

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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Longman
London and New York

Lucia (1984), C. F. Mayo (1984), W. J. Levelt (1989), G. Lewis (1990), J. Taylor (1990), G. Tiberius (1991), T. Woods (1991). The first three of these journals, among the most eminent in the world on American, British, and other varieties of English, have continuous representation in the *Journal*, with which we assign such descriptive labels as 'AmE' and 'BrE'.

Finally, we take pleasure in acknowledging that *Journal* Desktop has been extended far beyond what I had envisaged for this page. The new features provided the statistical index which will make *Journal* even more useful possible, in addition, in the course of development and highly specialized tasks. We have concluded positively on the occasion of issues, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But the *Journal* would be truly incomplete if it did not acknowledge the gratitude to the granting bodies whose financial help, and above the support they have provided from university, college, center, and elsewhere, the UNIVERSITY of Lancaster, and the UNIVERSITY of Wisconsin, the generous grants and grants provided the American Council, the International Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Commission, and our publishers, the Langman Group.

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Contents

Foreword	v
Presentation table	vii
Abbreviations and symbols	ix
1 The English language	1
2 A survey of English grammar	15
3 Verbs and auxiliaries	39
4 The semantics of the verb phrase	173
5 Nouns and determiners	241
6 Pronouns and numerals	309
7 Adjectives and adverbs	369
8 The semantics and grammar of adjectives	476
9 Prepositions and prepositional phrases	606
10 The simple sentence	717
11 Sentence types and discourse functions	807
12 Pre-terms and ellipsis	889
13 Coordination	917
14 The complex sentence	937
15 Syntactic and semantic functions of subordinate clauses	1011
16 Complementation of verbs and adjectives	1147
17 The noun phrase	1223
18 Theme, focus, and information processing	1373
19 Transcursive texts	1497
Appendix I: Word formation	1519
Appendix II: Stress, rhythm, and intonation	1551
Appendix III: Phonetics	1601
Bibliography	1651
Index	1697

Pronunciation table

		SYLLABLE		WORD	
		ONSET	RHIME	INITIAL	FINAL
be	bɪ	b	ɪ	bɪ	stern
bi	bi	b	i	bi	strip
by	baɪ	b	aɪ	baɪ	lead
bi	baɪ	b	aɪ	baɪ	lead
bi	bi	b	i	bi	earn
bi	bi	b	i	bi	pear
bi	bi	b	i	bi	weight
bi	bi	b	i	bi	pill
bi	bi	b	i	bi	beat
bi	bi	b	i	bi	eat
bi	bi	b	i	bi	heat
bi	bi	b	i	bi	phone
bi	bi	b	i	bi	day
bi	bi	b	i	bi	tail
bi	bi	b	i	bi	tie
bi	bi	b	i	bi	near
bi	bi	b	i	bi	here
bi	bi	b	i	bi	here
bi	bi	b	i	bi	year
bi	bi	b	i	bi	player
bi	bi	b	i	bi	lover
bi	bi	b	i	bi	live
bi	bi	b	i	bi	near
bi	bi	b	i	bi	employee

Syllable structure is an analytical tool.
 It captures the phonetic organization of the word.
 For instances of onset, rhime, and other phonetic features see App 21.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A ₁	1st person adverbial
A ₂	2nd person adverbial
A ₃	3rd person adverbial
adv	adverbial
Adv	British English
C	complement
C ₁	object complement
C ₂	subject complement
comp	comparative
C ₁	RED position of adverbial
-C ₁	-RED position of adverbial
adv	ant-medial position of adverbial
C	initial position of adverbial
in	in-scope position of adverbial
adv	intra-medial position of adverbial
Adv	initial or medial position of adverbial
adv	supra-syllabic form
COH	Coherence/Coherence contour
W	medial position of word final
Adv	medial medial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
U	object
C ₁	direct object
U	indirect object
obj	objective
op	operator
opt	optional
part	particle
pl	plural 's'
PLP	plural prepositional phrase
pl	prepositional phrase
R	regular marker (for Adv)
or	2nd person object present third form
S	subject
EEC	British English Change
EEC	British English
NE	native 's'
NE	native 's'
NE	native 's'
NP	subject + verb + object
NP	subject + verb + complement
NP	subject + verb + object
NP	subject + verb + object + complement
NP	subject + verb + object + complement

1 The English language

1.1–11	The English language today	2
1.1–2	The importance of English	2
2–3	Themes of English	2
4	Academic and general language	4
5	Foreign language	4
6–7	The demand for English	5
8	The teaching of English	6
7	Educational goals of English	7
8	The International Movement of English	7
9–11	The future of English	8
11	Predictions of English	10
1.12–13	Grammar and the study of language	11
12–13	Types of linguistic organization	11
13	Words and spellings	11
13	Lexicology, semantics, morphology, pragmatics	11
14–15	The meaning of grammar	12
14	Syntax and inflections	12
15	Rules and the null hypothesis	12
16	The construction of rules	13
17	Prescriptive grammar	14
18	Grammatical categories of English	14
1.16–21	Varieties of English	15
16	Types of variation	15
16–17	Regional variation	15
17	Social variation	17
17	Sociolect: English	18
18–20	Dialectal standardization	19
18	British and American English	18
19	Singapore, Ireland, Canada	20
20	South Africa, Australia, New Zealand	21
21	Pronunciation and standard English	22
22	Lexical variation and local resources	23
23–24	Varieties according to register	23
24–25	Varieties according to context	24
24–25	Varieties according to communication	25
26	Varieties and style	26
26–28	Relationship among variety types	27

The English language today

The Importance of English

- 1.1 English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. It is perhaps even growing rapidly at the expense of other languages. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will undoubtedly hope to be able to do what the others do, with its own special language. They acquired it from another's hand. But there are some objective standards of relative importance.

One criterion is the number of speakers of the language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed. A third criterion is the amount of research and knowledge of it possessed. A third is the historical, social, and economic role of the language. The fourth is the "prestige" of the language, as judged by the standards of highly valued cultural materials associated with it. A fourth is the educational and political importance of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 In the matter of the first criterion, the number of speakers of English is more than 300 million, and long on only count to be Chinese (about 500 million). Also Chinese has a million of speakers. The second criterion, the geographical dispersion of the language, is also superior, with four examples: Chinese, Hindi, and Arabic. In terms of research and knowledge, English is probably the most important article of speech. For the spread of English, or most of the world as an international language is a simple phenomenon. In the world's best-known 1940s film *People on the Street* of the world's population, 100 million were shown to be official speakers of the world's languages, and the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese writing system, the literature of the languages of China, Greek, Hebrew, and Latin. But in the 19th century, the language of the United States was English. Shakespeare, English literature, the primary means of the international scientific and technical. The fourth criterion, the prestige, is also, and German for example, as languages of power, prestige, and influence. But English is the language of the United States, whose population in 1960 was more than a billion. Its nearest competitor, Japan.

History has been made for the importance of English on the grounds of its quality as a language (the size of its vocabulary, its extreme lack of inflection, the alleged flexibility of its syntax). The desire for international language, or lingua franca, is never based on linguistic or scientific criteria, but always on political, economic, and demographic ones.

The use of English

- 1.3 English is used worldwide as a second language. A common writer made the point that the language is to be used as a second language for a writer to be equal to the reader. It is a second language, generally in the form of a second language, or lingua franca, in some circumstances. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the use of the language, the primary

1.1-1.2 Vocabulary survey
1.4-1.5 Attitudes to variation

1.12 Acceptability and emergency

R1-English-based notes

languages of the spoken and of the written language. In some countries (particularly in those where it is the dominant native language), English is used, particularly for internal purposes, as an international language; for example to communicate with other speakers of the same country, to others (usually chiefly as an international language, the medium of communication with speakers from other countries).

This will be illustrated by considering more extensively the situation between a native language, a second language, and a foreign language. As a foreign language English is used for international communication, but as a second language, it is used chiefly for international purposes. We can distinguish five typical functions for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a second language: (1) international, for federal institutions, (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) science, for international exchange, such as books and periodicals.

3. In a few cases, such as the case of the native language, and a foreign one may be equally good as the medium for the language. In some countries, English is one of the official languages and English is spoken by a large part of the population.

4. Although the position is not equally clear in the case of the second language, it is clear that English is used for many purposes of the world-wide communication, such as business, law, science, and the arts. In some countries, it is used for the language of the government, the law courts, and the media. In some countries, it is used for the language of the government, the law courts, and the media. In some countries, it is used for the language of the government, the law courts, and the media.

5. In some countries, such as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, English is the official language and is spoken by a large part of the population. In some countries, it is used for the language of the government, the law courts, and the media.

Native and second language

4. English is spoken as a second language by more than 500 million people, most of whom live in South America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language: the Dutch provinces of Suriname and Aruba speak more than one language, such as Dutch and Creole languages, and many Blacks and West Indians speak Creole languages. But there is also a native language in most English-speaking countries: English is their own language for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a second language in many countries where only a small proportion of the people have English as their native language. In about twenty-five countries English has been legally declared as an official language. In about 100 (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some 100 others (such as India) it is one of the official languages with other native languages. Most of these countries are former British colonies. Despite the association of the English language with the former colonial world, it has long been required for scientific papers; whereas the native languages (e.g. French, Spanish, Russian) are a second language that is politically important, at least at the national level, for administrative and legal

functions, and as an international language for science and technology, it is dominant in higher education. English is an official language in countries of such diverse backgrounds as India, Nigeria, and Liberia, while in many countries (such as France, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for high education. In the latter, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'scientific' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the increase in secondary education: more people today learn English than learn any other language in the school period. It has been estimated that English is a second language for well over 200 million people; the number of second-language speakers may soon exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not done so already.

5. The English used by people in higher education is a second language, mainly in science and technology, but also in other fields. It is used for the publication of books, articles, and other scientific papers, and for the publication of English language journals, which are read by millions of people.

Foreign language

5. By foreign language we mean a language used by people for communication, mainly business or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio, for example, can be regarded as a second language or as a foreign language (not English). The Centre for International Programs and Appellate Institutions, American corporations such as the United States International Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a significant role in recent years in these and other fields, such as the United States, which provide support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USA, has similar radio and television facilities devoted to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia also provide heavy responsibilities for teaching English as a foreign language.

We shall look more closely at the next section at the third and fourth stages of development in the next section. The reasons for the changes have already been discussed. To put it briefly, they are: (1) a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and (2) a desire for English in order to take advantage of the best of good jobs available. It is needed for access to a large part of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is also intimately associated with technology and economic development, and it is the principal language of international trade. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use English as their principal international sales medium, and the language of international trade, and it is the only one in the universal language of international relations, shipping, and space. It is a common language, despite the common language of science and public communication, but the English language of the world is the most frequently used language both in the international and in the national level in the general context of UN business.

- 18 In some contexts it is considered appropriate to distinguish the role played by the number of hours of study of English lessons. In 1975, an official world-wide study of 200 schools of boys, 15–17 years old, taught English. The actual comparison was made in 1976 and showed that:
- (i) The positive balance of English, but not of any other foreign or other language (French, Spanish, Latin or German) is unique in most of the range of its duration and in particular in the use of English as a first language and less traditionally two other means for work, such as in the field of leisure.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 19 The role of *deixis* (foreign language that French occupies for two centuries from about 1700) has been assumed by English (except of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where French is still the United States) Spanish is the foreign language most widely studied. Although government obliges international organizations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than would strictly be demanded, no study that would be offered to a candidate deficient in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the leading school in French as perhaps the English-speaking world organized through the British education system, and each of the other ones to be even more common in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries of the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives that lead to English or other languages and to all ages, both for non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning activities take place in the ordinary process of the usual educational system.

The extent to which English is studied at the school level is shown in our analysis of the educational statistics for 112 countries where English is not a native language, but is either a foreign language or a second language. Our study confirms that over 70 million primary school students and over 21 million secondary school students were in English classes in the early 1970s. These figures represent over 12 per cent of the primary school population and over 25 per cent of the secondary school population for those countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 27 per cent of the primary school students in Germany (6 per cent of the secondary school students). Estimated figures would have been the higher if statistics for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. In notable evidence from the study was the People's Republic of China (since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries), we can expect that the number of English learners at the secondary level has increased very considerably since the early 1970s.

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

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

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,940 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium for French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (49,046) with 11,043 foreign students in the same year.

Second varieties of English

- 20 In countries where English is predominant, the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *standard variety* (p. 127), the variety considered to be the highest variety of the language in the country. However, it is not necessarily that in all cases, for teachers are often obliged to make the local spoken variety conform with such 'standard' spoken forms.

In countries where English is a *contact language*, the major means for both writing and speech has generally been the standard variety of British and American English. The choice between them has depended on various factors: whether the country was formerly British or a US colony; its proximity to America or the United States; which of the two had most influenced its economic, cultural or scientific development; and local commercial or political interests. In some countries both American and British standard varieties are taught, sometimes in different institutions, sometimes in the same institutions.

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated students are becoming multilingual and are acquiring useful receptivity. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, at best, about the norms in which their teaching should be based: to the world the way they local standard or to those of some selected standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over dialect usage in 'prestige' or 'general' varieties from their own usage (p. 127).

Where English is a *foreign language*, we may expect the American and British standard varieties to continue to be the major models, competing increasingly with the standard varieties of other countries such as Australia, in regions where there is the special influence of those countries.

- 21 Certain other British varieties have long been developing as national languages for people whose first language is not English, and these are reflected in national grammars.

The British national character of English

- 22 English is particularly the most homogeneous of languages. Through the force of the language may also be regarded as of England, or as being 100% British.

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into grammatical and semantic categories, to describe use of rules specifying both construction and meaning relations in the linguistic system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and *descriptive grammar* (or *descriptive grammar*) within lexicology and within grammar. Finally, the number of linguistic categories when viewed within particular types of situation is also within lexicology, which is concerned with the communicative focus of linguistic structures. The words are supplied for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *SEMANTICS* and *DEScriptive GRAMMAR*. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar enter into the structure of *GRAMMAR*, which *GRAMMAR* speaks and writes *GRAMMAR* (cf. Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and lexicology

- 4. The word 'grammar' has various meanings, and since grammar is the subject-matter of this book we should explore the most common meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to include both the use and that aspect of grammar (the formal structure) which they do not imply (see *GRAMMAR*). The fact that the two uses of the word are different (and the fact that the two separate forms of the English word are different) are the proof both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about the word in this respect; it corresponds to other words used in the study of the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

John uses good grammar but his spelling is awful.

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

There is a further, special 'grammar' that derives from a period in which the teaching of Latin and Greek was widespread. Since the source of Latin grammar on which teaching has traditionally depended is the *grammatica* (or *grammaticus*) of Aristotle, it made sense for the learners to say:

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

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

- 5. The word *grammar* has been used in several English-speaking countries to refer to the study of the structure of a language and its use in the teaching of a language. Thus, the term *grammar* is used by some to refer to the study of the structure of a language and its use in the teaching of a language.

- 6. *Grammar* and the native speaker
- 5. The word 'grammar' has been used in several English-speaking countries to refer to the study of the structure of a language and its use in the teaching of a language.

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

The logic which is behind this is the speaker's view of the following sentence: 'grammar' is inflexible; rather the converse one; it would seem to be used as a strict synonym of 'syntax'.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives good food to the fact that he does not feel the same of his own language: it is that he has acquired it (and only in the field of lexicology) and if ever he happens to be taken to task for one such rule (or foreign habit) very great difficulty. If, however, the grammatical rules he learns for a foreign language seem much more rigid, and they also seem chosen because they have been usually spelled out in the learning process.

But another objection, point is revealed. In this sentence, the distinction between 'grammar' and 'syntax' is not in the use of French but in a definition of rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they progress should be seen. This is not grammar 'in itself' in a language (or one grammar) but seen, however much they differed in the years of history they returned to, but grammar is defined by grammarists: the Academy (grammar) there is another Academy for the English language and as for native speakers, *GRAMMAR* (the English) is not 'grammar' in language.

The codification of rules

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

Lancelotti wrote a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this equivalence may be made with the example used as follows:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, yes, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of grammar, however, generally is the business theory embraced by the codifier, that is, of the nature of grammar rather than the content of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky advocates a transformational grammar that differed significantly from other grammars.

In the usage of many learning languages, the word 'grammar' has material in the colloquial that it has in the Greek tradition: more than 2000 years ago, meaning was whole field of language structure. Thus, in the *grammar* of Socrates, there was grammar in the sense of 'the grammar' or grammar, and not only in the sense of 'the grammar' (text), and grammar specification is not.

- 7. Another field of study is the study of the structure of a language and its use in the teaching of a language.

Do they have a greater or a smaller degree of regularity or, again, together with a certain regularity a fairly phonetic orderliness?

Prescriptive grammar

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

It's our grammar based on a model which prescribes:

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

For reference issues, in the introduction we, primarily deal with the term *usage*, a *planning* (with) *transfer of grammar* and lexical items that are conventional within the standard varieties. Their objectives may become more specific in certain usage, at least in each formal writing. One of the last few chapters prescribes a few basic recommendations for a general prescriptive method for formal writing that is embedded (with some variance) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An interesting conceptualization of *usage* (from *grammar*, with speakers now mistakenly excluded) particular prescriptive rules as an attempt to avoid variation. A classic instance of such a recommendation is the use of *them* as subject by G. L. Niles (2). Others are the pseudo-synthetic case as in *I wonder if he will come* and the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the phrase *himself* (you and *I*).

Our primary concern in this book is to describe the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may deal in typographical but also because it may affect attitudes towards particular uses that may in turn influence the preferences of some native speakers of English in formal or more restricted styles. If you read *usage*, for example, to replace *their* with *she* or *scholarship* with *she* in *if I ever should succeed I would say yes*, or to replace *she* by *she* in *the teacher who I most admired*.

Grammatical types of organization

- 3. Prescriptive rules concerning the typical grammatical descriptions in this volume concern the whole field of grammar (though we remain an area of continuing controversy). While the rest of our publications are in the context of the book, our treatment of grammar is based on the knowledge of the current discussion. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology or the use of *and* in the English construction as the order as *was long*. In the different descriptions of *and*, Phonology is often to be used, focusing on grammar as a small part and on the construction of units. It will demonstrate the end of grammar (the, for, though, etc. of 2.7). More important is the phonological conditions for the *and* and *or*.

intention in verbs and not as *is* (1.2), 1.50). It is not to be confused with usage, for example, in the fact that some abstract and verb forms only in the position of the subject (*is* App. 1.56).

- 1. The verb form.
- 2. The verb form.

But more obviously, the interdependence of phonology and grammar is shown in four processes of the interaction between intonation and linear organization: 1.2.2, 1.2.3, and 1.2.4. It is the fact that by merely altering the structure one can distinguish some of intonation like those stated in App. 1.2.1.

The interactions of grammar, intonation and morphology are manifested in the semantic relations (1.2.2) that permit (1) and (2) to occur (1a) and (2a):

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

The contrast between grammar and intonation is *not* in (1) and (2) but in (1a) and (2a). The contrast between grammar and intonation is *not* in (1) and (2) but in (1a) and (2a).

Similarly, the interaction between grammar and morphology (and even more so between semantics and morphology) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of limited speech types that occur in such as *request* and *invitation*, they may be covered through certain register types (cf. *Register* Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behaviour of the meaning of the construction *and*.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as describing the constructional elements of the English system, and to try to determine how these have changed the scope of the book's construction, on which most prescriptive can be formulated by applying the principle we will normally state a binary distinction along the gradient from general to least generalization.

Varieties of English

Type of variation

- 3. Having informed here we may speak of different types of linguistic organization, such as phonology, morphology, and grammar, we may now refer to the parts and notes in the beginning of 1.1.2. What are the varieties of English whose different properties are realized through the several types of linguistic organization?

Formulating a theoretical basis on which the varieties of any language can be described, historic and, and which is one of the prime concerns of the

number (although Shakespeare, taken to be a native of the City, may well still remain impossible to name as being in the genus).

There is an important polarity between unstructured and structured spaces in which the former can be identified with the speech of one regional dialect and the latter more or less with regional usage in a form of English that may or may not be standard. To return to an example given in a previous section, to describe a person as not being a dialectologist might not mean that a New Englander who writes for one of *Brooklyn Bridge* who asks 'good' and a Virginian who asks 'well'. These are forms that tend to be replaced by one with schooling, and to result in a stranger's dialect speaker would tend to use 'well' forms. On the other hand, there is an explicit equation of regional and unstructured English. 'Jack is educated', English, *I say, with perfect respect* becomes, in its many features, of unstructured use: a prominent example is the double negative as in 'I don't know no one', which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar teachers for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in unstructured speech wherever English is spoken.

Standard English naturally tends to be given the additional meaning of government approval, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law courts, and the judge – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the boundaries of local community. It is codified and includes grammar, and guides or prescribes the speech in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale education (other than vocational studies and political education) is bound to be national in its emphasis, and one provided one remembers that this does not mean a English that has been formally standardized by official means, or written and measured and standardized, the task is not all that impossible. In contrast with standard English, some features especially associated with unstructured (rather than dialect) use are generally called non-standard.

- 2. *Standard English* is a term used to refer to a form of English that has been codified by the state.

Standard English

- 1. The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly remarkable phenomenon: the more so since the extent of the mobility involved has, in anything, increased in the present century. Uniformity of greater or lesser degree, which is in fact also a very basic feature of many types of linguistic organization. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries make a very massive contribution (especially in the written, printed, and written) there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout, with two minor exceptions. The one is the interchange with British pronunciation (over by now) English-speaking countries other than the United States, and the other is the fact that only a small class of words, colour, colour, loaded, etc. The other is the American system, color, colour, loaded, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Laurence or laurel publishers, such as academic journals and school textbooks prefer British spelling, while popular publications, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but variations vary little. The difference between the American and British arrangements of punctuation is that the former American practice is to put a period or comma inside closing quotation marks, which are usually double in American usage: for the former see *The Chicago Style Manual*. A higher conference must not raise Anglo-American standards, including the numerical form of dates. In British (and European) practice *Chicago Manual* (2 October 1969), but in American practice means *Chicago* (11, 1931) (p. 116).

In general, and especially, standard English is not a spoken form of a particular dialect, but even so the word 'standard' is not only used and has been suggested earlier, since usually it is increasing under the impact of close word construction and the spread of *Standard* (written) and non-standard culture. The uniformity is especially strict in written regional style (written), English in subject matter and of abstract knowledge (written) is not only a feature of the English language but also a feature of the national standards (p. 116).

National standards of English

British and American English

- 1. What we are calling national standards (which we mean as neither from the written English, which we have been discussing and which we shall discuss later) being a particular, well-defined, and distinct, is a term used. As in, as with a language, there are two national standards that are unambiguously predominant both in the number of available copies and in the degree to which these standards are standardized. American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are those in the use of both national standards: the first that will be the past tense of the verb 'to go' (AmE: *go*, BrE: *went*), and that in BrE either a singular or a plural verb may be used with a singular collective noun:

The government $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ in a hurry to commence operations.

whereas in AmE a singular verb is required here. Some prefer *has* (*has*), but are likely to prefer *commence* (for *commence*). For example, AmE may use the single *has* in a plural style in contexts where BrE normally requires the plural *have* (p. 117 Note), as in:

Some $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{has} \\ \text{have} \end{array} \right\}$ *not* been *not* been.

And BrE uses *has* in the same context with *not* (where AmE generally uses the plural *have*) (p. 117 Note), as in:

I needn't say $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{has} \\ \text{have} \end{array} \right\}$ the *not* been *not* been.

and in newspaper headlines:

Development of the written form

The typical language manual has chosen to deal broadly independently with the varieties (British, colonial varieties) already discussed. Some obvious contingent similarities are however striking. The use of a specific variety of our own language presupposes the use of a specific variety of another. The use of a written form (text) presupposes, for example, presupposes an educated variety of English.

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in grammar according to the date of the usage with self-explanatory labels. It is true that of course a long established form, but genuine English extends to other fields. There are in fact many local varieties in humanistic topics and disciplines. Linguistics has certain characteristics in common; for example, LINGUISTIC and RELIGIOUS English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usage that are otherwise absent. Thus there is a need every now and then to refer to these fields. There are two traditionally used models. Indeed, poetry may develop from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word order. Literary English is especially developed as means of playing language that are not in prose.

As with *English of 1911*, there is a tendency to refer to fields depending on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. *English (or, at least, the) language* covers a wide range of contemporary (popular, literary, scientific, literary, political, medical), each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of *academic discourse*. Approaches to grammar and style of the (written) writing itself include (with the written language, for example) language may come from writing (e.g. instructions for playing games). When learned or technical, any use is said to be *academic* (or, at least, *academic*) and *academic* is itself particularly relevant to *academic*.

Just as we include relative language from other disciplines (e.g. law, for example, science and the primary school) in our writing, literature is by no means the only one of the (written) language, each of which may be distinguished from one another. Some features of newspapers call for special consideration, in particular headlines, the language of newspaper headlines.

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

Written according to the field of discourse (academic, literary, scientific, etc.)

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by the degree of writing (e.g. spoken, written, printed, etc.). It is reasonable to regard the difference between written language and spoken language as a spectrum

(and norms is usually written instead). Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium necessarily presumes the absence of the presence to which the piece of language is written. This implies the absence of the presence (e.g. the presence of the speaker and the presence of the hearer), rather than the usual presence supported by gesture and nonverbal behavior (e.g. the presence of the speaker and the hearer). As a condition, since the written medium can be used and read slowly and initially (whereas the spoken medium is more or less simultaneous), it is more likely to be used more slowly and more carefully and elegantly than they may choose to speak.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to control language by speech (e.g. rhythm, intonation, etc.) are, for example, not impossible to represent with the relatively limited repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation (e.g. App. 1). As a consequence, when a form has to be represented, it is often necessary to use a form that is not used in speech. Thus instead of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation pattern (e.g. App. 1.1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended tone:

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

The differences are not all one-way, however; the written medium has the obvious advantage of permanence, which is not true of spoken language in speech.

- As with written according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle as one variety of any form of English as varieties may develop. In spite of the variety of English they use, a reader of English and a writer. But again there are linguistic conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the field of the educated speaker (e.g. the field of the educated speaker).

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (e.g. legal) are especially difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except in reading. Other varieties (e.g. popular) are especially difficult to compare in writing and especially difficult to understand in reading. They are especially difficult to compare in writing and especially difficult to understand in reading.

Varieties according to attitude

- Varieties according to attitude (e.g. the field and the field variety) are a complex of English, in which the field and the field variety are individual parts of English, in spite of the fact that the field and the field variety are not necessarily used. The presence of the field and the field variety is often called 'style', but 'style' (e.g. 'style') is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the style (e.g. 'style') from that variety from our attitude in the field (e.g. 'style') to the field (e.g. 'style').

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

Overline involutions are not suitable for workers who are over-
 ridden.
 Staff members subordinate themselves to get jobs overdone.

While many speakers like the slang one can be said to use formal or neutral registers in relation to each other, it is useful to place the notion of the register used by each here, so that we can acknowledge it, correct or improve it, kindly or harshly, bearing no obvious coloring that has been induced by strings of examples.

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

On each side of the register (and formal) line, we may usefully distinguish sentences concerning features that are markedly formal or informal. In the present work, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this dichotomous distinction, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only those that are markedly formal or informal. It should be realized that the neutral form often comes in use in both of the two extremes as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are abundant in both informal and actual English; they are excluded from formal English.

2. Mastery of such a range of situational variables seems essential achievement for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable even early in life for the native or the foreign learner's language. It appears to require maturity, tact, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to understand other people's, and to search the language's resources to find an expression to suit his aims. Young native speakers at the age of five or six may, usually speaking, use forms of English that is made in some response, whether they are talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, or an adult neighbor. And although this informal language can show partial features of correctness, it is generally recognized that it is a language that the child will grow out of.

From an learner's point of view, the child's position. Until the child can use the language in really very advanced or in consistently imitative, though the particular variety is much less preferable than that of the native child, it would not be possible in English, as has been observed through teachers' experience in educational hearing, their individual pupils will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from a tutor. More usually, either an informant makes a mistake or an archaic sounding or immature vocabulary is introduced into the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the active child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's adult maturity makes his case the opposite of a normal child's acquisition of the language variety.

3. The necessary concept of formal or informal formal is not of course to imply that the full range of linguistic variables are consistently differentials of adults. We should not allow our categories to cover one of the rest. On the one hand, we need a caution for the extremely casual, rapid fire (lower) variety of English sometimes found in such social situations. For example:

Don't get mad, get even, or get mad, or get mad, or get mad.

For the most casual side for the informal, casual, or barely—often slangy—register used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when giggling (or for any other reason that they are not used to, unless about other persons to be made) think of their children's language. We might thus reach the following example with:

It's just a game, you know!

We may have personal features like this:

Why would I know? — normal — formal — over-odd — very informal

As we use above (1.24), we chiefly create the labels 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the neutral, normal type; but we also use designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'neutral' or 'informal' as appropriate. It is better to restrict its use only for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, *casual*, is useful to denote the frequency of our plain lexical range (typical of casual, however, usually indicating membership in a particular social group).

One final point on attitude variables. As with the English derived by folk and modern, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of similar (or similar) words, and we create (1.24) (1.25) normally to suggest nothing (neutral), except a preparedness to particular features may in the case of a formal student. It would be hard to increase an acquaintance for the casualness on the side being other than informal, or a middle ground may be the result of a kind of state being other than formal though here we is the same medium (speech).

Variables according to informality

4. A very different type of variation applies to speakers of English who are non-linguistic foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The Englishman who says *Just one case theory* is largely a French grammatical error on English; the Russian who says *There are five continents in case of world events* is using the Russian known scientific usage on the English word 'in case'. Most obviously, we do not tend to analyze our own paralinguistic pattern on any foreign language we hear. The principle here may be to show that the foreign acquisition of content, and the use of the foreign language for purposes that are to be studied, can be helped with the patterns that give them the greatest stability.

As the opposite extreme are informal, however, that are well learned in a community and of such long standing that they may be difficult and educational enough to be institutionalized and best to be regarded as

relationships among various types

- Variation among each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Users of English may combine morphological features of any regional variety in their use of a particular standard; within that standard, they can choose to highlight what is appropriate to their particular occupation or audience. They can, for instance, use English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, they can adjust their discourse on any of the levels according to the register, formality, or audience they are to reach. Importantly, not all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and a foreign or second language or if their use of English is affected by interference from their native tongue.

At the same time, the variation is to a large extent interdependent. We pay particular attention to several contingent relationships. For example, in L2L, and you may consider the type of interdependence as the effect of register on domain as follows:

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *written* variety: a person educated in China will use standard AmE, not BrE, although, for instance, an American marking someone's learning English in Example 10.11, is likely to approach a standard of BrE pronunciation. In Example 10.12, the names, which are spelled in a way

- There are various relations to other varieties. Certain forms of informality (slang and simplification, for example) are associated with general register, whereas others are distinctive of more regional or colloquial registers. Some such variation is fully developed. In other, like *creative*, *academic* phrases, *professional* we expect to find some use of variation and English or at least partly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of *household* and *literary* communication.

Since writing is an educated act, we can analyse it in the standard English of one or other national standard as this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to harness traditional styles in writing, we realize *correctness* is more varied than is assumed by the various people concerned. For the same reason there are subjects (for example, *technology*) a Scottish writer that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, *legal* *style*) that are usually for formal purposes.

Artificial variation may appear to be of consequence in register, in some varieties it is possible to be formal or informal on both standards or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'authenticity' popular varieties popular in student talking to an audience presenters of *technology* and *academic* (for example) would be considered *disrespectful*, and very formal language when the subject is *education* or *football* would seem comic.

- Finally, *formality* and *writing*. At the level of words and phrasal there is a general independence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few phrasal register, *correctness* is a good illustration of function in Text 10.11 (1.5).

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

freedom they need in choosing the variety of their address. A learned professor such as Matthews will be supporting several purposes, and informal communication. Students are likely to be familiar with the use of English at the formal or informal level. They are the speakers of written English (10.11), and restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for business, for example).

Variation within a variety

- We need to make two final points about variation in the use of given. First, the variation is not independent from register, and the formality of each constituent is consistent rather than a separate category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one register than another (perhaps, for instance, we sometimes find *business* words, a choice between students. An analysis of register cannot be confined to the variety of standards discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say *you were there* or *you* that, the latter is more register.

- He stayed a week. → He stayed for a week.
- I studied for an hour. → I studied for an hour.
- I don't know whether I can be there. → I don't know if I can be there.

Neither member of each pair is necessarily linked to any of the varieties and we have specified. Although we have made a distinction between at least some of the socially marked varieties (often called 'the register'), for example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed features' other groups of speakers who do not understand register. In contrast, register, the process being structured by linguistic features that are shared systematically.

- It may help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a two-part or opposition. The upper part of the first vertical coordinate is the function of *register* and formality, each of the variables part relate to register the educated variety of English, the other features characteristic of the registerable common use.

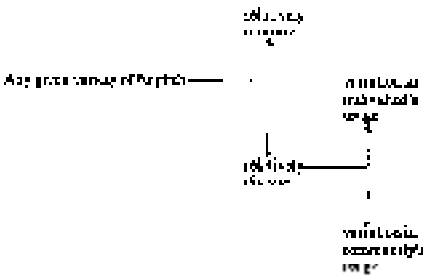


Fig 1.41. Variation within a variety

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical and practical questions in the area of fixation discussed in 2.2. The practical questions are about the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may engage in such a fixation (to make whether one moment and a reader's little later), and on the other hand, there may be a fixation using the competence of a native speaker (maybe appearing to have a preference for *the* over *a* and *that* for *the* over *that* in 2.2). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is essentially occurring in all languages and in all aspects of language with the regularity of day and night (and it always occurs); and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined in the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be considered either in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (geographical), or other (English may be used to talk football more than some other languages because of its native's great status: a basic Germanic vocabulary, strong pattern, semi-regularity, inflection, and general *readability* with a double), and *fluency* (with a strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), readability (cf. App. 2.2.7) – and even *efficiency* and *quality*.

Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the examples are the initial acceptance of English as a *major world language* (L.4) and the views of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (L.1). As we have indicated in L.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, of the English speaking world. The growing acceptance of standard language education standards stems from a recognition of national achievement, an awareness that we are being judged by *unpublished standards* in native English speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (by an ironic admission) for second-language variants and for local non-standard varieties shows that each country comparably has a right to its own language and that its variety is historically ancient.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functional and contextual domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance stems at least in part from a natural conservatism, or perhaps rather particular (higher-education) courses and to a more extent from tradition.

On a regional or social variation is generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. In addition, for the higher esteem is considered *ought to be* that they are more logical or close to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily coincide. Englishes that appear to be of secondary held evaluation, may continue to be a preferred varieties because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group's community. Those who are competent in the so-called *higher* variety may not have sufficient, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to produce their language in the direction of *lower* varieties in the spoken medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a *higher* variety or varieties but may not be the realisation of others.

Acceptability and frequency

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

Acceptability is a concept that does not apply *exclusively* to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because (for example) they consider it logically flawed or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or inelegant. However, it may co-exist only with the acceptability of forms in constructions on the grounds of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes discuss acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are *bordering* on acceptability but are not fully acceptable, we put a *question mark* (?) before the material. A *question mark* signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the *question mark* in parentheses. The assessment of native speakers' *acceptability* is based on our own research, evaluation experiments with informants in the United States and Britain.

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

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

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

We repeated in this book to focus on the common ones that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We have searched out features that the two standard codes do have in common, marking as (1) or (2) or (3) only the points at which they differ. It is usually not necessary to say explicitly (1) or (2) or (3) especially (AmE), for this

12 The English language

may be a desire to be total, exclusively, in our study. Similarly with other parts, features that are treated with respect to neither, and without. We distinguish where necessary spoken and written language, generally more 'spoken' and 'written' as unmarked forms for the purposes of clarity of communication, but drawing on the distinctions 'spoken/written' and 'lower/higher' when we wish to emphasize that which is oral and higher than the written. We also frequently need to refer to forms according to variation in attitude, drawing attention to those that are *formal* or *informal*.

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

Note This book is written for teachers of English and applied linguists who have a minimum of knowledge of English and are comfortable with the use of grammatical terms. It is not intended as a textbook for students of English.

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2 A survey of English grammar

2.1-2	This chapter and its relation to other chapters	21
1	The place of this grammar	27
2	The nature of the discourse	28
2.3-10	Parts of the sentence	38
21	Grammatical units	38
22	Words	39
23-6	Classical clause relationships	41
27	The grammatical hierarchy	42
28	Embedding	43
29	Subordination	44
30	Coordination	45
2.11	Questions	46
2.12	Form and function	47
2.13-24	Clause structure	49
13	Central and peripheral elements of the clause	49
14	Subject and predicate	50
15	Object	51
16	Adverbials	52
17	Objects and complements	53
18	Obligatory and optional	54
19	Case	55
20-23	Systems of grammatical relations	56
21	Active and passive	57
22	Conditionals and modal auxiliaries	58
23	Infinitives and participles	59
24	The structure of the clause	60
2.25-34	Phrases	61
25	Prepositional phrases	62
26	Verbal phrases and other phrases	63
27	Noun phrases and other phrases	64
28-32	Grammatical functions and phrase structure	65
28	Definition	65
29	Relationships	66
30	Implementation	67
31	Introduction and examples	68

2.34-4E	Word classes	67
24-4E	Textual texts and grammatical units	68
27	Morphological, phonological, and orthographic units	69
28	Morphosyntactic phenomena	70
29	Clonal clitics	71
29	Agreement items	72
31	The taxonomy of word classes	73
41	Arbitrariness	75
42	Word classes in relation to meaning	76
44-4E	The forms	76
45	IPA symbols	77
546-59	Verbs and the verb's auxiliary properties	79
46	Verbless phrases	80
47	Subject and predicate	81
48-49	Operator and realization	82
49	DO, BE, and HAVE as operators	83
50	Questions and WH-CLITICS	84
51	Prepositions and prepositional phrases	85
52	Relative	86
53	Relative clauses	87
54	Relative clauses	88
55	Relative	89
56	Focus	90
57-59	Other grammatical variations	91
57	Directives and imperatives	92
58	Pragmatic conventions	93
59	Grammatical highlighting	94
2.61-62	Gradience and multiple analysis	95
60	Gradience	96
61	Multiple analysis	97
62	Conclusion	98
	Bibliographical note	99

This chapter will be reflected to later chapters

The plan of this chapter

- 2.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account in the same, although a grammar may be made defining, and there is no simple linear progression in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be in order the description of English grammar in three phases which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before. First, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).
- The first of grammar is seen to be the other way, the derivation from the syntax. A simple verb with either one or many arguments, taken up later for more extended treatment. First and three orders: (a) Chapter 2, (b) Chapter 3 to 11; (c) Chapter 12 to 19.
- The second chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a general outline of English grammar and of its major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.
- The second cycle, Chapters 2 to 11, is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapter 2 and 3 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapter 4 and 5 the basic constituents of the noun phrase. It includes determiners, nouns, and pronouns. Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with auxiliaries, and Chapter 9 with prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classes studied, Chapter 10 and 11 cover realizations of the simple sentence in their actuality.
- The third cycle deals with more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: three systems which may be taken out of the simple sentence in order to find out structure of grammar or how complexly. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final look at complexity – the relative use of one class to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows in Chapter 7 and 8, dealing with clauses in the verb phrase, and Chapter 17 and 18 deal with clauses, relative clauses, verb phrases relating to clause and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, relative clauses. Chapter 19 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of clauses coordinated in order to explore. Chapter 20 also involves knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is the other way, presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic presentation. Finally, Chapter 21 examines the ways in which statements are realized in the actual world, including their complexity extended to more complex writing.
- The three Appendices annexes equal of English, which, though directly peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impinge on it at many points, illustrating features referred to in the body of the book in the topics concerned: they are word formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and pronunciation (Appendix III).

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