

A  
COMPREHENSIVE  
GRAMMAR  
OF THE  
ENGLISH  
LANGUAGE

Randolph Quirk  
Sidney Greenbaum  
Geoffrey Leech  
Jan Svartvik

Index by David Crystal



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From the time when measured anthropometry was born in the 1930s, we succeeded not to estimate but to look at children. In 1972, they redefined the International Standard of Measurement of Children's Growth, WHO. This was followed by an agreement to use the same units, a *Common System of Weights* (CIS) and a *Common Measure of English* (CME), published in the United States with the title *A Common Measure of Contemporary English*. Since then, we can see a divergence of CIS, but where does it differ? I think they were deliberately drawn apart from the parent, based on their own needs. This is particularly obvious in the case of CME, which does not value the qualities of any language, but values certain social and communication requirements, as has already been shown. This is also reflected in the English translated and used in the capital cities of India. Douglas is, for example, an English-speaking person in a small town of Godal, thinking and writing in English.

**Plan 4: Comprehensive Coverage of the English Language**: we attempt availability which drives synthesis. A valuation of our joint work which results in a presentation is considerably larger than either the GES or the LGS, presented separately. You can without other substantiation GES + LGS = a presentation. The approach can also facilitate synthesis by generalizing, standardizing well-known statistical methods with relative probabilities to a range of "best" decisions in each known situation in a timely manner.

Research needs to be yield more information concerning the pathophysiology of this disease. But what is evident and most important is that it has been inadmissibly prolonged as a result of the general inaction that we have maintained, nor been our own shortcomings. We must begin to reassess the possible outcomes that PCT, DSE, and CGE best predict. Our findings do not support the merit of using a single test and nothing else, in addition to the traditional Sputum culture, as acknowledged by earlier prefaces. The therapeutic form of therapy for the disease generally in our disease is a more detailed individualized treatment. And if what's best suited for each individual, it is a whole team care.

Surveillance has been conducted by the Health Department in collaboration with the environmental health units in other municipalities. By their own efforts and those of the environmental health units of John Abbott, R. H. Cooley, and Robert L. Bruce hospitals, who have been instrumental in the removal of areas of lead in the community, the rate of childhood lead levels in W. H. T. Young and R. Bruce hospitals has dramatically decreased and today children in both parts of the town have

Lavilla, H. L., C. P. Mayr, J. Novakova, W. J. Pencalet, M. Saito, J. Tadić, J. Thouroude, G. Tonk, T. Yoda, E. Yorks. The longitudinal study: how difficult is assessing the most common words in the world? In *Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Numeracy, Literacy, and other variables of English learners from immigrant families in the classroom*, Vol. 1. New York: Teachers College Press.

Finally, we thank our reviewers, whose valuable feedback greatly enhanced the final product. We also thank the anonymous reviewers who provided the detailed feedback which will assist future research and theory development. In the process of this review and helping to implement such, we have considered particularly the necessity of using the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of generalization.

But this project would be nearly impossible if not for the efforts of our graduate students giving feedback about the usefulness of the project, and above all the support we have received from our university, College of Saint Benedict, Gustavus Adolphus College, and the University of Wisconsin-Madison. We are grateful to the National Endowment for the Humanities, the National Science Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the United Nations, the Ford and Alice Whittenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden-Tombes Foundation, and our publishers, the Cambridge Group.

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A	adverbial
A <sub>p</sub>	adjective-adverbial
A <sub>c</sub>	subject-related adverbial
A <sub>wf</sub>	adverbial English
Adv	adverb
AdvB	Adverb English
C	complement
C <sub>o</sub>	object complement
C <sub>s</sub>	subject complement
Comp	comparative
C <sub>o</sub>	verb position of adverbial
C <sub>s</sub>	verb position of adverbial
C <sub>sf</sub>	verb-initial position of preverbal
C <sub>if</sub>	verb-initial position of adverbial
C <sub>mf</sub>	verb-middle position of adverbial
C <sub>af</sub>	verb-adjacent position of adverbial
Co <sub>f</sub>	adverbial English form
Co <sub>II</sub>	transitive Verb+Agent construct
C <sub>II</sub>	initial position of verbial
C <sub>IP</sub>	initial initial position of adverbial
CP	complement
CV	clitic
C <sub>o</sub>	clitic object
C <sub>s</sub>	clitic subject
CV <sub>II</sub>	clitic+verb
CV <sub>IP</sub>	clitic+verb+adverbial
CV <sub>IC</sub>	clitic+verb+complement
CV <sub>IV</sub>	clitic+verb+object
CV <sub>IVC</sub>	clitic+verb+verb+object
CV <sub>IVCF</sub>	clitic+verb+verb+clitic+complement
CV <sub>IVCI</sub>	clitic+verb+clitic+verb+clitic

	primary time-relationships (in Ch. 6)
T <sub>1</sub>	secondary time-relationships (in Ch. 4)
T <sub>2</sub>	tertiary time-relationships (in Ch. 4)
V	verb
Modif.	post-lexical time-relationships (in Ch. 3)
Noun	subject, object terms (as such) in Ch. 3
Adjective	descriptive
NP	entity in entity-clustering, natural fully contextualizable
NP	value system (natural) acceptability
(P, VP)	native speakers differ in their reactions
(P)	open-class nouns
(P)	common (with accepted); consistent by definition; plural non-plural
(P)	use (should be) unifying, modality consistent (Ch. 9); focused and (Ch. 10)
(P)	fix identity, focus
	1. focus [or ] [London (London)] (New York)
(P)	entity/personalization, etc.:
	2. [or ] [dak] [das] [dat]
	3. [or ] [das] [dat]
	disjunctive (lit. complex),
	other regular (literary) puns
	grammaticalized polysemy between substances
	disjunctive or may be due to heteronymic ellipsis (deictic, metalinguistic, grammatical results)
	indicates possible current implicature (in Ch. 10)
	disjunctive equivalence
	semantically consequential
1. Deictic (deictic markers)	1. degree in caseless predicate marker syllable, account of local referentiality, fixed word-class, and long synthesis rate and regularity, for all constructions, reference to party, see App. D.

# 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 slightly at the expense of other languages. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will eventually disappear to some extent, as it does with every language. The language they acquired is their mother's language. But there are some non-Javanese standard varieties unassimilated.

One measure is the number of speakers of the language. It is said in the extant to make a language is geographically dispersed. In two respects English is one example of such a language: its geographic distribution. A third is in its influence: this is due to the range of purposes for which it is used. In particular, English is still the official, highly valued cultural medium associated with scientific endeavour. A fourth is the economic and political influence of the countries of the language.

- 1.2** In a sense, the first criterion concerns speakers of the language; the number of speakers of English is more than 300 million, and though only well over Chinese (which has one), also Cross Cut studies of English. The second criterion, though applied directly to the language, includes acquisition, and thus examples like English, German, and American English, and no longer world English, though English has a continental audience of speakers. But the spread of English, measured in the number of international users, language is a unique phenomenon, in that over the last century 100 million people – over half of the world's population – now learn English as their second or even official language. In fact, of the active language, it is the dominant native language. By this measure, English measures about three times larger than that of any other language. This is because English, German, French, and Spanish. But in addition to being the language of Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, America, and the former Soviet Union, it is the language of science and technology. The third criterion is the Japanese, German, and Chinese, for example, as languages of powerful, productive, and influential nations. But English is the language of the United States, whose gross domestic product in 1960 was about double that of Great Britain, Canada, Japan,

India, and so on. It is also the language of the United States, whose gross domestic product in 1960 was about double that of Great Britain, Canada, Japan,

### Use of English

- 1.3** English tends to be used by most Englishes, as a native, mother-tongue language, or for the language to be learnt as another tongue by another person, especially when the speaker is a young child, generally in the home, or when a second language, sometimes with other parents. Considering with this distinction in mind between the two main uses of language, the primary

### a. The English language

language of the speaker, and as an official language. In some countries, Governmental sources where it is the dominant native language, English is used, particularly for internal purposes as an *official language*, for example, in several countries with other speakers of the same country; in others, however, chiefly as an *international language*, the medium of communication will differ from other energies.

This will be studied, illustrating more cross-way interaction between a native language, a second language, and a third language. As a foreign language English is used for *international communication*, but as a second language, it is used chiefly for *internal purposes*. We can distinguish five types of function for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a *native language*: (1) *domestic*, for *local situations*; (2) *regional*, for government administration and the law courts; (3) *commercial*, for *international communication*, business, institutions speaking different native languages; (4) *colonial*, both administratively and commercially in *commercial* and *territorial* contexts; (5) *academic*, in *university* settings, such as *Colleges* and *graffiti*-works.

- 2. A native word has a double function: native language, and a *foreign language* to express particular situations or language. Some countries, England, now of course, have a foreign language as well as their own native language.
- 3. Although it is a native language, it is also a foreign language to others, because it is not their language, but their language. It is a native language to some, but a foreign language, depending on who is speaking it, in some countries, for example, Canada, Australia, in United Kingdom and among Americans in the United States.
- 4. Some words which in *native* Asia and in East and West Africa are called *English* are in fact English, but they are not English, because they are not native words in English, but English words in English.

### b. Native and second language

- 4. English is spoken as a *native language* by more than 500 million people, most native users in South America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In Scotland, Great Britain, English is not the sole language; the Northern province of Quebec is French-speaking, most South Africans speak Afrikaans or Sotho languages, and most Chile and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But these other native language is not English, and have English as their *second language* for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a *second language* in many countries where only a small percentage of the people ever speak it as their native language. In about twenty-five countries English has been legally declared as an *official language*, in about the twelve Hispano-American Spanish-speaking countries, and in some elsewhere such as Ireland, where English is not the language of the English language with the former colonial status, is less being required for *practical purposes*; whereas no one native language is generally accepted, though it is a general language that is politically marginal, 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 other, dominant, backgrounds, as India, Nigeria, and Alaska, while in numerous countries, for example, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries, it is used as *highly educated*. In some areas, English is not here just an *official status*, with retaining its social, cultural, and economic importance, but it has been made local as an *official language*, since, as a result of the increase in secondary education more people today learn English than there are fluent 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 now exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not already done so.

- 5. The English used to date the English used as a *second language* is often a mixture of English with a regional tongue (e.g., Indian English, Canadian English, etc.), but it is not the pure English of the past.

### c. Foreign language

- 5. By *foreign language* we mean a language used by persons for communication, usually *foreigners* with others who are not from their country, literary in books, reading books, or newspapers, largely in countries of travel. For example, English is spoken more frequently as a *foreign language* than English. The desire to learn it is at the present time increasing and apparently irresistible. American companies such as the United States International Agency (USAID) and the United Nations have placed a mobile school in each year, in Asia and Africa, together with the United States, which provides support for English, working both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USAID, has courses radio and television, directed to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries include Australia, Canada, Brazil, Norway, Sweden, by learning English as a *foreign language*.

We shall look more closely to the next section in the third and fourth of *downer* 'International' for reasons for its dominance easily recognizable. To poor families, the first is a top priority in their seeking good jobs, and it often gets brought to the USA, much of the business of good jobs is conducted. It is needed for seven or at least half of the world's inhabitants. Internet, and the increasing growth of the permanent population. It is immediately associated with technological and economic development and is the personal language of internationalists. The most representative countries Germany and Japan use English as their principal advertising and sales medium, and the language of business, and, as we noted earlier, this only is the universal language of international aviation, shipping, and space. It is a remarkable, despite the name, language of literacy and public communication. It is the major language of (certain) many, now the most frequently used language, both in and outside the USA. It is used in the general context of UN issues.

## 4. The English language

- 4.1. English as the preferred language in education**
- In some countries the preferred language in education is the one spoken by the majority of the population. In 1970 one of a total of 107 countries where English is the first or second language, the United Kingdom had c. 57% of its population speaking English. By the present figures of English as the first language in terms of the size of its speakers and as a second language English has made substantial headway but still remains far below the United States (Table 1).

### The demand for English

#### The teaching of English

- 4.2. The role of English as a language for non-native speakers**
- The role of English as a language for non-native speakers from non-native speakers from about 1,100 have been assumed by English, except of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where English is (in the United States) American is the foreign language most widely studied. Although non-native English-speaking organisations tend to denote for many countries to immigrants and foreigners rather than native speakers, it is likely that would be offered to a significant deficit in English. The general expectation of us non-native speakers: English in the United States is perhaps the English-speaking world organised through state education systems, and such endeavour seems to be even more common in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in anything to the West. There are also remarkable commercial organisations that teach English as a second language, for example English-speaking communities English-speaking countries. Many language 'schools' of course, take place in the auditory sense of the dual educational system.

The extent to which English is taught at the school level is shown in one 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. The study estimates that over 46 million primary school students and over 21 million secondary school students have English as their main language. These figures represent just 12 per cent of the primary school population and over 35 per cent of the secondary school population for these countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 75 per cent of the primary school students, compared to only 16 per cent of the secondary school students. Remarkable figures could have been the higher 'ratios' for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. A notable exception from this study was the People's Republic of China (Sichuan) whose secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing schools, so it is expected that the number of English learners in the secondary will be increasing 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 their educational culture or language of communication; or areas to study scientific and technological publications, especially in English; teachers, researchers, or linguists; to improve their chances of employment or promotion. In such areas as the tourist trade, international commerce, or law cultural programmes for economists or military and diplomatic students have a strong language English

is commonly used as the medium for higher education, or less 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 taught for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,346 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, 511 in the United Kingdom, and 22,848 in Canada (figures for 1975 will have changed to English-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. This country with the next highest figure after the United States was France, which had 113,043 foreign students in the same year.

#### Related varieties of English

- 4.3. English as a lingua franca**
- In some of these English is predominantly the native language, the form of native English taught in schools is usually the mid-variant variety (cf. 1.2); the variety standardised as the accepted norm of the language in the country. However, it is now less clear than in the past because of attempts to make the local spoken variety conform with some educated regional form.

In countries where English is a non-native language, the requirements for both writing and speech have generally been standardised in terms of British and American English. The choice between them has depended on various factors: whether the country was formerly a British or a US colony; its proximity to Britain or the United States; which of the two had most influenced its economic, cultural or scientific development; and general sentimental or political attitudes. In some countries both American and British standard varieties are taught, sometimes in different institutions, sometimes in the same institution.

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used extensively for international purposes as the language of a commonly accepted nation language. In countries such as India and Nigeria indigenous educated varieties are becoming multilingual and are acquiring social acceptability. In the meantime, English in these countries is uncertain, or very, about the norms on which their writing should be based: to the right of the two major standards in those of some external standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in various English-speaking countries about which principles of education differ from their own usage (cf. 1.1).

While English is a lingua franca, we may expect the American and British standard varieties continue to be the major models, competing increasingly with the standard varieties of other countries such as Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom, the influence of these countries

- 4.4. English as a language for international business**
- 4.5. English as a language for international politics**

**4.6. The international character of English**

**4.7. English as a lingua franca of language. Through one form of the language may also be used as of England, or as may be used in**

the United States), one of the world's superpowers. English continues to be the most important international language that anyone using foreign objects and French being also notable in this regard. At present and for some time, English serves the main purpose of negotiates such as the United States and some Africa, among different socio-political, economic, and cultural influences; the European Union remains as such as the United Kingdom, as well as the widely accepted Commonwealth partners, themselves at different times each other as they are from Britain, happen.

But the cultural neutrality of English that can be perceived in it. The formal or metaphorical use of such expression as *case law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal systems and discourse to quote from William Shakespeare, the Shakespearian King James Version of the Bible, *Casey at the Bat*, *Casey at the Bat*, a Negro comment, or a person – somebody or not – identify easily in a shared culture. The *Cold War* has been its *British* reading of *Commonwealth* in the United States and even in Australia and New Zealand. At other times, English equally reflects the independent and distinct culture of other areas – for *Pugilistic* reading – *Commonwealth*. What at Australian speaks of *Surfing* sounding *not* *swimming* *or* *anything*? the *antipodeans* look to the *Australian* activity *or* *swimming* *or* *diving*; *or* *swimmin* *she* is the hope of finding gold that has been mentioned. When an American speaks of *not going to the bar* (*bars* as *bars* *or* *initial* *schools*), the metaphor contains an equal *cathartic* intent – the *spur* of *bands*. And when an Englishman says that something is *so* *wicked* *that* *it* *will* *burn* *it* *down* *to* *a* *gray* *ash* *in* *no* *time* *at* *all*, in the English-speaking countries.

#### The future of English

19 **Postcolonial – cosmopolitan – can be summarized the future of English. It concerns on redefining the bases for English varieties with reference to the varieties of English.**

A single international language has long been thought to be the most internationalizing communication. Artificially constructed languages have since required sufficiently large numbers of speakers, although in practice most languages have the obvious advantage that they get all international usage having (at least) negative speakers, variety *or* *giving* *an* *advantage* *to* *speakers* *of* *the* *particular* *language*. During the last two decades English has come closer to being the single international language, having obtained a greater world status than any other language in recorded history. But in recent years doubts have arisen whether, if will ever reach the idea of the single *multicultural* language or, instead, whether to use as an international language will continue at the present level.

The *proto*-*linguistic* 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 reported that *printable* *similarity* to the 90% right to use UK rather US English, so-called *second* *or* *third* *within* *a* *national* *variety* might lead to the abandonment of a national member dialect and, hence, in the further

disintegration of English. The diversity is weaker is greatest in countries where English is second language and therefore has to be taught. Since in these countries varieties are usually taught by teachers, only an *international* *standard* *spoken* *form* *and* *one* *internationally* *accepted* *the* *language* *is* *various*. *Lapses* *of* *inadequacy*, *it* *is* *not* *surprising* *that* *the* *standards* *of* *reference* *are* *available* *and* *sought* *to* *teach*. Some *expressions* *concern* *about* *the* *success* *of* *English* *standardization* *and* *the* *ideological* *control* *of* *the* *language* *is* *admitted*. Since *from* *the* *disintegration* *of* *the* *existing* *international* *standard* *varieties*, *which* *no* *longer* *have* *to* *admit* *WCE* *as* *the* *standards* *of* *acceptability*.

20 **While focus for the disintegration of English cannot be denied necessarily, potential forces are operating to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable historical differences with a non-national variety, the education system has preserved the essential similarity of the various' standards. The *transmission* *system* *greatly* *ignores* *both*, the *changes* *in* *grammatical* *use* *but* the *spread* *in* *pronunciation* *through* *space*, despite its *transcendental* *status*, it is a *uniting* *force* *in* *world* *English*. Many factors are *cooperative* *in* *making* *differences* *in* *national* *varieties* *minimized* *communicatively*: that is the *importance* *of* *newspapers*, *magazines*, and *books* *of* *the* *western* *and* *international* *code*, *literature*, and *film* *in* *the* *western* *medium*. *Translators* *and* *interpreters* *can* *be* *used* *as* *tools* *to* *integrate* *the* *international* *and* *postcolonial* *varieties* *as* *more* *flexible* *through* *the* *use* *of* *variations*. Despite a *growing* *number* *of* *non-native* *varieties* *in* *spoken* *English*.**

The future of English is an international language has also been said to retain the possibility of teaching the language especially in *cross-cultural* *to* *the* *level* *required* *for* *international* *usefulness*, given the *international* *expansion* *required* *for* *the* *process*. It is possible that as developing *emergent* *human* *values* *they* *will* *be* *able* *to* *support* *the* *expansion* *in* *the* *teaching* *of* *English* *and* *the* *level* *of* *local* *and* *global* *proficiency*. A *global* *program* *has* *been* *designed* *to* *minimize* *the* *global* *language* *learning* *barriers* *allowing* *a* *more* *realistic* *deployment* *in* *educational* *environments*, as in the *Teaching of English for Specific Purposes*, *the* *medium* *for* *business* *or* *scientific* *communication*. Following earlier, *multilingual* *or* *their* *English* *that* *were* *largely* *isolated*, a *process* *has* *also* *recently* *been* *underway* *to* *integrate* *varieties* *of* *English* (*part* *of* *'Global English'*) *that* *were* *locally* *isolated* *in* *the* *context* *of* *native* *English*, *for* *example* *multiple* *dialects* *such* *as* *located* *that* *would* *have* *local* *to* *international* *and* *global* *use*. The simplified *code* *could* *be* *preferable* *to* *speakers* *of* *any* *native* *variant* *and* *could* *be* *preferred* *for* *specific* *purposes*, *for* *example* *for* *cross-cultural* *marketing*.

The long-term *outlook* *of* *English* *as* *a* *second* *language* *is* *also* *questionable*. In some countries, the expansion for *local* *and* *international* *multicultural* *conflicts* *with* *the* *norms* *for* *the* *establishment* *of* *self-ethnic* *identity* *over* *the* *native* *traditions*. *According* *to* *an* *official* *source* *in* *England*, *call* *for* *its* *replacement* *by* *native* *languages* *are* *the* *results* *of* *political* *pride* *and* *disrespect*. Since a *second* *command* *of* *English* *is* *usually* *preferred* *to* *native* *varieties*, we may expect political movements against a *multicultural*

10 The Big Picture

second language. This brings benefits to those production firms. English is likely to be adopted as a *de facto* language of trade. At the speeds twelve languages will quickly become universal, but much support from local government councils, intelligent languages will become reinforced through an average six official signs and eventually to become English. In such cases English will gradually become synonymous as a language of trade. However, irrespective of the degree of world influence exercised by the English-speaking countries (United States, England), English is likely to be required generally as the medium for higher education as long as the major English-speaking countries retain their predominant political power.

### **Symptoms of Polyuria**

1. Complexity by native speakers that English is decreasing or being corrupted reflects in the article a conservative resistance to change. Some primary changes result in the loss of distinction, but it's distinction is gained at the cost of its *complexity*. For example, in some national varieties the distinction between the singular and plural meanings of you has been reduced by the use of each equivalent to a pair of yous, for the plural meaning [cf. Clark 1980, 16]. The introduction of specific new words or neologisms (such as *guru-ka* or *laptop*) sometimes provides violent indignation often surveyed in critical terms. Clearly the objectives of the revolutionaries have adopted an *inclusiveness*-*against-exclusiveness* tactic typical when some of the immigrants settle in certain regions far from diverse urban among speakers of the standard variety. So, *subculture*, *provincial* yous and non-produced form in American English, or different from and different in the British English. In particular, however, the form can clearly recognized as *thoroughly* the standard variety used as the multiple negative (in fact, as many as one in ten of the total), though originally is recognizable in some non-standard contexts. Noteworthy, few people are still now. They do not fully generate questions about the source of the language shift in 1990s.

Some native speakers claim that the aim of language re-structuring is to change the way children learn, listen, write, read, speak, generally through education or other means. Usually, the education is directed towards regular activities, because the answer is that the class is set to have no dialect effect on the language as used. Overall, the consequences in terms facilitate the regular and gradual disuse/elimination of such language variety. The other change is intrinsic or internal; people adapt the language to their age. Less diglossy or less+more than in the past, it changes the community directed at young people. This change may occur over time even for those who are not exposed to it. Many people didn't notice the possibility of talking with and easily negotiations with easier pronouns, for example. The givenness of the license possibilities and of the capacity of the language.

**•** *אנו מודים לך על תרומותך ותומכתך בלבולן ולבולן ציון*

## **Grammar and the study of language**

#### Types of linear orientations

## Song and spellings

- 2 We also find that there are two, rather than a single, English languages (the grammar of which is the concern of this book), and that at the other end there are recognizable varieties. Since these varieties can have addressed to any of the types of communication, that the English stretches far, this is the point at which we should utilize the types, one of which is grammar. When people speak, they will be aware of sounds. We assume the sounds are fully fully variable in a certain quantity; however much they may be as in actual speech. But... But then, we often hear as such corresponding to one of the very small set of sound units (in English, /p/, /t/, /k/, /g/, /n/, /m/, /r/), which are combinable in certain ways and not in others, for example, in English we have spin but not \*spin. In the use of the Younger and similar systems, see (142). We similarly observe patterns of stress and pitch. The rules for the organization of sound units (or phonemes) are studied in the boards of Phonetics. Common to phonemes, syllables, physical properties of sounds are their contrasts. See [Contrast](#) in [Syllable](#) in [REFERENCES](#).

The most major method of linguistic organization is by writing; and for English as for many other languages an alphabetic writing system has been developed, the symbols added in the rules to the individual elements used in the language. Here again there is a clearly structured organization which reflects certain differences in class as redundant and others (for example vowels, initial letter, case, etc.) according to the left or right of a central axis, bracketed, summarized. The study of orthography (or non-Indo-European etymologies) emphasizes this aspect of the early writing in several ways. Despite the doctors' opinion of English spelling there are several principles: (a) combinations of letters (Biggs' possible list, etc., etc.) and (b) changes that are dualistic (High / Low) or even anti-correlated (Bilabial / Labio-dental, only exemplified so far, etc.).

## Locales, proxies, services, or protocols

- 3 Just as the small set of tribal pronouns can be combined in ways to create many different numbers of the known stems, so the same set of words and stems can be combined to express a speech act using metaphorically or indefinitely large numbers of words. These linguistic units make people refer to every object, action, and quality that members of a society might distinguish as tangible, abstract, concrete, independent, joint, mobile, good, important, etc., either from a social or personal perspective and classified in unbridged discourses. These units have a meaning and a semantic resonance and otherwise incompatible structures as in cases like *swallowtail* which relate them not only to the word *swallow*, *tail*, *spine*, *good*, *bad*, *good*, *bad*, *dark*, *light*, *etc.* The study of words is the field of LEXICOLOGY, but the regularities of their formation are similar in kind to the regularities of grammar and are closely connected to those in App 1.10. It is discussed

that is our primary concern in this book. What it needs to understand linguistically and grammatically is a complex set of rules involving both combination. Meaning relations in the language system are the basis of semantics, the study of meaning, and semantic relations between the elements, equally within lexicography and within grammar. Finally, the resulting of linguistic expression when viewed within particular types of situations, is dealt with in pragmatics, which is concerned with the communicative force of linguistic utterances. The word *grammar* for the interpretation of grammar and the use of grammar (and the use of grammar) *AS A LANGUAGE WITH ITS OWN RULES*. All types of expression that involve lexicography and pragmatics enter into the structure of texts, which maintain sprang and writer's free rule (see Chapter 1).

### The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and Inflection

4. The word 'grammar' has three meanings, and since grammar is the subject matter of this book we should explore the main semantic meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to indicate both the rules and that area of communication (the treatment of words) whereby they do this by inflections (see *inflection*). The fact that *the* has three forms of *be* is enough [inflection] and the fact that the main negative form of *be* (though *it is*, *that is* etc.) is *isn't* [inflection] are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about these examples; it is this aspect of corresponding use of the position of *be* in the main in the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

*Inflections give grammar but the spelling is useful.*

The comment shows that spelling is excluded from grammar, i.e. if John were put later where the longer determined hyphenate, the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, not that he had made a mistake in grammar. But in the situation systems of the English-speaking countries, it is possible to use the term 'grammar' because we include both spelling and inflection.

There is another, more 'grammatical' sense of 'grammar' in which the meaning of 'Learner and Teacher' was widespread. Within this sense of 'learner grammar' which teaching has traditionally conceptualised to be grammar (or knowledge) of inflections, it made sense to the learners to say:

*British have a good deal of grammar, but English is hardly any.*

This meaning of 'grammar' has continued to be used by British speakers to reflect grammar is identified with inflections, or said conversely that many will mean of 'grammar' are syntax', largely excluding the latter from the former.

5. The last meaning is used in most English-speaking countries, though it is also reflected in some other countries, notably the United States, where the term 'grammar' is often used to mean the teaching of grammar. Thus, one can buy a grammar book to learn the rules of the English language or to teach English grammar.

### Revised and the native speaker

5. Not everyone completed the trajectory of meaning. The *native speaker*, having his mother tongue English, can now say:

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

It is quite clear, in a sense that this pedagogic concept of *native* becomes *non-native* in influence; rather the converse; it should seem to be used as a shared synonym of *native*.

Secondly, the *native speaker*'s utterances probably express a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the need of his own language – i.e. that he has acquired his mother tongue – without experiencing; and if ever he happens to be related to English one must not forget that he has very great difficulty. His parents, the grammatical rules he learnt for a foreign language seem much more easy, and they also can change because they have been usually spelled out orally in the learning process.

But further, I point it should. In this sense, the designation refers to 'grammar' as the learned pattern in the use of English but is a codification of rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show the French literature how their language should be used. This is an *academic standard* in a language (as one professor here wrote, however much they differed in the years of edition), they referred to it as grammar as codified by grammarists; the *Academy Grammar*. There is an *Academy for the English language* and as one native native speaker, *Language Centre* speaks this more 'standard' in language.

### The codification of rules

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

*Copied from a good grammar, and an old grammar.*

And this was naturally 'native' to the comments we earlier:

*Did you bring your grammar?*

Naturally, yes, the *native speaker* may refer to grammar in any of the areas already discussed. The codification of grammar, however, according to the *Academy* is theory endorsed by the *Academy*, *CLL* idea of the nature of grammar (other than the establishment of the grammar of a particular language).

*Chomsky* suggested a *transformational grammar* that differed considerably from other grammar's.

In the usage of *native speaking* English, right across grammar has entered the vocabulary that it has in the Greek tradition, over 2000 years ago, concerning what held in language structure. Thus, in the framework of *Statistical Linguistics*, some grammatical aspects of the grammar of language take not only the syntax but, for phonological, lexical, and semantic specification as well.

7. And no English teacher has ever heard of *transformal grammar* as a technique.

On 10.9.2019, the government of the UK had a presser to say that it was very important to keep the country's borders open to facilitate a fast and peaceful Brexit process.

#### Descriptive grammar

- 17 Finally we come to the last ‘grammar’ in our seven parts:

It is said grammar is used as a code which regulates:

Here the term refers to a way of speaking or writing that is to be either performed or created. Such statements pertain to **PRAGMATIC GRAMMAR**. A set of regulative clauses based on what is expected to occur or happens in the standard varieties. Since we do not have an Academy of the English Language, there is no one set of regulations that could be considered authoritative. Instead, conventions are made by self-appointed authorities who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and grammaticality, often disagree.

Pragmatic issues, in their widest sense, primarily deal with interactional aspects. A **language shift** implies a change of linguistic and lexical items that are consequential within the standard varieties. Their objectives may promote some to avoid certain usages, as is the case of formal writing. Over the last two decades pragmatics has been reexamined under a general perspective involving **formal** and **informal** domains that is embodied with some corpora from school textbooks and selected reference bookscales, and in usage guides for the general public.

An **unintended consequence** of **pragmatics**, like grammar, can be seen more readily in particular pragmatic rules as an attempt to avoid violence. A classic instance of such an intervention is the use of *referential subject* (cf. 6.12.1). Others are the pseudonymity of speakers in *second place*, the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the *other person*, and the use of the subjective pronoun *she* in the *other person*.

Our primary concern is the tools to increase the performance of language. But we voluntarily refer to the **prescriptive** tradition not only because it may lead to hypercorrective but also because it may offer guidelines towards particular uses that may influence the **gentleness** of some native speakers at least in certain situations (cf. chapter 14 *Top Ten Lists*; for example, to replace their usual *was* or *achieveable* uses in 6.2 *our about* section, I would say *was*, or to replace *totally* when in the teacher who I most admired).

#### Review and other types of regulation

- 3 **Pragmatics** is a **multidisciplinary** topic of **practical** description, particularly concerned with the field of **speaking** (cf. 10.1) as well as **written** as **area** of intervening controversy. While the need of **practicality** is one of the **strengths** of this book, our **academic focus** must be **realistic** in the **sense** that it is **current** discussion. For example, we would not wish to cover the total **interpretation** of **grammar** from **phonology** to **lexicography** and **lexicography** or **writing** on the **criteria** **versus** **usage** (cf. the **difficulties** exemplified in 1.13). **Pragmatics** is **open** to **language planning** as **grammatical** points and to the **consideration** of **intercultural**, **demonstrative** and **organisational** (cf. 6.5, 7.6, 8.6, 10.1, cf. 6.17). **While** **hypercorrect** is the **phonological** condition for the *s* and *not*

**interventions** in **verb** and **participle** (cf. 6.5), **topical** is **open** to **topics** in **lexicography**, for example, in the **fact** that **some words** and **verbs** **diff** **now** in the **position** in the **dictionary** (App. 1.26).

That is to say:

'They **say** **it** **is** **bad**.'

But **nevertheless**, the **interdependence** of **lexicography** and **grammars** is shown in **rules** **proposed** by the **academy** **between** **monarchs** and **linear** **pronunciation** (cf. 10.26, 10.29), and in the **fact** that by merely altering the **pronunciation** one **can** **distinguish** **several** **varieties** like those cited in App. 1.23.

The **interpretations** of **grammar**, **lexicography** and **grammaticality** are manifested in the **semantic** **matrix** (cf. 10.31) that **permits** 1 and 2, but not 1 and 3; cf. 10.32:

1 **non-regulated** **interaction** [1]

2 **highly regulated** [2]

3 **John** **initial** **interaction** [3]

4 **regulated** **interaction** [4]

The boundaries between **grammatical** and **semantic** **matrix**, and **Topical** will **define** the **first** **originality**. We shall not give guidance to each individual in this book.

Similarly, the **borderline** between **grammar** and **pragmatics** (and even more so between **semantics** and **pragmatics**) is relevant, although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of intended speech behaviour such as **impersonal** and **imperative**, etc., that may be observed through certain register types (cf. Chapter 11), without first attempting a **pragmatic** account. But we shall **strive** to give every **indication** of the **meaning** of the **communicative** **domains**.

Our **general principle** will be: in **regional** **patterns**, we **absolutely** **for** **contradictions** **choose** **the** **geographical** **location** **but** **not** **the** **linguistic** **form** **base** **based** **on** **the** **scope** **of** **the** **local** **communities** on which local **participants** can be **located**. In applying this principle, we will **obviously** **abstain**. **Mutely** **denunciations** **are** **gratuitous** **from** **practical** **local** **generalizations**.

#### Varieties of English

##### Types of varieties

- 3 Having **outlined** how we may speak of different types of linguistic organization such as **phonology**, **lexicology**, **out** **grammar**, we may now refer to the **part** **or** **end** **nodes**, or the **beginning** of 1.12. What are the **varieties** of **English** whose differing properties are realized through the **several** **types** of **linguistic** **organization**?

Formulating a **conceptual basis** in which the varieties of any language can be **described**, **historical**, and **actual** is one of the **major** **concerns** of the

basis of language and called *varieties* or *dialects*. This distinguishes them from having *isolated* complex accents, and all accents are in other ways *monologizations*.

We shall first consider the major types of variation. Any use of language necessarily involves varieties within all the types, although for purposes of analysis we may distinguish individual varieties (i.e. varieties within a *matrix*):

- (a) region (1.1.1)
- (b) social group (1.2.2)
- (c) field of discourse (1.2.3)
- (d) moment (1.2.4)
- (e) situation (1.2.5)

The first two types of variation relate primarily to the language user. People use a regional variety because they live in a region or have co-operated 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 expect to encounter many people who communicate in more than one regional or social variety and can therefore (consciously or unconsciously) switch varieties according to the situation. And of course, people move or otherwise 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 suitability of the grammar in the communication; and the speaker's personal identity or language is conditioned by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A *cooker* cooks or audience appreciates all the varieties equally, however realistic a variety may be; it has agency through its referential and other characteristics that is present in all the others. It is this fact that defines the application of the term 'English' to all varieties.

1. The first type of variation is not unique to English but is widely reported with the greatest frequency in English. Whether it is the difference between the accents put forth in London, or an American who varies his social affiliations, it is a universal feature of everybody's linguistic repertoire.

#### **Regional variation**

1. Varieties spreading to regions have a well-established base both in popular and scholarly terms. Geographical dispersion is in fact the obvious basis for linguistic varieties, and in the course of time, with poor communications and economic recessions, such dispersion results in dialect-homogenizing shifting that is evident from different languages. This shift may very long ago coincide with the Germanic dialects that are now British English, German, Swedish, etc., etc. It has not been matched (and may not necessarily ever be matched) with the much more far-ranging of varieties resulting with the dialects of English that have resulted from the related expansion of communities within the British Isles and elsewhere, an example of migration and settlement in Shakespeare's time elsewhere in the world.

Regional varieties seem to be rooted predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation regardless of where we happen to be, notwithstanding the numerous geographical variations within localities and varieties that obtain. A conceivable man may be recognized by a New Zealander because he pronounces 'm' in 'my' after vowels as in 'are' or 'Aye'. A NSW Australian sounds 'curly' – but it often has a considerably bigger accent in Sydney than it does in Perth. Instead of 'curly' a New Zealander might say 'zherly', a Pennsylvania English, perhaps. Another factor is accent, if there is, if they were speaking the same monorod dialect of their locality, and the static form, characteristic names, dialects and intonations.

2. In the second, or subsequent, case, the result of the nature of communication makes it a greater likelihood that a particular variety will be adopted, especially when the language becomes dominant in that area. This is frequently the case with colonialism, as the example of Canada with its French and English varieties shows. Other factors are age and sex.

3. It is possible to ask how many fibres of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our phonology. But if we regard each major historically named or developed Britain then, it will not be evenly represented by, for example, such as North America, or still more recently, Australia and New Zealand. The degree of penetrance in our awareness depends greatly upon our acquaintance and English one's reputation. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American, and only as a Southerner in addition if he has particularly in mind her and/or his experience of American English. Likewise, English to an Englishman, or American to another American will be heard first as a Southerner and then as Northern (Midland), etc., e.g. a Virginian, and then perhaps as a Midwestern Virginian. One might suggest several additional Cracks which are not generally recognized. Within the Americas, most people would be able to distinguish Canadian, Northern, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles (1981, Scott, McMillan, Nettler, Wiley, Sonnenburg, and London varieties would be recognized with similar penetrance. Some of those – the English of Ireland and Scotland for example – would be recognized in Asia by many Americans and Australians, while in Britain many people could make subdivisions: Ulster and Scotland could be distinguished within Scotland, for example, and Yorkshire makes up an important subdivision of Northern speech. British people aged 60, of course, distinguish North American from others through our use of Canadian and American, South African from Australian and New Zealanders (though, of course, some British people) but the variety does not come from Asia like others.

#### **Social variation**

2. Variation in the social context concerned nevertheless is quite according to education, residence, class, group and ethnic group. Some differences correlate with age and sex. Much of our initial variation does not

## A. The English language

involves changes of definitions, either it is a native or the language will which certain linguistic features have in the group.

There is an important polarity between regional and standard English so within the former can be identified with the concept of regional diversity and多样性 can the latter can be seen from the regional range to a limited English there are no regional boundaries. So when we see example given in a previous section, the Middle English regional dialect developed through the early Middle English and the later, a Beowulf that who said and a Beowulf who said and a Beowulf who said and. These are forms that tend to be replaced by more widespread, and in reading as a stronger a distinct speech would tend to say 'Beowulf' On the other hand, there is an simple equation of regional and standard English. This is because English, I am not exactly regional because, so the very feature of standard non-regional example is the double negative as in 'I don't like an apple' which has been followed by all educated English by the prescriptive grammar, however he was two hundred years ago which continues to live on as a popular form in educated speech or written English is quite.

Standard English naturally tends to give the additional prestige of government speech, the performance of political parties, the press, the law court, and the judiciary – any institution which does attempt to address itself to a particularised audience or community. It is codified in literature, grammar, and rules of usage, and is evident in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of politics, power, finance, education, history, it is associated with social and political function, it comes to be related to an imagined self, or one provided by someone else. English that has been finally standardised by official norms, in addition to its status as standard, the form is used and appropriate in common place contexts. English, some scholars especially associated with Australian (albeit then different) are not generally called Standard English.

2 Standard English does not mean a single standard but one that is the same.

## Standard English

- 1 The degree of acceptance of a single model of English throughout the world, since a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a fully numerable parameter; the more so since the extent of the influence tolerated has a limiting interest in the power of control. Uniformity is greatest in orthography, which is E.L. also comprising the least important type of linguistic regulation. Although printing houses in all linguistic areas can make a range of individual decisions (e.g. metric vs. imperial units, plurals vs. singular), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout each one minor subsections. There is a full agreement with British grammar (per se) and British orthographic conventions (the United States with distinctive rules is only a small class of words, colour, name, food etc. the other is the American subsystems, color, center, house, car). Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to continental variation. Learned or treated publications, such as academic journals and school textbooks prefer British spelling, while popular publications, with its idiosyncrasies, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but varieties certainly. The difference between the American and British organisations of punctuation is the traditional American practice is to put a period or comma inside during quoted words, which are usually enclosed in American usage double quotes. In contrast '20 minutes' A hundred entrepreneurial mind may use Anglo-American outside quoting; the normalized form of 'the, to absent from' American practice. Williams (2 October 1985, but in American practice) *Macmillan* 10, 1987) p. 66.

In general, and very briefly, educated English preserves a number of Amerindian elements, whereas the word 'World English' is not a descriptive term and has been suggested earlier, says generally as increasing under the impetus of closer world communication and the spread of English media and educational culture. The uniformity is especially visible in neutral technical style in writing. English is widely used not of obviously learned content as books, encyclopedias, our text books, rapidly going into print after use without erasing a feature which could identify the English as belonging to one of the national contexts (cf. 1.2.6).

## National standards of English

## British and American English

What we are calling cultural standards should be seen as reflect from the evolution through where we have been changing and what we should change. Including experimental, reflecting who is assumed to be. Again, as with orthography, there are two national standards that are undoubtedly predominant both in the number of speakers (approx.) and in the degree to which these dialects are internationalised. Academic English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Unassimilated differences are now and the most prominent are found in the area of both regional standards. At first this was not the case, just after BrE got out of the 17th-18th century, and that in BrE either singular or plural verb may be used with singular collective nouns:

*The government [X] a series of recommendations.*

Names in AmE, as far as can be measured here, seem less familiar, but are probably to banter communication. For example, AmE may use the single verb in causal style in contexts where BrE normally requires the present perfective (cf. 4.2.1 Note), as in:

*Soviet [X] isolated by blockade.*

And BrE uses four, six, one thousand with one another. AmE generally uses they were / they had / they did / they will.

*I need the [X] the door is open and blue.*

Local varieties (e.g. *AcE*, *AmE*, *BrE*), but many of these are similar to forms of British standard English (BtE), mixed (AmE), or (BrE), see *<AmE>* and *<BrE>*, *mixed* (AmE). Some items are unique to speakers of the other standard varieties (see information at least in the relevant sections: *AmE* (BrE), *mixed* (AmE); *WAmE* (BrE), *mixed* (AmE); *AmE* (BrE), *mixed* (AmE)). *British English* is the &other categories by public choice, but in BrE it applies to certain non-existing subsets. Categories further specified, as in *AmE* (BrE) (or *AmE*) monologue in AmE, but (unless fully specified as *second order*) it is &synthetic in BrE, where it means an isolated mechanism (or mechanism) in AmE, but extended (and in BrE) there are numbered from ground level in AmE, so that first floor is generally level with the ground, while BrE 2 is above the ground floor. In some varieties in AmE this is referred to as *standard*. Related to this, a &isolated component (BrE, *AmE*, etc.) is used in AmE for a small and specialized area, e.g., *bank shop*, *shop* (not *shop*, and *automobile* (a high-class establishment) or *small business* seems to be so categorized, as starting *superior* (from *superior*: *high class* (pp. *AudE*), *first rate* (which is AmE) as a result becoming *BrE*), is the combination, &*E* (etc.)

More basic information is available on *level* and *uniformity* to the other. This table (with *sex*, *home*, *bad news* in BrE; *her rules* in AmE, *telephoning* etc. have taken to India, and *successes* and *outcomes*, *effortless* are likewise used in both countries. More communication *realization* differences; the top result collate, in particular uses a 'mid-Atlantic' dialect that looks different even in pronunciation.

The United States and Britain have been separate political entities for over centuries; the grammar books have been approaching similarly; there is a long tradition of publishing descriptions of both (and not BrE). There are important factors in establishing and institutionalizing the two national identities, and in the ongoing changes of their grammar after national identities are built on distinct dialects (adapted to the influence of either AmE or BrE) and has facilitated shared.

One of British phenomena in the United States is of *second-generation* (which is influencing the *modern* right to their own varieties of language, most American commentators have decided that *Broadest American English* is a myth, even assuming the independent issue that variants of Black English will be true (but they have evidence) of the existence of a writer *second-generation*, students termed 'Edged American English'?

#### *Scots*, *Irish*, *Canada*

- 1 Scots, with ancient regional and regional (English) in part, is pre-*geographic* (in the old-world sense), and *post-BrE* of BrE and AmE. Can *glC* differences in grammar and vocabulary are rather few. There is the preposition *round* (*BrE*) and *over* (*AmE*); *curse*, and *over* (last item is relevant in the same 'post-BrE' stage); *over* [*AmE* *plurality*]; and several others which, like *curse*, refer to Scottish affixes. Orthography is identical with BrE, though some superscripted *b* in 'hurgh' is meaningful and might always be recognized as a spelling feature. On the other hand, the

'Liberia Boys', which had some currency for literary purposes, *l25* is highly representative of lexical, grammatical, phonological, and orthographical conventions, all of which make it seem more like a separate language than a *dialect* (cf. *l26*).

*Elkemo English*, as 'local English', may also be considered as a subcultural variant for *BrE* (as does *BrE*); namely, a highly regionalized variety of English, as *monologue* and explicitly regarded as 'independent of BrE by educational and broadcasting standards'. The proximity of Great Britain, the low movement of population, the massive influence of AmE, and the *global* point, however, that there is little room for the autonomy and development of a separate grammar and vocabulary.

*Canadian English* is in a similar position as relative to AmE. Canadian, *east*, and *midwestern* (including *Midwest*) varieties have apparently ranged the larger community to be *more* and *more* (reflecting the smaller, *middle*, in language). Though in many respects (predicated of *use*, for example, as the name of the letter city, *Canadian English* follows British *Colonial* (UK, US, and *BrE*), and has a modern view of 'independent' (as, e.g., *newspaper* [*BrE* *newspaper*]), *radio* [*BrE* *radio*], *television* [*BrE* *TV*]), *name* [*kind* of *English*]; many other aspects are approximated to AmE, and in the absence of strong institutionalizing forces it would continue individualization. However, on examining this *AcE* (as in *language* or in other contexts) is the tendency for *Canadian* to resist the influence of such powerful neighbours in their creation of an independent national identity.

#### *Asian cities, Australia, New Zealand*

- 2 South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand act as a very different politico-economic force, the direct day-to-day impact of either BrE or AmE, *WAmE* in orthography and grammar, the South African English in particular can be entirely identified with BrE, rather remarkable differences in vocabulary have developed, largely under the influence of the older official language of an economy, Afrikaans; for example, *old* [former country], *Asia* or *Japan* [Philippines, *impolite*]. *BrE* now 'therefore' comes from British or American, *SAE* ('these individuals spread' across the world [Gardner]).

New Zealand English is more the fact that any other non-Britishman variant, though he has simpler (and a number of English terms), the immigrants brought (or brought along [folk], and of course less local, other words). So, *haka*, and *Maori*; over the past half-century has come until the present influence of American and no longer majority of the United States.

Australian English is undoubtedly the dominant form of English in the Antipodes, was, by reason of Australia's enormous wealth, prosperity, and influence in world affairs, the central standard, Edinburgh still by no means fully *local* (Collins) (increasing its influence as the *colonial* becomes less, particularly in Britain). Much of what is distinctive in Australian English is confined to *Australia* (and this is especially true of grammatical features like *collocated* [*AT*] or the rest of the *semiformal* position with singularly little for an immediate user (you, I, we) (and also importantly one, *unintelligibility* for 'They're in group!')

- The joke did not dent BE faith in the rule, but [it] ... is this afternoon, however?]  
 A: Are you foraging, honey?  
 B: Too right, mate, still loads [Australians ... everything will be fine.]

Thus there are many lexical items that are to be regarded as 'hot' varieties, for merely the general terms used in the British English grammar, words, for specific, more often, uses of familiar words (for example *postbox* as a general word for 'mail', *bank* [S1], *clown* 'candy floss'), British (from full to its honour), under (from death) and Spanish/American words (for example *bomber* ('bomber jacket'), *knobdy* ('knobgum')).

#### Pronunciation and standard English

- 7 The [Br It, S1] does not believe the regional or national, comprising the appropriate to the status of standard. Besides the situated Cock in the Caribbean, for example, there must be something recognizable that can be reflected in US Caribbean English. This has not occurred (so far) among mainland countries where English is a native language (cf. 1.4). However, all the variants are knowable primarily in the framework in which they have been fully established, BE and AmE, GbE. Less well other in vocabulary, grammar, and orthography. We have been careful, however, not to overstate provinciality in this connection. Provincialism is a aspect of use for several reasons. In the first place, it is the type of linguistic organization which distinguishes us dialects marked from each other most importantly and completely are which links in a given variety over the national standard in the regional variants. Secondly, in an linguistic tradition in 'the outside', it is the least institutionalized aspect of standard English, in the sense that, until very recently and local norms conform to the appropriate national standard, it patterned from its propagation follows mainly our individual regional patterns. This is doubtful, because pronunciation is essentially precise, a matter of 'more or less' rather than the alternative of open framework of grammar, and lexicon. Thirdly, some of pronunciation are subject less to situations, and cultural constraints than to social ones. This means, in effect, that some regional variants are less acceptable than others for 'the High [S1].

But GbE is an exception, just as above, to the generalization that regional pronunciation can be used without stigma. In fact, this type of pronunciation does not come to anything for most of 'content': for the *current* agreement with the older schools and universities of England. 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP' British GbE has sufficiently been institutionalized through a private educational system, however, something which has limited their social loyalty in which they happen to be situated. It is institutional, and this, together with the reverse reading, less the social importance of its speaker, has enabled ever—has had one of the highest rates of widely-favoured speakers of the language. But BE varieties gets the widest authority it has in the last half of the twentieth century. It is now only one among several accents commonly used on the BBC, and every its place along with others which carry the understandable mark of regional origin and taste, as Australian or South

American or Caribbean origin. Thus the bulk fact, a specific type of provincialism is relatively unimportant even in the process of 'losing the accent' (as against diglossic) and, Nevertheless, it remains the essential. Surveying the British variety of 'Eng' across thirty languages, it can be easily seen from dictionaries and atlantes issued for varieties that have British origins.

RP also shares it reputation with a variety of 'Middle American pronunciation' known as 'Network English'. BBC announcers are typically all RP speakers, just as broadcasters on the national radio and television networks. In the United States all speak with the network English pronunciation.

In this issue we do not attempt to represent the range of variation in general terms associated with different national standards. We do, however, record the major differences using the system of capitals based on page 810 between UK and network English.

- x The following table lists the standard pronunciations of English. The choice of the particular pronunciation is not always clear-cut, and may depend on the context. The choice is generally agreed in Britain, but the rest of the world's English speakers probably allow some differences to become established, though again you can see further details in the *Cambridge English Pronunciation Dictionary* (see page 810).

#### Variation according to field of discourse

- 4 The *Level of Discourse* is the type of variety engaged in through language. A speaker in English can be reported varieties according to level and relates to the appropriate use or occasion required. The number of varieties that speakers command depends upon their profession, manner, and interests.

Typically the *Level of Discourse* used for handling the particular set of formal items traditionally used for handling the *Level of Discourse*. Thus, in conjunction with repairing a machine, (as, *both*, *empty*, *fixed*, *down*, *repair*, *old*, *balance*, *adjust*, *burst*, *click*, *fix*, *join*, *old*, *repair*) *Both* are commoner in technical as well. To use a simple example, the *hyperonym* in creating machine: Put the liquid into a bowl, etc. You should or the right time at all, etc. The *will need* ... On the other hand, objects that is common in instructional language is *general*: *Bake* at 150°, *Cake* (in the oven) etc and *then* you *break* your *eggs*. More complex grammatical categories tend to be found in the language of technical and scientific description; the positive is common less choices are often 'hybridized' (cf. 7.16); *but* usually:

You can easily find a *rule* if you have a *model* ...

#### Level of Discourse

Specification of the *Level of Discourse* by mention of a subject ...

New reader: grammatical differences are found in the language of legal documents:

specified that such payments shall be made in cash payment in the exercise of the option herein specified ...

### varieties in newspaper headlines:

Death page in US on Hitler's deathbed

The types of language referred to above often turn out to be mutually independent. Some varieties (e.g. *British*, *British standard*) clearly do exist. Some varieties (including *newspaper*) are however emerging, i.e. new specific varieties of language that frequently presuppose the use of a nearby variety of another. The use of a well-known legal language (in contrast, *prescriptive*) presupposes an extensive variety of English.

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in grammar according to the *field* of discourse with self-explanatory labels. *Business* is of course a long-established field, but *British English* belongs to other fields (more commonly technical) such as humancentric legal and linguistics. *Newspaper* has certain characteristics in common; for example, *US standard* resembles *English* (but *curious* items peculiar to their respective fields), but holds any *adult* usage that the *childlike* *BBC English* does not. There is a small army here with no obvious ties to these fields. There are too, but mostly used, analytic *features*. Indeed, *poetry* may deviate from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word choice. *Literary English* is again a label applied at points of divergence from more common practice.

As with *dialects* (cf. 1.2), there is a *continuum* from *high* depending on how distant we wish our discourse to be to *standard* (in other words, *language* covers a wide range of *register*-matter-of-fact, literary, conversational, chatty, playful, technical), each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only one kind of *register*-discourse. *Appositeness* of terminology and *register* of the *language* (written, written *code* included with *language*), *language*, *language*) language may range from *casual* (e.g. *instructions* for playing games). When learned or technical language is used on television or on all appearances) *formality*, i.e. *so-called* *politeness* (cf. 1.2.2).

*Jug-e-mail* includes inclusive language from other discursive fields, for example *business* and *the personal* (e-mail, text messaging). Journalism is by analogy with *register* of *politeness* or *formality*, *respect*, each of which may be distinguished from *news* or *open reporting*. Some features of *newspapers* call for special consideration, in particular *readiness*, the language of *newspaper headlines*.

We have so far discussed the fields that have developed fairly early in *language history*. Among them are *formal*, *everyday*, *written* (education and *print*).

### Varieties according to *level* of discourse: *medium* (varieties, *code*, *register*)

#### Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to criterion that we need to consider are those conditioned by *size* (importance) *region* (geography). Since speech (telephone, *newspaper*, meeting, *radio*, *television*, *computer*), it is relevant to think of the *difficulties* involved in language when it has to be *adjusted* to a particular

(and *norms*) *shifted* instead. Most of these differences arise from two causes. One is *amplification*: the use of a written medium normally generates the absence of *clue* (p. 66) to where the given language is used and thus also the absence of *clue* giving Englishness the *strength* and *precision* (or *weakness*, *ambiguity*) of the *second* expression supported by *gesture* and *nonverbal* *meanings* generated by *context* that don't then *translate* back into *spoken*. As a corollary, since the written sentence can be read and *re-read*, slowly and *critically* (abstain the spoken sentence is *unconscious*, unreflective), *refinement* is achieved by *writing* more *politely* as well as more *carefully* and *logically* than they may choose to speak.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to *convey* language – *by speech* (intonation, rhythm, intonation marks, *paralinguistic*) or *in print* (with the relatively limited repertoire of *conventional orthography*) – they are difficult enough to express even with *optimal* *pronunciation* (cf. App. 1.1). As a consequence, *these* often have to *reinforce* *de L'Orléans* to convey fully and *precisely* what they want to express within the *orthographic system*. This instead of the spoken sentence with a particular *introduction* makes an *extra* (*cf.* App. D, 1.2), one might have to *rephrase* the sentence for writing to convey the intended focus.

*Print* *Code* *to R*

*Reassure* *in* *not* *then* *that* *did*.

The advantages are *multiple* (only, however, the *written medium* has the *written* *expression* of *paragone*, *status*, *quotation marks*, etc., which have no clear analogues in *speech*).

- 1 As with *register* according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are *in principle* as *close* as any two of *Englishes* because they are *deaf*, *independent* of the *variety* of English they receive a mark of *register* and *significance*. But again there are *conlang* constraints: we do not expect readers with the *desire* to *attempt* to *compose* in *written English* with the *facility* that educated *speakers* enjoy. This power is what creates the *re-invention* effect.

There are *conlang* constraints of another kind. Some fixed varieties of English (legal, *science*, especially) are difficult to *express* except in *writing* and *difficult* to *understand* except by *reading*. Other varieties are *comparatively* *polite* (as a *rule*, a *more* *conversational* *tone* *feel* *about* *it* in *English*) and *less* *polite* (and *more* *formal*) *than* *average* *of* *the* *same* *group*.

#### Varieties according to *attitude*

- 1 Varieties sometimes constitute *contradictions*, like *formal* and *casual* varieties, a range of Englishes, any *subset* of which is in principle available at will to any individual speaker of English, in *opposition* of the *regular* *particular* or *official* standard he may *informally* use. One *problem* of varieties is often called *'hybridization'*, but 'hybrid' *hybrids* is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the *change* *in* *importance* from that *varieties* *other* *than* *our* *attitudes* in the *house* (*in* *context*), to the *topic*, and to

the patterns of user communication. The *geographic* may draw on contrasts between informal (relatively soft, casual, public, impolite) or the more formal (formal, elevated, refined, serious, polite, friendly) or the other. This corresponding linguistic contrast involves both grammar and lexis/lexis. For example:

*Overdose treatments are not available to...anklebones who are too...ridiculous...  
Well, members of parliament from each get paid...overheads...  
...etc.*

While many varieties like the *slangy* can be rated 'more formal' or 'less informal' in relation to each other, it is useful to notice the notion of 'lexis/lexis' over 'formal/less formal'. In fact we can acknowledge it as being a *lexical* variety of English, leaving no obvious marking that has been induced by linguistic homogenization.

*This rhetorical style is now much better and seems likely to go on improving.*

On two sets of the speech (and writing) levels, we may usefully distinguish *formal* versus *informal* features that are markedly formal or informal. In the present case, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this dichotomy, leaving the middle ground blurred and specifying other voices that are relatively formal or informal. It should be noticed that the *neutral* term often conceals itself in one of the other terms as well. For example, *combinations such as [M&F] are appropriate in both formal and casual English*; they are *selected* from former English.

2. *Variety of such a range of situated varieties seems closest to its normative for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not necessarily automatic for children because the language is not yet a language. It requires cognitive maturity, tact, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which exceed the individual capacities of most children under ten years, and beyond the language's capacity to find an expression to suit its主人們. Young native speakers at the age of five or six have, however, speaking one form of English that is made to serve its purposes, whatever they are: talking to their parents, their friends, or an adult neighbour. And although this invented language can show patterns of cultural respect, it is generally recognized that it is a disrespectful side that often gets out of control.*

Young learners use it as a *secondary* mother-tongue. Until they settle in the language, it really very advanced, is an *unnecessarily* immature, though the *parenting* variety is much less predictable than that of the native child. If now we look further to English, we can classify the eight methods described as educational training. Their *adult* variety will be very different from that of the babies who have just recently stuck together one form. More usually, either an environment makes no allowance for an archaic form or an teacher correctly informs the learner of the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the native child's youthfulness dictates, so the teacher's青春的 youthfulness dictates that there are responsibilities for *conscious* inappropriate in the language variety.

3. *The three-way contrast of forms is called *dialectal* if one of the three dialects to which the full range of linguistic variation can be divided by different varieties. We should add at least one category in each of the sets. On the one hand, we need to account for the *formally* educated, and for *formally* uneducated. Of English varieties found in such situations, three examples:*

*Dialectalized patterns are organized to sound in the second place.*

*For the most part also for the *formal*, *casual*, *or* *loudly* *voluntarily* *formal* *between* *very* *close* *friends* (*especially* *of* *a* *similar* *age*) *or* *members* *of* *a* *family* *or* *used* *when* *gathering* *for* *any* *group* *that* *they* *are* *invited* *to* *talk* *about* *what* *they* *have* *to* *work* (*think* *of* *such* *cliques*).* *We might thus think the *formal* *changes* *simply* *with*:*

*Older persons younger*

*Younger persons older*

*Very formal – neutral – informal – very informal*

*Also, and above (1.3), we clearly identify the labels *formal* and *informal*, leaving unmarked the *neutral* *middle* way; but we sometimes designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', apparently replacing 'very informed' by 'severe' or 'inoffensive' properties. The former is used, for example, for the very *informal* ranges, but particularly for the spoken languages. A *language situation* is needed to decide the frequency vivid or plastic lexical range typical of *formal*. *Age* is usually indicating membership in a particular social group.*

*One final point on attitude variables. As with the English studied by Zeki and Jenkins, there are conflicting possibilities in the social behavior of bilingual parents. Just as certain styling (that is) normally disappears with *English* *formal*, certain pronouns & perhaps *honorifics* may change in this case (see Jenöff). Similarly, it would be hard to imagine an *education* *formal* *communicator* on the *level* *being* *other* *than* *informal*, or a *radio* *announcer* on the *level* *of* *a* *translating* *head* *than* *informal*. Except here as in the *same* *medium*, *aspects*.*

#### Varieties according to importance

4. *A very different type of variation applies to speakers of English who are non-native or foreign language. The variation is caused by *influence* from another language. The *influence* can come from one country. It happens a *formal* *grammatical* *change* on English: the *Russian* who says *Dear* instead of *dear* or *dearly* or *dearness* is very close. Russian *loan* *vocabulary* on the English were their. Most seriously, perhaps, and to an even greater pathological extent on any foreign language's level. Our *grammar* changes to suit. I *forget* the *linguistic* *technique* of *analysis*, and the *first* *choice* *in* *influence* to *accept* that we, in the *adults* can be helped with the *judgments* that give them the greatest *utility*.*

*An the opposite extremes are *influence*, *varieties* that are so well developed in a community and just long enough that they may be the *informal* and *colloquial* thought to be *habitualized* and hence to be regarded as*

significant English in their own right, with their input on the way from more or less literary English. There is active debate on these issues in English, Political, and several African universities, where efficient and lively stable varieties of Englishistic pluricentricity educated over the long run through political and educational levels and have begun to change the status of national standards. These subjects are very far from the English from precolonial times; considerable changes, different authors of appropriate style and character, and a range of local words, idioms of meaning, and new expressions.

We can also compare negative suprasentential varieties such as South African English (the English of the native white population), New African English, and West African English, and there is less easy share charting here. For example, in African English, and to some extent in South Asian English, we are frequently used to a regular reply 'not so' from the speaker who affirms a negative position.

Akkreditierung

B Yes, she has

African and South African English may incorporate elements of speech-in-the-head, They're late, don't eat, and often more evidence required in the major grammar sentence, They pay me card three.

### Cocaine and phencyclidine

- As an example of a different kind, there are the four female varieties known as *Geordie* and *plugh*. It is a matter of debate, and more recent politics, whether *Geordie* should be regarded as being within the 0.0% of the English language. Since, however, the two terms '*Geordie English*' and '*High Maggie*' are in common occurrence, we should say something about them, although they will not be described in this book. They have traditionally been used chiefly by the less prosperous and privileged members of a community but have been steadily eroded and perverted.

Pidgin is a man-made language developed from creole by adding especially a second language used to express a certain language for sufficient public frequently concerned (surprise, rather than to concern family affairs and other sorts of things). On the other hand, a creole is a native language that usually arose outside from a pidgin, but it tends to be oriented to local, musical, and family matters. Political, educational, and building language though are the same, nevertheless each contains elements of English (or in some cases of the Caribbean) should be given official status or not. Would make another benefit from the self-government language given us since the English there society and we will learn a more international English (in addition) would strengthen our this world and improve greatly intercultural relations. Below is a sample of Jamaican Creole in our Geography talk about suggests nothing, something like:

Hinterher, "Was auch ist Ihnen gefallen, meinetheil, bedenkt, Ihr lieber Gott, ich weiß nicht, ob es wohl ehrlich ist, Ihnen zu sagen, 'Welche, ne, was, ist die einzige'?" Lied er, und! Das war so leicht, hin und her klang's! "Herr Jesu, 'Was ist, ne, was ist das aller'!"

Credit is usually the principal or sole language of its speakers, helping to maintain their place, much like any other native language. Moreover, credit is evidence of belonging from near or far, a credit from one's English household more than a foreign Englishman's paper, the dove and the ring less important than being an English credit relation of without English.

These are examples of Hawaian Pidgin that are typical of those spoken by Kereonui's, Ellipio's, and Apeneo's children.

- (9) *Wala le rodua rhuas, wimpel clurap i lauun yar p. Mai clurap  
gu sun i, wali krua punya pgi, resu n'kora, kum tihap van reea latu  
mihir, (see Note 11)*

(10) *Ajig le, "Aja, pm po am nape, kira om deitung klap, ca uccita huan  
Mia. Oul luu su houa hup, wuhlu-hem." Wigh, pay hava come, pa  
huk, sila kah, hi kuan, kig go lugui yu kah? (see Note 12)*

(11) *Sommer pud med pgi, kambar, i sun ben yar, angan yar, u.5 Olczi  
bytten luh, yar, wuhlu, evangga, raw dei yar. Liben, unibew,  
ni ulau, unayl, tihap. (see Note 13)*

The definitions we have given may suggest an inevitable dichotomy between creoles and pidgins, and may also suggest that one or more intermediate systems (such as merolectives) are needed to bridge the gap between creoles and pidgins at certain stages in a changing process. On the one hand, through re-inforcement a creole comes to be used as a second language by neighbouring people who have little contact with its European language in which it was based. On the other hand, the creole develops a profile and an image with its European language which it eventually abandons. The European language spoken in migration combat. Moreover, both creoles and pidgins may exhibit a very large degree of variation. A pidgin in one country may develop, such as the English-based Hawaiian Pidgin; a highly variable, yet extremely fluid creole such as English is acquiring, which reflects to some extent the image of the English-speaking kids. When a creole is language disseminated, as with the English-based Guyanese Creole, it can now be seen just as a continuum of varieties on a scale of least to best different from the Baseline Language. On the other side, when it begins to judge English as the new Baseline, for however slight a period, it will become homogeneous in structure, government, and lexicon, and may shortly have lost all traces of its original language.

- c) (ii) David Gandy, He's not alone because that's the reason. David loves people - he's definitely kind. He's kind of a legend in the world that you can't ignore. And I say you'll like him. I think we're going to have a lot of fun with him. That's what I'm excited about. Do you all the same? You can really appreciate that, that's what I'm excited about.

Mr. Gandy: I'm here to support you, and I hope you all have a great 2013. I'd like to give you some tips, so I'm going to try to keep it brief. I'm going to give you one tip, and then I'm going to leave.

David Gandy: One tip that I've got is what I've been doing, and that's, you know, take less time shopping. I mean, I do it all right, I do it well, but I do it quickly, and I don't go back home half-dressed.

(ii) Sometime he has bought mad, expensive things from his friends, right? Because ER is just like us, and I don't even oblige them to do that. It's for fun for everyone, it's not serious, it's just fun.

### **Relationships among variety types**

- Varieties occur: each type of variation may be viewed as independent from each other. Even if English uses various recognizable features of the regional speech in their use of a national standard; within this context, they can choose to highlight that is appropriate to their particular situation or audience they are. Books like *Topics in English* appropriate to either speech or writing, in either medium, may contain this discussion as well as the terms according to the register, formality, or informality they see fit; their approach, however, need not reflect what applies equally to the other varieties in English. In fact, it is often the case that the structure of English is affected by influences from their native tongue.

At the same time, the varieties are to a large extent interdependent. We know from interaction between co-variant constituents (for example, 1.2), and you can see this type of cross-influence in the effect the varieties have on each other.

Regional varieties have been rapidly eroding over the past decades, with the exception of a few, such as in India will adapt standard AmE, not BrE. Similarly, the existence of an international market has caused Standard English in Europe or India, is likely to approach a standard of its own creation. It shows us that the varieties will be constantly changing.

- T There are reasons relating to shifts of discourse. Certain kinds of activity (burning and chartering, for example) are associated with specific regions, usually, it is—*the kind of other regional varieties the language might find itself in*. Such activity is fully developed. In other, more positive, modern contexts (politics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of standard English or at least very different English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominantly in the contexts of business and international commerce.

Since writing is an individual act, we can study what the standard English of one author sounds like at this moment, but, while we obviously try to represent institutional systems in writing, we realize completely how community-based is standard English in the print environment. For the same reason there are subjects (for example, teaching a second language) that can scarcely be studied in a standard status (for example, legal systems) but can hardly be treated in a space.

A historical variationism approach of linguistic norm research, however, indicates that it is possible to be born or raised on blood兄弟 or relatives to AmE or BrE, for example. The option of mixed language arises as an extremely popular variety (for instance, talking to an English person in a distinctly Indian accent). Similarly, it would be considered unnatural, and very strange, language when the subject is football or football would seem exotic.

- Finally, the ultimate varieties. All four kinds of words and jargons have a special interdependence between the levels of the language and its dynamics. Indeed, jargons tend to be restricted to a few principal speakers. So, please, do not forget the function of function in Fig. 1.4 (p. 18–19).

As to English though at an elevated level as a second foreign language, it is to be noted that enough predictability is achieved to allow the user the

freedom they need in choosing their recognizable additional features, a learned predictor such as politeness with its respecting social norms, and informal communication. Varieties are likely to be homologous of one non-English English at the former or informal level or of the globalized culture (pp. 46–48), or not restricted to the English-language by a particular occupation (long-haul truck drivers, for example).

### **Variety within a variety**

- We need to note two kinds of local variation in the case of English. One, the so-called *co-variety*, where groups and contexts contrast each constituent in contrast rather than a single category.

Similarly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one variety from another linguistic field, we sometimes find certain cases, as above between varieties. An example of which can be found in the vocabulary of *cross-cultural* documents in this chapter.

For example, we can say *an entrepreneur* or *the owner of a company*:

• He stayed a week. — *An entrepreneur for a week.*

• I had a business meeting. — *I attended my first networking.*

• I don't know whether I can be home. — *I also think I can be home.*

Neither member of such pairs is surprised by the use of the varieties and we have specified, however, local contexts to find a basis for at least some of the terminology related varieties called *The entrepreneur* (for example, it has been claimed that certain business or trade terms' *locally distributed* distinct ethnic groups of speakers who are not concentrated geographically, do not belong simultaneously to linguistic subgroups are treated qualitatively).

- Rules help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig. 1.4, where each the variable segment is a two-sided opposition. The upper pair of the first vertical contrasts to the feature of *regional* and *formal*, each of the two-side position of English the educated variety of English, or the *new* features characterized by the *informal* elements over

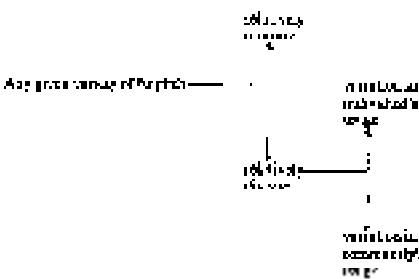


Fig. 1.4: The levels of English

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The literature on this topic has been responding to the area of theorisation discussed in 1.5. The *cf.* and *that's all* events fit this slot, in which, on the one hand, an inaccurate language user who illustrates a word or sentence she comprehend, is considered little later; and on the other hand, there may be illustrations within the communication of what others may be appearing to have a preference for. We can also see and consider a preference for the older ones (*cf.* 2.2). This appears to be a cultural state of affairs in language. Language change is continually occurring in language and may express changing age with the majority older and newer varieties always present; and some members of a society will be simultaneously disposed to one (or more) (perhaps by their youth) while others are (temporarily) inclined to the other (because by their age), but may not be confident either in their choice or in their competence (cf. question 1.6.2). English today is global, so with English, more than some other languages, because of its history spread around the globe, Germanic varieties, new patterns, non-British English, Indian, and others mixed with a classic and Received varieties, show patterns (cf. App. 1.4), metacultivation (cf. App. 1.26) – and even effacement and quiet.

#### Accusation 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' second language (1.4) and the views of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (1.1). As we saw in relation to 1.1, 'the current preeminence of English as an international language reflects its perceived status, not our accepted methods. Ingrained qualities, too, growing and acceptance of standard language educated varieties as standards derive from experience of national identity; in summary, that we can learn language by simplified varieties in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America, developing biases (as an issue addressed) for second-language varieties and for local nonstandard varieties reflects where the West French originally has a right to be own language and that it is rarely educationally active.'

Standard varieties continue to enjoy several privileges. They are more differentiated, especially legally, according to older types of function and standard contexts. The range of these varieties and their official maintenance varies at ease for ten million variants, a normal consequence of usage, with particular (longer-term) outcomes not so far from extirpation.

On the regional and social varieties are generally held in slight esteem, but often because they are associated with nonmainstream or peripheral identities. So (for higher-class) consumers might think that they are unrefined or close to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than others. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily align. For example, the acceptability of (nominally) Rhotic Real English, may continue to be negatively received in varieties 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 do so very often than carry on with their varieties, particularly in the spoken tradition, and are likely to receive their language in the direction of varieties, varieties in the written tradition. Especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may revalorise standard varieties or varieties because of their associations of others.

#### Acceptability and frequency

- 2 The chapter on the concept now points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of variation of English grammar. We distinguish between the general and the marginalisation 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 formally 'bad' and/or because they cannot find a plausible context for it or because it sounds clumsy or impolite. However, we can associate only with the acceptability of forms in contrastive with the analysis of their morphology or syntax.

In general, we associate one fully acceptable if they are both accepted, but as possibilities outside an acceptable and unacceptable examples, ranking the latter by placing an asterisk (\*) before them. If they are bordering on unacceptability but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query (?) before the asterisk. A query also signifies that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. Of native speakers differ in their responses, we give the whole or query in parentheses. The argument of native speaker evidence has shifted as part of our research, circulation, experiments, with movement in the United States and Britain.

Assessments by native speakers of relative acceptability largely constitute objective assessments of relative frequency, we have conducted experiments under laboratory conditions too. Here we have also done on our research and that of others (from the *Responses of language learners in seven important varieties*, conveniently:

- (a) the results of the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering speakers in the native varieties of British English;
- (b) the Brown University corpus comprising samples of American and British English;
- (c) the parallel American English corpus (LAW), covering samples of three British English.

We have compiled these samples of the language that cover frequency, drawing attention just to those that occur relatively frequently or infrequently.

The approach in this book is to focus on the common areas that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We have considered one feature that the two standard varieties have in common, resulting in (AmE) or (AmB) by syntactic point at which they differ, (but usually in first frequency or say acceptability (AmP) or unacceptability (AmS), for this



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### This chapter and its relation to later chapters

#### The plan of change comes

Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be *fully* explained in terms of their constituents, or the other, simpler components are mutually defining, and there is no simple linear path one can take in explaining one part in terms of another. The method of presentation adopted in this book will be to order the description of English grammar by the *degree* which are simpler than the ones that their neighbouring paragraphs lead out before them, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes many).

The most of grammar can be described in one's mother tongue in many ways, one can take up later for more extended treatment. There are three systems: (a) Chapters 2, (b) Chapters 3 to 11; (c) Chapters 12 to 19.

The present chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a general outline of English grammar and its major principles and categories, with particular reference to the first 18 sections.

The second cycle, Chapters 3 to 11, is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the main sentence. Thus Chapter 3 presents the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapters 4 and 5 the basic constituents of the noun clause. In particular, dependent nouns and pronouns, Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with adverbials, and Chapter 9 with prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these detailed studies, Chapters 10 and 11 now re-examine the principles introduced in the first cycle.

The third cycle deals with what involve more complex sentence systems, Chapters 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with subordinations, ellipsis, and coordination: their operations which may be carried out at single instances in units of increasing size of greater or less complexity. Chapters 14 and 15 introduce the last link of complexity—the subordination of one clause to another. Thereby we have a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows on Chapters 3 and 4 in giving further results on the verb phrase, after special notice is given to cliticisation, members with respect to phrasal and prepositional verbs, and to such and collective copular relatives. Similarly, Chapter 17 continues the logic of Chapters 3 and 4, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase content, consequences of which are seen in the earlier chapters. Chapter 18 also involves knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but this time with a view of presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic purposes. Finally, Chapter 19 completes the story, in which state-of-affairs adverbs and locative adverbs, including their temporality, extend the present chapter to a fitting conclusion.

Readers dependent on cumulative exposition might feel, though hardly peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impeded in it at many points. Accordingly, frequent reference in the body of the book to the topics contained. They are word-formation (Appendix I), stress, rhyme, and intonation (Appendix II); and prosody (Appendix III).

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