

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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Longman
London and New York

Lucia (1981), C. F. Mayo (1982), W. J. Levelt (1989), J. Laska (1991), J. Taylor (1991), G. Tiberius (1991), T. Woods (1991). The first three of these journals, among the most eminent ones 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 work. We have concluded positively on the occasion of issues, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But the *Journal* would be really impossible if not for the help of a great number of the participating bodies whose financial help, and above the support they have given from university, college, center, for example, the UNIVERSITY of Cambridge, and the UNIVERSITY of Wisconsin, the generous grants and writing credits: the American Council, the International Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Karl and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden, the Academy of Sciences, and our publishers, the Langman Group.

UD 82 01 13
February 1985

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Pronunciation table

		SYLLABLE		WORD	
	SYLLABLE	WORD			WORD
ɒ	bat	ɒt	bat	ɒt	about
ɒ	box	ɒk	box	ɒk	cup
ɒ	bro	brɒ	bro	brɒ	lead
ɒ	but	bʌt	but	bʌt	lead
ɒ	bus	bʌs	bus	bʌs	earn
ɒ	bus	bʌs	bus	bʌs	per
ɒ	but	bʌt	but	bʌt	ought
ɒ	burn	bɜːn	burn	bɜːn	put
ɒ	but	bʌt	but	bʌt	beat
		bʌt	but	bʌt	eat
		bʌt	but	bʌt	had
		bʌt	but	bʌt	phone
		bʌt	but	bʌt	try
		bʌt	but	bʌt	total
		bʌt	but	bʌt	to
		bʌt	but	bʌt	near
		bʌt	but	bʌt	low
		bʌt	but	bʌt	here
		bʌt	but	bʌt	here
		bʌt	but	bʌt	year
		bʌt	but	bʌt	player
		bʌt	but	bʌt	lower
		bʌt	but	bʌt	low
		bʌt	but	bʌt	near
		bʌt	but	bʌt	employee

Syllable structure is given in square brackets.
 [] indicates the position of the syllable boundary.
 For instances of /t/, /d/, /n/ and other phonemes, see App. 21.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A ₁	of-passive-related adverbial
A ₂	subject-related adverbial
A of	of-passive English
aux	auxiliary
BrE	British English
C	complement
C ₁	object complement
C ₂	subject complement
comp	comparative
C ₁	RED position of adverbial
-ed	-ED participle form
adj	antecedent position of prepositional
l	initial position of clause
tr.	transitive process of adverbial
adv	intra-medial position of adverbial
ADV	initial or medial position of adverbial
ng	syntactically free
COH	Coherence/Coherence context
W	modal position of prepositional
ADV	medial or initial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
U	clause
C ₁	direct object
U	indirect object
obj	objective
op	operator
opt	optional
pass	passive
pl	plural verb
PLP	plural prepositional verb
pl	prepositional verb
R	regular verb (for 21.1)
v	2nd person singular present third form
S	subject
EEC	European Council of Europe
BrE	British English
NE	noun + verb
VPE	verb phrase + verb
OPC	object + verb + complement
OPV	object + verb + object
OPVC	object + verb + object + complement
OPVD	object + verb + object + complement

- 1) primary stress is on (n Cl. 4)
 2) secondary stress is on (n Cl. 4)
 3) tertiary stress is on (n Cl. 4)
 4) weak
 5) 2nd form of (n Cl. 4)
 6) 3rd form of (n Cl. 4)
 7) 4th form of (n Cl. 4)
 8) 5th form of (n Cl. 4)
 9) 6th form of (n Cl. 4)
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 100) 97th form of (n Cl. 4)
 101) 98th form of (n Cl. 4)
 102) 99th form of (n Cl. 4)
 103) 100th form of (n Cl. 4)

1 The English language

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The English language today

The Importance of English

- 1.1 English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. It is perhaps even growing rapidly at the expense of other languages. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will undoubtedly hope to be the dominant one in its own particular geographical language area. 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 material news knowledge and resources. A third is the national wealth and economic strength of the countries for which it is used.⁴ In political, social, scientific and cultural fields, highly valued cultural materials are usually written in English.⁵ A fourth is the educational and political influence of the native speakers of the language.

- 1.2 In the matter of the first criterion, namely speakers of the language, the number in question is about 300 million for English, and only about 100 million for Chinese (about 50 million for each of the other 200 languages). The second criterion, the geographical dispersal of the language, is also significant, with four examples: Hebrew, Arabic, and Spanish, and English, and in major world cities, English is usually the official language of speakers. For the spread of English over most of the world as an international language is a unique phenomenon. In the world's largest state, 100 million people – over a third of the world population – still speak as their first language some official Chinese. In fact of the other languages, it is the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literature of the Chinese seems to have not to mention the languages of Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, and Russian. But in addition to being the language of the United States, Shakespeare, English literature, the primary medium for the transmission of science and technology. The fourth criterion, namely, resources, is more important for certain languages of powerful, productive, and influential nations. But English is the language of the United States, whose gross domestic product in 1960 was over 300 billion dollars. It is the most important, Japan.

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

The use of English

- 1.3 English is used worldwide as a second language. A common writer made the point that the language is being used as a second language for another 500 million people, as equal to the number of speakers of the first language, or as a second language. It is used in some 100 countries. Corresponding with this distinction is that between the second and first language. The primary

1.1-1.2 Vocabulary notes & survey
1.4 Additional exercises

1.2 Acceptability and emergency

R1-English-based notes

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

This will be 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 relations; (2) legislative, for government administration and the law courts; (3) commercial, for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) occupational, both internationally and intranationally for commerce and for services and occupations; (5) science, for international exchange, such as books and periodicals.

3. 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 two languages spoken and English is one of the two languages used.

4. Although the position is not equally clear in the case of the second language, there are many cases where it is used as a medium for international communication. In some cases, it is used as a medium for international communication between individuals speaking different native languages, especially in the case of science, for example, in the case of the United Kingdom and among themselves in the United States.

5. In some cases, when it is a second language, it is used as a medium for international communication. In some cases, it is used as a medium for international communication. In some cases, it is used as a medium for international communication.

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 Guyana in British Guiana, most South Africa, speak Afrikaans or Dutch languages, and many Eskimo and Welsh people speak Celtic languages, but these are not native languages; not English, but 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 single language of the people may be spoken as their native language. In about twenty-five countries, English has been legally declared as an official language. In about ten (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some (such as the United States) it is one of the official languages with other native languages. Most of these countries are former British territories. Despite the association of the English language with the former colonial world, it has long been required for scientific papers; where the native language is, generally, Spanish, Russian, or Chinese, it is 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 United States, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, national, and economic importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the laws of the 1970s, when more people today learn English than in any time during the colonial period. It has been estimated that English is a second language for well over 250 million people; the number of second-language speakers may soon exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not done so already.

5. The English used by people in the United States is a second language, and it is used as a medium for international communication. In some cases, it is used as a medium for international communication. In some cases, it is used as a medium for international communication.

Foreign language

5. By foreign language we mean a language used by people for communication, usually business or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio, for example, can be regarded as a form of communication, and as a foreign language. The United States is at the present time preparing and apparently maintaining American organizations such as the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a significant role in the past. In the case of the United States, it is a medium for international communication, which provides support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USA, has similar radio and television facilities devoted to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia 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 are very complex. To give a simple, rough idea of the requirements of the modern world, and to allow the English to be a medium of the highest of good jobs to be undertaken. It is needed for more or less half 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 their own languages as their principal international vehicles, but the language of international trade, science, and technology is the universal language of international relations, shipping, and space. It is a medium of communication, and the common language of science and public communication. It is the most important language of the world, and it is the most frequently used language both in the United States and in the rest of the world.

- 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, etc.), was an indication of success in attaining the range of its functions and in particular the acquisition of English as a *placita lingua franca* and less successfully less their own language, which is useful for life.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 19 The role of *deixis* foreign language than French occupies first two centuries from about 1970 has been assumed by English. (Of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where French is still the *lingua franca* in the foreign language most widely studied. Although government obliges international organisations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than would strictly be justified, no doubt that would be offset to a certain degree by a deficit in English. The general equivalent of the *deixis* foreign language than French is the study of French as perhaps the English-speaking world's principal foreign language. It is still the case, and each of the other main languages, in the Soviet Union and other East European countries that in countries of the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for teaching English or other languages and to all ages, both to non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning, of course, takes place in the ordinary process of the state 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 learning English 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. It is notable also that from the study of the People's Republic of China (1) 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 number of language-teaching centres; for access to scientific and technological publications; for a variety of English teaching, not always, or increasingly, to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourist trade, international commerce, or international programmes for education or research, or, of course, where it is a foreign language required

to be 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, of 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium of instruction in all institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France (19,000) but 11,000 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 form of the language in the country. However, it is not always clear that in the past the medium is aimed to make the local spoken variety conform with such 'standard' spoken forms.

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

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated writers are becoming multilingual and are acquiring local acceptability. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, at times, 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 Considerable attention is being given to the ways in which national languages are taught in schools in order to teach them in a way which does not reflect in certain ways.

- The British national character of English
 22 English is prevalent in the most important of languages. Through the terms of the language may also be used as of England, or as may be used in the

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

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pushed too far. The formal or metaphorical use of such expressions as *common law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal system; and likewise the quotation from Shakespeare, the *Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible*, *George Eliot*, *John Galsworthy*, a *Victorian*, *an imperial*, *a post-empire*, *a post-empire*, or *post-empire* is not entirely arbitrary in a shared culture. The *Commonwealth* has its *Commonwealth* of 'commonwealth' in the United States and even in Australia and New Zealand. At other times, English equally reflects the temperance and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When an Australian speaks of *backpackers* (tourists) or *backpackers* (tourists), the metaphorical link to the European activity of moving the luggage of someone else in the hope of doing well (but not necessarily) when an American speaks of *jet setting* to find her (his) various recreational centres, the metaphor conveys an equally distinctive culture – the quest of leisure. And when an Englishman says that something is *not a child of the British* or *not a child of the British* it is by no means obvious in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – clairvoyance** – can see much about the future of English. It is not only a prediction of the future but a prediction of the future, not the future of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as feasible for international communication. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although in principle world languages have the obvious advantage that through all borders will ensure mutual understanding and reciprocal speaking, thereby the giving of advantage to speakers of any particular language. During the last few decades English has come closest to being the single international language, having satisfied a greater world-wide than any other language (in recorded times). In many years it will have which others. It will even reach the idea of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not as an international language will continue to be possible.

One reason for the doubt has been the fact that national varieties of English are rapidly growing further apart and will finally separate into mutually incomprehensible languages. There have also been occasional but probably unprofitable attempts to the world's right to use the *Commonwealth* and *Commonwealth* while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national member district and hence to the further

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

- 1.10 While four for the disintegration of English cannot be overestimated, however, there are some reasons to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable dialectal differences with a few national varieties, the standard systems have preserved the essential stability of the common standards. The traditional English system generally ignores both the changes in pronunciation and the changes in pronunciation through space, despite its regional variation, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are conducive to making all systems as similar as possible from the point of view of the common medium and of code, structure, and form in the spoken medium. Teachers and students can be made available to all forms of English, because variation and regional variation systems are made flexible enough to take account of variation. Despite a growing awareness of international variation in speech, standard forms remain the same for written English.

The future of English as an international language has also been seen to reduce the possibility of teaching English, especially in a common code, to the level required for international usefulness. Given the enormous expenditures required for the purpose it is possible that as developing countries become richer they will be able to increase their dependence on the teaching of English and raise the levels of local and global proficiency. A number of proposals have been devised to reduce the cost of language learning, thereby allowing a more realistic deployment of educational resources in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for language of reference communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely tested, a proposal has also recently been made for a simplified, simplified form of English (known as *Standard English*) that would preserve a subset of the features of standard English, for example, *Standard English* and *Standard English* would be used by a wide range of speakers of any native language and could be designed for specific purposes, for example for international reference communication.

The long-term maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for world-wide standard communication conflict with the movements for the establishment of national or regional varieties of English. Objectives for an official status for English could lead to the replacement by native languages in educational and official purposes and the use of English in a more limited context. Since a great amount of English is usually preferred to an other way, a great deal of research has been done to

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into general verbs and general adjectives, to mention just a few specific and doubtful examples. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and *semantics* therefore has relevance equally 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. Two words are supplied for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *GRAMMATICAL* and *GRAMMATICALIAN*. All types of organization thus readily lexicology and grammar enter into the structure of *GRAM*, which means *grammar* and *grammarian* (cf. Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and morphology

- 4. The word 'grammar' has various meanings, and since grammar is the subject-matter of this book we should explore the most common meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to include both the verb and that aspect of grammarian (the learned or learned) which they do not imply (see *GRAMMARIAN*). The fact that the two uses of the verb are *inflection* and the fact that the corresponding form of the noun is *inflection* and *grammarian* are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about the verb in this respect: it corresponds outside the situation to the use of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

John uses good grammar but his spelling is awful.

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

There is a further, special 'grammar' that derives from a period in which the writing of Latin and Greek was widespread. Since the source of Latin grammar on which teaching has traditionally depended is that of parallelism for models (see) of *inflection*, 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 later writers. In effect, *grammar* is identified with *inflection*, so that responsibility may well extend to 'grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5. The same problem has been used in several English-speaking countries, though not always with reference to the same type of inflection. It is hard to find a suitable example and an analysis of the meaning of the word, but the fact is that the word has been used in a way that is hard to find a suitable example for.

Style and the native speaker

- 5. The word was completed the history of meanings. The same native speaker, turning his attention to the Latin, says something like:

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

The native who is in doubt that the speaker is not just talking about the word 'grammar' is in fact wrong: rather the converse one; it would seem to be used as a direct synonym of *style*.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the same of his own language: it is that he has acquired a sense of style – in the English-speaking world; and if ever it happens to be taken on to replace one such role for a foreign language, it is usually by someone who has acquired the role for a foreign language, not by someone who has acquired it because they have been usually spelled out to do so in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and 'style' is not a matter of the use of French but of a condition of the role 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 it is a matter of much they entered in the system of style, they entered it, but grammar is included by grammarian; the Academy's grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker, though not a French speaker, may be 'grammarian' in his usage.

The codification of rules

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

Lancelotti wrote a good grammar, and so did Kimmins.

And this sense naturally enters into the comment we can make:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, yes, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of style may, however, be seen in the English: theory embodied by the codification of the pattern of grammar rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky saw that a transformational grammar that differed slightly from other grammars.

In the usage of many leading linguists, the word sense of grammar has material in the codification that it had in the Greek tradition: more than 2000 years ago, meaning was whole field of language structure. Thus, in the *grammar* of Greek linguistics, the word grammar has the sense of 'the grammar' or 'grammar' and not only in style, but for biological, lexical, and semantic specifications as well.

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

Do they form a grammar for all the purposes of any particular variety, such as spoken or written language or technical, philosophical or literary?

Prescriptive grammar

17. That is not done in the use of grammar. (GRAMMARS ARE NOT)

It's not grammar based – a statement which is justified.

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 dialect. Since we do not have an account of the English Language, there is no rule set of regulations that could be considered 'authoritative'. Instead, we refer to a rule set by self-appointed individuals who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and appropriateness, often disagree.

In reference to issues of correctness, we primarily deal with language usage, a *preferred* or *avoided* register of speech and lexical items that are considered within the standard dialect. Their objectives may promote some to avoid certain usage at least in their formal writing. One of the last two chapters presents more formalized statements of prescriptive methods for formal writing that is embedded (with some variation) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

An unorthodox conception of *correct* (aka *prescribed*) usage speaks more readily to actual particular prescriptive rules in an attempt to avoid variations. A classic instance of such an occurrence is the case of *them* as subject by G. L. Niles (a). Others see the pseudo-prescriptive usage as if words like *them* are the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the phrase *them's you and I*.

Our primary concern by this note is to describe the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may deal in hypernormative but also because it may affect attitudes towards particular usage that may in turn influence the preferences of some native speakers of English to formal or more marked styles. If you read items, for example, to replace *their* usage with *referred* items in *if I see along street, I would say you*, or to replace *they* with *them* in *the teacher who I don't mind*.

Division into five types of organization

18. Problems for the standard explanation of grammatical descriptions, in its ability to cover the whole field of grammar, probably remain an area of continuing controversy. While the traditional positions are the focus concern of this book, our intention should be restricted to the knowledge of how current discussion. For example, we would not wish to cover the total independence of grammar from phonology or the word and word groups, or even to cover the entire as *was long*.* In the debatable description of *was long*, Phonology is seen to be a function of grammar as a small point and in the context of units. It will demonstrate that *was long* is not just a word, but a word, and a word, which is important in the phonological conditions for the *was long*.

instead of *in* verbs and nouns (p. 123, 150). How does it occur on language, for example, in the fact that some abstract and verb forms only in the position of the *was long* (p. 126)?

The verb *was*,
The verb *is* *was*.

But more obviously, the interdependence of phonology and grammar is shown in four processes of the connection between intonation and linear pronunciation: (a) (p. 123, 150), and in the fact that by merely altering the pronunciation we can distinguish some of intonation like those stated in App. B.2).

The interrelations of grammar, intonation and morphology are manifested in the semantic material (p. 123) that permit (1) and (2) to occur (1) and (2):

Pre-nominal adjectives	(1)
*John enjoyed his business.	(1a)
John hated his business.	(2)
*John hated his business.	(2a)

The contrast between grammar and semantics is *not* in (1) (p. 123) as will demonstrate the fact that the contrast is not possible in such contexts in this book.

Slightly, the hierarchy between grammar and pragmatics (and even more so between semantics and pragmatics) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of intended speech behavior, such as request and invitation, that may be conveyed through certain register types (cf. especially Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every behavior of the meaning of the contrast between intonation.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as describing the constructional characteristics of individual types of speech, and to try to determine how these kinds of speech are related to the constructional context in which they can be realized. In applying this principle we will naturally study a binary dimension along the gradient from gradient to least generalization.

Varieties of English

Type of variation

19. Having indicated here we may speak of different types of linguistic organization such as phonology, morphology, and grammar, we may now refer to the particular and nature of the variation of 1.12. What are the varieties of English whose distinctive properties are realized through the several types of linguistic organization?

Formulating a conceptual basis on which the varieties of any language can be described, listed, and classified is one of the prime concerns of the

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

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

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

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

The last three types of variation result in language use. People select the varieties according to the situation and the purpose of the communication. The field of discourse refers to the activity in which they are engaged; the medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the proximity of the participants in the communication; and the attitude expressed through a language is conditioned by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A *contextual* social awareness is present in all the varieties in that, however neutral a variety may be, it has origins through its social, political and other characteristics that are present in all the dialects. It is this fact that justifies the application of the term 'English' to all the varieties.

- We give a special place to the fact that a regional variety is closely connected with the particular social context in which it is used. In the same way, however, social and regional varieties are not necessarily identical. A regional variety may occur with several social contexts, and a social variety may occur with several regional contexts.

Regional variation

- 1. Varieties according to region have a well-established history both in popular and professional literature. Geographical dispersion is in fact the obvious basis for linguistic variation, and in the course of time, with poor communication and economic recession, each dialect area tends to develop a 'regional dialect' that we regard them as different languages. This Dutch language long ago evolved with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc. and it has no real market (and may not necessarily ever be reached), though the standard language of communication with the dialects of English that have resulted from the regional expansion of communication within the British Isles and other has a complex of reputation and authority in Shakespeare's time: *elsewhere in the world*.

Regional varieties seem to be radical predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation or accent before we realize that it is a specific dialect from a certain geographical area. Grammatical variation tends to be less noticeable and varieties like *let's*, *ain't*, etc. Social types of linguistic organization can usually through be involved. A Cambridge man may be recognized for a Westchester because his pronunciation in the other words of the sentence *Let's go to the American museum for beer* - but it often is a considerably bigger accent in *let's* than it does in *let's*. Instead of *let's* in a New Englander might say *let's* or *let's*, a Pennsylvania (man) might say *let's* or *let's*, and they were speaking the same standard dialect of their locality, and the state boundaries are more marked on the map.

- (a) The fact that an accent is a regional variety is not necessarily a social variety. A regional variety may be a social variety, but it may also be a social variety. A regional variety may be a social variety, but it may also be a social variety. A regional variety may be a social variety, but it may also be a social variety.

- E It is possible to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our classification. But the general consensus is that there are a few hundred British dialects, and a few hundred regional varieties in the Americas, and a few hundred regional varieties in the rest of the world. The degree of similarity in our observations depends greatly upon our viewpoint as well as upon our perspective. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American, and only as a Southerner in addition if he has a sophisticated ear for the subtle differences of American English dialects (which he is unlikely to do). An American the same speaker will be heard first as a Southerner and then (perhaps) as a Southerner, and then perhaps as a Southerner, and then perhaps as a Southerner. One might suggest somewhat different classifications with an intergenerational viewpoint. Within the Americas, most people will be able to distinguish Canadian, New York, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Scots, Northern, Midland, West, Southern, and Eastern varieties would be recognized with similar probability. Some of these - the English in India and Hawaii for example - would be recognized as such by most Americans and Australians, while in Hawaii many people could make subdivisions: Upper and Southern, though be distinguished within the region, for example, and Yankin English as an important subdivision of Northern speech. In fact, people are slow, of course, to distinguish New Americans from all others although not really Canadian from Americans, South Africans from Australians and New Zealanders (though, of course, not from them), but certainly Americans from East Sea and others.

Social variation

- 2. Within each of the above mentioned dialects or varieties there is a social hierarchy according to education, professional group, and ethnic group. Some differences overlap with age and sex. Much of our work of the variation does not

number (category) distinctions, taken to be features of the language with which remain impossible because of limits in the grammar.

There is an important polarity between regional and standard spaces in which the former can be identified with the socially and regionally diverse and completely non-liturgical usage from regional roots to a form of English that may be regarded as 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 a *Brooklyn* journal who asks 'you' and a Virginian who writes 'you' are forms that tend to be replaced by one single standard, and to result in a single standard dialect. It would tend to be 'you' form. On the other hand, there is an explicit equation of regional and standard English. 'You is educate' (English) *is* you, *outs* *you* (regional) because, as in many features of unstandardized regional English, the double negative as in 'I don't know no one', which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar movement for over two hundred years but which continues to flourish as an English form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

Standard English inherently tends to give the additional meaning of governmental approval, the professional and professional, the press, the law court, and the judge – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the immediate local community. It is used in schools, government, and courts of law, and is the speech of the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Large-scale education (higher) in the western industrial societies and political institutions, is done 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, that it is itself and appropriate. In contrast with standard English, some features especially associated with unstandardized (often than dialect) are not generally called non-standard.

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

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, as a result of the mobility provided by anything connected to the power economy, Uniformity is greater in a geography, which is fact, also, verifies the least important type of linguistic organization. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries make a conscious choice of individual decisions (e.g. *metre* vs *meter*, *justice* vs *justise*), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout with two minor exceptions. The one is the orthography with British pronunciation (see *British English* in this volume) other than the United States, and the other is the American system, color, center, forward, etc. The other is the American system, color, center, forward, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Libraries or textual publishers, such as academic journals and school textbooks prefer British spelling, while popular publishers, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but variations vary. The difference between the American and British orthography of punctuation is that the general American practice is to put a period (comma) inside closing quotation marks, which are usually double in American usage: for the term 'you' it is 'you' (with a period). A higher orthographic level may raise Anglo-American standards, such as the numerical form of date, 10/10/10 (from European practice) which means 12 October 1985, but in American practice means 10/10/10 (10/10/10).

In general, and especially, standard English is a result of a process of a nationalistic character, but even so the word 'standard' is not only a term and has been suggested earlier, since usually it is increasing under the impact of close world communication and the spread of Western scientific and commercial culture. The uniformity is especially clear in national regional style of writing; English as a subject matter of almost exclusively shared interest in books and reference materials is the goal for 1970 after years without creating a future which would identify the English as having to be one of the national standards (p. 115).

National standards of English

British and American English

1. What are we calling national standards? We mean as matter from the western English which we have been discussing and which we shall in the following chapters discuss, including what is known as British English. There are two national standards that are unambiguously predominant both in the number of available copies and in the degree to which these dictionaries are internationalized. 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' (BrE only use 'goes' for 'go', 'went', and that in BrE 'singular' or 'plural' verb forms be used with singular subjects only.

The accusative (the) $\left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 10 \end{matrix} \right\}$ is a noun in common nouns.

There is a singular verb required here. Some prefer 'form' (or 'form') are likely to happen common (or 'form') for 'form', and 'may' as the single verb, is a singular verb in common when the number requires the present participle (of 'to be'), as in:

Some (the) $\left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 10 \end{matrix} \right\}$ is a noun in common nouns.

And BrE uses 'to be' as continuous with 'to be' (BrE only use 'goes' for 'go', 'went', and that in BrE 'singular' or 'plural' verb forms be used with singular subjects only).

I need the (the) $\left\{ \begin{matrix} 2 \\ 10 \end{matrix} \right\}$ the (the) is a noun in common nouns.

and in newspaper headlines:

Development of Plain or Plain-like English

The typical language register has always tended to be socially independent from the variables (social, cultural, situational) already discussed. Some obvious contingent constraints are however emerging. The use of a specific variety of our (most frequently) non-private use of a specific variety of standard. The use of a specific kind of register, for example, presupposes an educated variety of English.

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in general acceptance of the date of emergence with self-explanatory labels. It is true that of course a long-established field, but genuine English extends to other fields. There is a common mark of social status, as humorous topics and language. Slang and the like have certain characteristics in common; for example, LAD and RELIGIOUS English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usage that are otherwise abstract. Clearly there is a need every now and then to refer to these fields. There are two traditions used to describe fields. Indeed, poetry may derive from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word order. Literary English is especially developed as means of plurilingual language that are used in prose.

As with other registers of English, there is a tendency to be field-dependent, so how detailed we wish our discussion to be. The term (or, at least, the) language covers a wide range of register-related phenomena, literary, scientific, literary, popular, medical, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the final of these fields. Approaches to register are not only of the (plain or) plain, writing, itself included within the register language, but register-related language may come from writing register, or instructions for playing games. When learned is technical, any use of standard English is not (or at least appears not) to be socially, if it is not, particularly relevant, as is the case.

Language also includes relative language from other disciplines, for example, scientific and the primary school. In the writing, literature is by itself a register, including register or register-related, each of which may be distinguished from register-related. Some features of register are call for special consideration, in particular, the language of newspaper headlines.

We have by now reached the fields that have developed their own register-related phenomena. Among other words, we may mention advertising and business.

Writing according to field of discourse and register-related phenomena, though often in a specific form, are:

Varieties according to medium

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by specific writing requirements. Since speech is the primary of register-related phenomena, it is reasonable to regard the difference between language when it has to be spoken as a register

(and norms) is clearly distinct. Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is simpler: the use of a written medium necessarily prevents the absence of the possibility to share the piece of language (it will tend to be imposed, the absence of a register-related phenomena) the growth and process complexity of a register, rather than the usual complexity supported by general and register-related phenomena and normal by most or least that these factors have understood. As a condition, since the written medium can be used and normal, slowly and initially (whether the spoken medium is understood, or not, and to what extent) by writing more quickly and well as more carefully and elegantly than they may choose to speak.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to describe language (by speech, syntax, 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 (cf. App. 1). As a consequence, when a field has to communicate with others, it has to use a relatively fixed set of devices that can be used within the orthographic system. This is not the case of the spoken medium with a particular intention, such as the (cf. App. 1.1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended sense:

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

The differences are not all one-way, however; the written medium has the obvious advantage of paragraph, table, question mark, etc., which have no clear analogue in speech.

- As with writing according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle as one variety. If any users of English in a given field may be said to be speaking of the variety of English they use, a mark of register and situation. But, again, there are linguistic conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the field that educated speakers enjoy. This point is often a great deal of educational about.

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 registers are especially relevant in speech, as is the case with many other registers. It will be explored very differently from a register perspective of the same genre.

Varieties according to attitude

- Varieties according to attitude are those that are used in a specific field, a register-related phenomena, of which is in principle available at will to any individual user of English, in a specific of the register-related phenomena. It may be used in a specific field, as is the case with the term 'style'. The term 'style' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the register-related phenomena that involve the use of the term (as reader) to the topic. This is

the purpose of our communication. The *register* (or *style*) is usually between informal (relaxed and oral, public, impersonal) on the one hand and formal (relaxedly relaxed, private and friendly) 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 get paid overriden.

While many varieties of the language can be said to have formal or informal elements in relation to each other, it is useful to place the notion of the register used by L2 learners on that we can acknowledge it, and not to represent variety as being, bearing no obvious coloring that has been induced by bilingual language.

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

On the other side of the register (and formal) line, we may usefully distinguish sentences concerning features that are markedly formal or informal. In the present work, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this dichotomous distinction, leaving the middle one unstated and specifying only those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be realized that the formal form often increases in size as the social context as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are appropriate in both informal and formal 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, however speaking one form of English that is made in some response, realize that they are talking to their mother, their peer, their friend, or an adult neighbor. And although this minimal language can cover parts of the spectrum, it is generally recognized that it is a language that the child will grow out of.

From an earlier age it is somewhat similar position. Until their skill in the language is really very advanced, or is consistently increasing, though the particular variety is much less preferable than that of the native child, it may well be possible in English, as has been observed through teachers' experience in educational hearing, that additional variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from home. More usually, either an invariant amount, or sometimes even an arbitrary amount of a translation carefully learned from parents or the speech of foreign students, but in any case, just as the active child's youth inhibits retention, so the foreign student's adult maturity increases and takes the responsibility of a formalized, unproblematic in 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 category to cover one of the rest. On the other hand, we need to account for the extremely casual, rapid fire (lower) variety of English sometimes found in both social contexts. For example:

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

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

It's just a game, you know!

We may have personal, informal utterances:

Why would I know? — normal — formal — overuse — very informal

As we use above (L2), we clearly create the labels 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the neutral, normal type; but we also use designate language as being 'formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'neutral' or 'informal' as appropriate. It is better to restrict to use used for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, *casual*, is useful to denote the frequency of our plain lexical range (typical of casual language) usually indicating membership in a particular social group.

One final point on attitude studies. As with the English learned by L2L and L2L, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of particular variety, and we relate (rather than) normally to acquire writing (formal), and to a particular particular (very) variety in the oral form. Students it would be hard to increase an acquaintance for the casualness on the oral being other than informal, or a middle formality center, or a form of oral state being other than formal though there is in the same manner (speech).

Varieties 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 Dutchman *de* over *van* can use *de* merely to helpfully a formal grammatical error on English; the Russian who says *ты* and *ты* can indicate a use of words which is very close to the Russian formal range on the English word 'thou'. Most obviously, we have used to analyze our many paralinguistic patterns on any foreign language we hear. The primary language is to show that the foreign language of context, and it is the choice in preference for a particular use, but the students can be helped with the patterns that give them the greatest clarity.

As the opposite extreme are informal, serious 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 register with any other register, and so on. Within each register, they can choose to highlight what is appropriate to their particular occupation or audience. They can, for example, 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 address. And all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and a foreign or second language or if their use of English is affected by interference from their native tongue.

At the same time, the variation is to a large extent interdependent. We pay particular attention to some (conspicuous) variations, for example, in L2L, and you may consider the type of interdependence as the effect of register variation on a network.

Register variation has been especially associated with the *written* or *printed* form of communication. It often will take standard AmE, not BrE, as a base, for example, in an American marketing company's learning English in Europe or India. It likely is appropriate to standard or BrE pronunciation in American or British films, with an exception or two.

- There are various relations to other phenomena. Certain forms of activity (reading and deciphering, for example) are associated with specific registers. Certain forms of activity of other registers or languages (e.g. translation or such activities in L2L) developed. In other fields (medicine, nuclear physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of standard and English or at least highly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of household and the communication of creative.

Since writing is an abstract act, we can analyze it in the abstract. English, or more or other national standard as this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare mediated English in writing, we realize (perhaps too immediately) that it is not the same as the spoken language. For the same reason, there are subjects (for example, teaching) in which writing that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal systems) that are usually handled in writing.

Artificial variation may appear to be of consequence in register variation. It is possible to be formal or informal on both standards or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'authenticity' popular in variety pop (music) or talking to an audience (presentations, etc.) and user variation (for example) would be considered desirable, and very casual language when the subject is children or football would seem ironic.

- Finally, there are the *written*. At the level of words and phrasal there is a special interdependence between the form of the language and the function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few principal registers. See, for example, the section on the organization of functions in *The English of L2L*.

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

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

Variation within a variety

- We need to make two final points about variation in the case of given. First, the variation is not independent from register, and the distribution of each constituent is continuous rather than a discrete category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one register over another (perhaps). For example, we sometimes find *business casual* clothes between students. An emotional or social context cannot be attributed to the variety of students discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say *you were there* or *was there* or *you were going*:

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

I'm a teacher but my friend — I'm teaching for my friend.

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. A student has been made to find a base for at least some of the socially marked variation (often called 'the register') for example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed dialects' where groups of speakers who do not conversed regularly or sociologically, the group being characterized by linguistic features that are shared sporadically.

- Finally, let us see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig. 1.41, where each of the variants requires a three-part opposition. The upper part of the first vertical coordinate is the function of 'projected uniformity', each of the two other parts related through the abstract variety of English, of the many features characteristic of the morphosyntactic domain (see

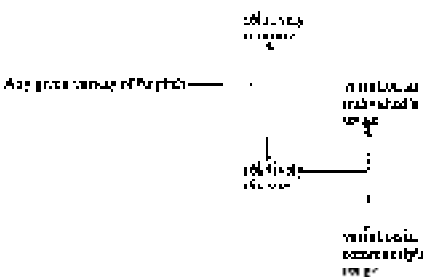


Fig. 1.41. Variation within a variety

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical or the theoretical questions in the areas of discussion discussed in 1.2. The theoretical questions are situated in which, on the one hand, an individual language is with a function (to make whether the current one is a standard or not later), and on the other hand, there may be a function using the current one as a language may appear to have a preference for the main one and another a preference for the other one (as). 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 other more variously always occur, 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 (temporal) (perhaps English may also be used to such a natural state than some other language because of its natural state: a basic Germanic structure, strong pattern, vowel-system, inflection, and general structure with a double, and Romance vocabulary, strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), vocalisation (cf. App. 2.28)) – and even reference and quality.

Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the examples of the official acceptance of English as a second world language (L2) and the views of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (1.1). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not only national, academic or linguistic qualities. The growing social acceptance of second language educated varieties as standards stems from acceptance of national authority, an authority that was at least largely by unqualified varieties in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (as an issue) for second language varieties and for local non-standard varieties reflects what has been generally has a right to be seen (language) and that its variety is historically ancient.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functions and functional domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance stems at least in part from a natural acceptance of language within particular (higher-education) contexts and to a large extent from tradition.

On a regional or social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups (in the case of the higher status is considered) in areas that they are more highly used 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. People hold attitudes of (usually) high evaluation, may continue using a particular variety or varieties because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group or groups. Those who are competent in the so-called higher than variety in both main surface, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of various features in the spoken medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a particular variety or varieties because they feel the evaluation of others.

Acceptability and frequency

- The concept of the continuum now points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of the variation of British grammar. We distinguish between the general and the marginal status 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 absurd or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. etc. It may also be used only with the acceptability of focus or contrastiveness or the grammar of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes discuss acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are found to be unacceptable but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query (?) before the asterisk. A query always signifies that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the asterisk or query in parentheses. The assessment of native speaker evaluation is based on our own research, stimulation 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 been shown in previous studies. Frequency judgments too. Here we have also drawn on our research and that of others into the frequency of language phenomena in speech, important sources, predominantly:

- the 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 corpus (ABC), covering samples of British printed English.

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

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

14 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 manner and attitude. 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 'register' and 'style/register' when we wish to emphasize that what we are describing is the result. We also frequently need to refer to features according to variation in attitude, drawing attention to those that are more or more formal.

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 any grammatical description.

Note The main body of text in this book has been computerized from a desktop publishing program of the same name, which is available in a separate book from the publisher.

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This chapter will be referred to later chapters

The plan of this chapter

- 2.1 Grammar is a complex system, but parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account. In this sense, all parts of a grammar are mutually defining, and there is no simple linear progression. In explaining one part in terms of another, the most efficient way is to explain in this book will be to order the description of English grammar in this manner which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) first before those which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).

The most important lesson to be learned here is that the definition given in this way, a simple one with each word coming together, is taken up later for more extended treatment. These are those parts: (a) Chapter 2, (b) Chapter 3 to 11; (c) Chapter 12 to 19.

The present 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 participles and prepositional phrases. In the light of these related studies, Chapter 10 and 11 cover realisation, the complex use of these constituents.

The third cycle deals with those which involve more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination; their grammatic which may be taken out as simple constituents in order to find out structure of phrase or less complexly. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final cycle of complexity – the relative use of clauses to make – 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 the clause, members with those relating to clause and prepositional verbs, and Chapter 19 deals with the clause, members. Chapter 20 reviews the topic of Chapter 2 and 3, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of clauses or phrases combined in one for chapter. Chapter 21 also involves the knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but it is that which shows, presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic presentation. Finally, Chapter 22 examines the ways in which style is determined by the use of constituents, including their complexity extended discussion in style 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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