected standard. Such uncertainties are 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 Countries where English is a foreign language may prefer to use a local *standard* (perhaps a mixture) which we describe as *teacher's* or *teacher's* and that we refer to in our text as *teacher's*.

The *British* (national) character of English

- 23 English is prevalent in the most important of languages. Through the name of the language may also be referred to of England, or we may refer to it

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

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pushed too far. The formal or metaphorical use of such expressions as *common law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal system; and although the *quintessential* form of Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice* (the *Authorized* [or *King James*] Version of the Bible, *Chicago Style*, *Classics*, *Contemporary*, *Modern* editions), *be a paragon* – *whimsy* or *not* – *sanctify* continue to be shared values. The *Corvey* can have its *riches* (reading of 'controversial' books) inside *United States* and even in *Australia* and *New Zealand*. At other times, English equally reflects the temperance and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When an Australian quote of *Southey's* *boundless* [or *boundless* in *accordance*] the *metaphorical* look to the *disparate* activity of *meriting* the *digging* of *wisdom* also is the kind of *digging* you find just *near* *now* *and* *then*. When an American quote of *not* *going* to *find* *him* [his *actions* *are* *initial* *actions*], the *metaphor* contains an *implicit* *ethnocentric* *critique* – the *quest* of *honesty*. And when an Englishman says that something is *not* *quite* *perfect*, the *criticism* of *also* to a *quite* *less* is by no means *neutral* in the English-speaking countries.

#### The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – clairvoyance** – can see much about the future of English. It is *not* *an* *independent* *language* *to* *be* *substituted* *with* *no* *loss* *to* *the* *entire* *world* *of* *English*.

A single international language has not been thought of as feasible for international communication. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although it is possible to set languages such as the obvious advantage that through all corners of the world, including the non-English speaking, thereby the *glory* or *advantage* to *everyone* of *any* *particular* *language*. During the last few decades French has come closest to being the single international language, having achieved a greater work force than any other language (in recorded times), but in many years efforts have waned. 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 world's fight to establish *Common Progress* – *and* *secondarily* *or* *thirdly* *while* *a* *national* *variety* *might* *lead* *to* *the* *abandonment* *of* *a* *national* *member* *distinct* *and* *free* *in* *the* *future*.

climatology of English. The diversity in number is greatest 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 intelligence, 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 also distinguish 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 overestimated, *provisional* *forms* *are* *emerging* *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 traditional English system generally ignores both the change in pronunciation and the use of different pronunciation throughout space, despite its numerous varieties, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are contributing to making all standards as mutually intelligible from the past common standard. This is the influence of newspapers, magazines, and books on the various national and local, television, and film on the various nations. Teachers and students can be made available to, and to, all of them, because television and radio communication systems are made flexible enough to take account of variations. Despite a growing awareness of international variation in speech, standard forms remain the norm for written English.

The future of English as an international language has also been cast in terms of the possibility of teaching the language, especially in mass 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 attain the expenditure on the teaching of English and raise the levels of local and global 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 language of reference communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely tested, a proposal has also recently been made for a *reference* *language* *of* *English* *based* *on* *Modern* *English* that would be a *subset* *of* *the* *features* *of* *modern* *English*, for example, *modal* *auxiliaries* *and* *be* *and* *do* *and* *may* *would* *have* *and* *may* *possibilities* *to* *be* *used* *and* *be* *used* *to*. The simplified form would be restricted to speakers of any major national variety and could be designed for specific purposes, for example for international reference communication.

The long-term maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for world-wide-level advancement conflict with the movements for the establishment of national pride and the native traditional. Objectives for an official status for English could lead to the replacement by native languages in education of national pride and development. Since a great amount of English is usually preferred to an ethnic variety, support (political, economic) for a variety









3 The English language

number (coloured abolitionists, rather than slaves of the category who which remain invisible because are hidden in the groups).

There is an important polarity between unfranchised and enfranchised spaces in which the former can be identified with the pseudo-racial regional dialects and the latter more or less with regional dialects to a limit of English that are subject to regional boundaries. To return to an example given in a previous section, the outside of a community defined diachronologically might not be easily made to show linguistic variation because of the British who were still going and a Virginian who was not. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one with schooling, and to eventually be a stronger distance speaker would tend to use 'black' forms. On the other hand, there is an simple equation of regional and unfranchised English. Just as educated English, I am, this region rejected because, so do many features of unfranchised (or a particular) variety is the double negative as to 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 unfranchised speech wherever English is spoken.

Historical English inherently tends to give the additional meaning of governmental structure, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law courts, and the judiciary – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the unfranchised local community. It is codified and formalised, grammar, and guides or prescribes the speech in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale education (higher) in this western industrial society and political situation, it seems to be, cannot be an expressive way on one provided one remembers that this does not mean a English that has been formally standardized by official norms, or scientific and technical and standardized, but that is useful and appropriate. In contrast with unfranchised English, some features especially associated with unfranchised (rather than dialectal) are not generally called upon to be used.

3. 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 contrast to the multiplicity involved here, anything accepted in the present century. Uniformity of greater in a geographic, which is fact, also verifies the least important type of linguistic organisation. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries make a very massive of individual decisions (e.g. metal type, printers' alignments), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout with two minor exceptions. The one is the divergence with British grammar (over by now) English-speaking countries other than the United States, and the other is the American preference, color, color, toward use. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

Standard English

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open to variations in written language or formal punctuation, 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 widely. The difference between the American and British arrangements of punctuation is that the former American practice is to put a period or comma inside closing quotation marks, which are usually double in American usage. In the terminology of American usage "The result is a higher orthographic level may cause Anglo-American misunderstandings: the numerical form of dollar, for dollar (from European practice) in the month of October 1965, but in American practice) means 100 cents (10/100 of a dollar).

In general, and especially in unfranchised English, the orthographic level of a particular dialect, but even so the world-wide movement toward uniformity and has been suggested earlier, seems usually to be increasing under the impact of closer world communication and the spread of Western technical and commercial culture. The uniformity is especially clear in printed national style material; English on subject material of otherwise unfranchised dialects is book and reference material. The goal is to give after use without creating a feature which would identify the English as belonging to one of the national standards (p. 145).

National standards of English

British and American English

1. What we are calling national standards, despite the fact that neither from the western English, which we have been discussing and which we shall in the following chapters, and which, when it comes to it, is a very good thing to do. In fact, in both languages, there are two national standards that are unambiguously predominant both in the number of available copies and in the degree to which these dialects are formalised. American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are those in the use of both national standards: the first that would be the past tense of get was BrE only use of 'got' (e.g. I've got it), and that in BrE either a singular or a plural verb form be used with a singular collective noun:

The government  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} is \\ are \end{matrix} \right\}$  is a four in common nouns.

whereas in AmE a singular verb is required here. Some prefer the form 'is', but are likely to prefer 'are' in the first instance. For example, AmE may use the singular 'is' in unusual style in contexts when BrE normally requires the plural 'are' (p. 141 Note), as in:

See that  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} the \\ the \end{matrix} \right\}$  is a four in common nouns.

And BrE uses 'is' and 'are' interchangeably with 'are' where AmE generally uses the plural 'are' (p. 141 Note), as in:

I need the  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} the \\ the \end{matrix} \right\}$  the four in common nouns.













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 occasion or audience; they can locate their register in English, appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, any two distinct forms of variation may be combined according to the register, the occasion, or audience; they may be their register or register, and all of the would apply equally if they are produced in English and foreign or other languages 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 particular attention to some of the important developments. For example, in L2L, and you may see like the type of variation and the effects of variation system is a table.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of English: a person educated in Ohio will talk standard AmE, not BrE. Similarly, for students of an American university learning English in Europe or India, it likely to approach a standard of BrE pronunciation. In *Standardized English*, William Labov (1972) writes:

- T There are features relating to stable differences. Certain forms of vocabulary (flaming and slaphopping, for example) are associated with specific regions, accents, dialects, or dialects of their regional or language of origin. Some are such variation is fully developed. In other, like *massive*, *medium*, *physics*, *phonology* we expect to find some use of variation and English or at least partly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of *household* and *the* in the context of *exercise*.

Since writing is an educated act, we can analyze it in the standard English, or use as other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare mediated English in writing, we realize *register* is an important part of standard English in various people and contexts. For the same reason, there are subjects (for example, teaching) a Scottish accent that can scarcely be heard in writing and others (for example, legal system) that are usually for formal in writing.

Artificial variation may appear that of *register* and *register* in various registers: it is possible to be formal or informal on broadcast or policies in AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'authenticity' popular 'casualty' popular (usually, talking to an audience) presents difficulties and uncertainties (Bourdieu) it would be considered *dialectal*, and very formal language when the subject is *exercise* or *household* would seem comic.

- Finally, *dialects* and *registers*. At the level of words and phrasal there is a special independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few phrasal register, *Complex* is a good example of function in *The Phrasal* (1975).

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

freedom they need in meeting the needs of public administration, a learned profession such as medicine with its supporting medical journals, and informal communication. Students are likely to be familiar with any one English at the formal or informal level, or the spoken or written (Widdowson 1983), and restricted to the English necessary for a particular occasion (English for engineers, for example).

Variation within a variety

- We need to make two final points about variation in the use of English. First, the social conditions of register may not apply, and the social conditions of each condition is continuous rather than a discrete category.

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

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

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

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

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

Neither register of each point is necessarily linked to any of the varieties and we have specified. Also, you have been made 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 present 'randomly distributed dialects' other groups of speakers who do not correspond regionally or sociologically, the groups being distinguished by linguistic features that are shared geographically.

- Finally, *register* and *register* in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a two-part register opposition. The upper part of the first vertical coordinate is the function of *register* and *register*, each of the two-part part (used to group the educated variety of English) of the variety features characterized by the registerable occasion code.

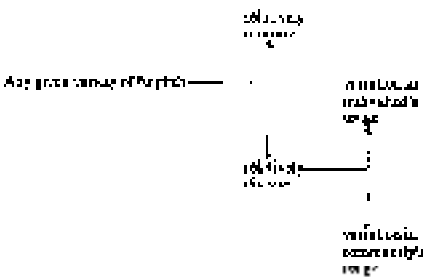


Fig 1.41. Varieties and register

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical framework is based on the area of variation discussed in 3.2. The structuralist viewpoint identifies as 'stable' (in the current, unmarked and fully functional state of the language) those features that are present and constant in all later stages, and on the other hand, those that are found only in the current state or in stages that may be seen as a progression from the current state, and that are a pre-condition for its later state. 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 thus 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 competence (Linguists). Perhaps English may also be a such. Presumably more than some other languages because of its history of contact with a Indo-Germanic substrate, since patterns, word-formation, inflection, and syntax overlaid with a Celtic, and Romance substrate, since patterns (cf/Appendix 2), word-formation (cf/Appendix 2.2.2) – and even reference and syntax.

Attitudes to variation

- 1 At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; for example, the official acceptance of English as a *major world language* (L14) and the view of the present state of the language expressed by some speakers (L11). As we have indicated in 3.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political views, not least economic and/or linguistic, of the power and acceptance of world language education, varieties of standards derived from English as the national language, an acronym that was a former language by unqualified speakers in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (by an ironic inference) for second-language varieties and for local non-standard varieties, reflects views that such research, compared to a right to be seen language and that the 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 continues to run for the written medium, a marked contemporary language within particular (higher-education) contexts and (to a lesser extent) in oral contexts.

On the other hand, social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups and contexts. For the higher status is considered a sign that they are more logical, or closer to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily coincide. Speakers hold acceptable or contextually held 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

speech community. Those who are competent in the so-called upper class variety in both oral and written, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of standard varieties in the written medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or varieties because of their educational or other

### Acceptability and frequency

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

**Acceptability** is a concept that does not apply *exclusively* to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because they consider it logically flawed or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or inelegant. However, it may co-exist only with the acceptability of forms in constructions or the grammar 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, marking the latter by placing an asterisk (\*) before them. If they are lacking in acceptability but are not fully unacceptable, 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 assessments of relative frequency, as has concluded experimental studies. Frequency suggests too. Here we have also drawn on our research and that of other linguists. The frequency of language phenomena in speech, important sources, predominantly:

- (a) the output of the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering spoken as well as written usage of British English;
- (b) the Brown University corpus, comprising samples of American printed English;
- (c) the parallel distributed corpora corpus (L10), 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.

We repeated in this book to focus on the common ones that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We have marked any features that the two standard varieties have in common, marking as (1) or (2) or (3) or (4) or (5) or (6) or (7) or (8) or (9) or (10) or (11) or (12) or (13) or (14) or (15) or (16) or (17) or (18) or (19) or (20) or (21) or (22) or (23) or (24) or (25) or (26) or (27) or (28) or (29) or (30) or (31) or (32) or (33) or (34) or (35) or (36) or (37) or (38) or (39) or (40) or (41) or (42) or (43) or (44) or (45) or (46) or (47) or (48) or (49) or (50) or (51) or (52) or (53) or (54) or (55) or (56) or (57) or (58) or (59) or (60) or (61) or (62) or (63) or (64) or (65) or (66) or (67) or (68) or (69) or (70) or (71) or (72) or (73) or (74) or (75) or (76) or (77) or (78) or (79) or (80) or (81) or (82) or (83) or (84) or (85) or (86) or (87) or (88) or (89) or (90) or (91) or (92) or (93) or (94) or (95) or (96) or (97) or (98) or (99) or (100) or (101) or (102) or (103) or (104) or (105) or (106) or (107) or (108) or (109) or (110) or (111) or (112) or (113) or 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**This chapter will be reflected to later chapters**

**The plan of this chapter**

- 2.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account in the same, although a grammar may be made defining, and there is no simple linear path to take in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be in order the description of English grammar in three phases which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before. First, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar is seen to be the other way, the derivation from the syntax. A simple verb with either one or many arguments, taken up later for more extended treatment. First and three orders: (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 the major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.
- The second cycle (Chapters 2 to 11) is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapter 2 and 3 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapter 4 and 5 the basic constituents of the noun phrase. It includes determiners, nouns, and pronouns. Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with auxiliaries, and Chapter 9 with prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classes studied in Chapter 10 and 11 have examined the complexness of their syntactic ability.
- 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 complexly. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final look at complexity – the relative use of one class to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows on Chapter 14 and 15, dealing with the verb phrase, its repeated nature, its use in the clause, and the verb phrase, with focus relating to phasal and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, and relative clauses. Chapter 17 examines the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of clauses, and relative clauses in order to explore. Chapter 18 also involves the 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 and relative clauses are used in writing, including their complexity extended to more complex 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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