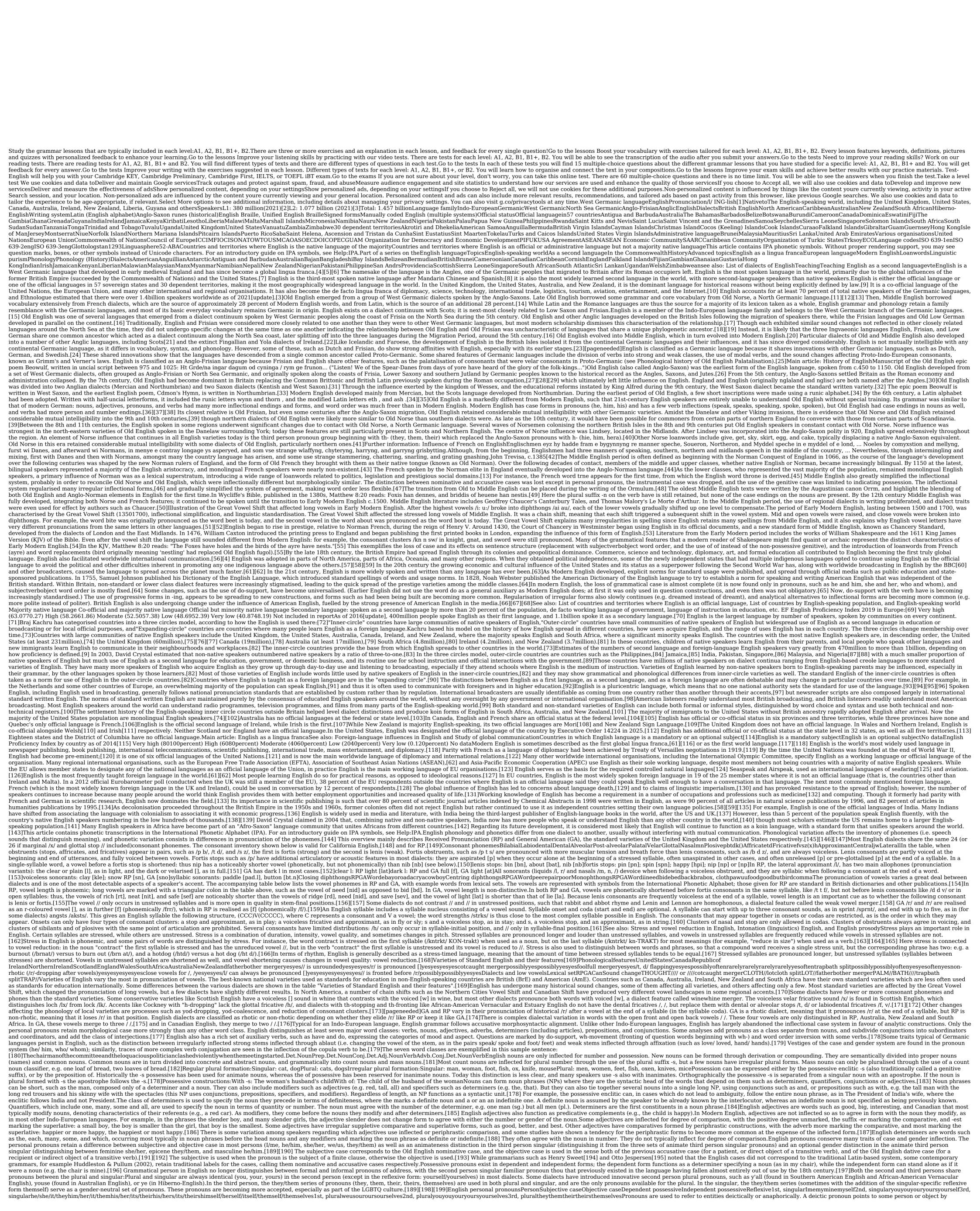
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identifying it relative to the speech situation for example, the pronoun I identifies the speaker, and the pronouns such as that refer back to an entity already mentioned or assumed by the audience, for example in the sentence I already told you that. The reflexive pronouns are used
when the oblique argument is identical to the subject of a phrase (e.g. "he sent it to himself" or "she braced herself for impact").[200]Prepositional phrases (PP) are phrases composed of a preposition and one or more nouns, e.g. with the dog, for my friend, to school, in England.[201] English prepositions have a wide range of uses including describing
movement, place, and other relations between entities, as well as functions that are syntactic in nature, like introducing complement clauses and oblique arguments of verbs. [201] For example, in the phrase I gave it to him, the prepositions if they
governed the case of the noun they preceded, for example causing the pronouns to use the objective rather than subjective form, "with her", "to me", "for us". But some contemporary grammars no longer consider government of case to be the defining feature of the class of prepositions, rather defining prepositions as words that can function as the
 heads of prepositional phrases.[202]English verbs are inflected for tense and aspect and marked for agreement with the plural and first and second person subjects.[186] Auxiliary verbs such as have and be are paired with verbs in the infinitive,
past, or progressive forms. They form complex tenses, aspects, and moods. Auxiliary verbs differ from other verbs in that they can be followed by the negation, and in that they can occur as the first constituent in a question sentence. [203][204]Most verbs have six inflectional forms. The primary forms are a plain present, a third person singular
present, and a preterite (past) form. The secondary forms are a plain form used for the infinitive, a gerund-participle and a past participle and a past participle. [205] The copula verb to be is the only verb to retain some of its original conjugation, and takes different inflectional forms depending on the subject. The first person present form is am, the third person singular
form is is, and the form are is used in the second person singular and all three plurals. The only verb past participle is been and its gerund-participle is been and its gerund-participle is being. English inflection strong Regular Plain (infinitive) takelove Gerund participle taking loving Past
participletakenlovedEnglish has two primary tenses, past (preterite is inflected by using the preterite is inflected by using the preterite form of the verb, which for the stem vowel. The non-past form is unmarked except in the third person singular, which
takes the suffix -s.[203]PresentPreteriteFirst personI runI ranSecond personYou runYou ranThird personJohn runsJohn ranEnglish does not have future verb forms.[206] The future tense is expressed periphrastically with one of the auxiliary verbs will or shall.[207] Many varieties also use a near future constructed with the phrasal verb be going to
(going-to future).[208] Future First person I will run Further aspectual distinctions are shown by auxiliary verbs, primarily have and be, which show the contrast between a perfect (I had been
running) and present perfect (I have been running).[209]For the expression of mood, English uses a number of modal auxiliaries, such as can, may, will, shall and the past tense forms could, might, would, should. There are also subjunctive and imperative moods, both based on the plain form of the verb (i.e. without the third person singular -s), for use
in subordinate clauses (e.g. subjunctive: It is important that he run every day; imperative Run!).[207]An infinitive form, that uses the plain form of the verbal clauses are those that are formed around a verb in the present or preterite
form. In clauses with auxiliary verbs, they are the finite verbs and the main verb is treated as a subordinate clause such as I saw him leave, where the main verb is see, which is in a preterite
form, and leave is in the infinitive. English also makes frequent use of constructions traditionally called phrase that are made up of a verb root and a preposition or particle that follows the verb, but in writing it is written as
separate word. Examples of phrasal verbs are to get up, to ask out, to get together, and to put up with. The phrasal verb frequently has a highly idiomatic meaning that is more specialised and restricted than what can be simply extrapolated from the combination of verb and preposition complement (e.g. lay off meaning terminate someone's
employment).[211] In spite of the idiomatic meaning, some grammarians, including Huddleston & Pullum (2002:274), do not consider this type of construction to form a syntactic constituent and hence refrain from using the term "phrasal verb". Instead, they consider the construction simply to be a verb with a prepositional phrase as its syntactic
complement, e.g. he woke up in the mountains are syntactically equivalent. The function of adverbs is to modify the action or event described by the work up in the mountains are syntactically equivalent. The function of adverbs is to modify the action or event described by the work up in the mountains are syntactically equivalent. The function of adverbs is to modify the action or event described by the work up in the mountains are syntactically equivalent.
example, in the phrase the woman walked quickly, the adverbial forms, such as good, which has the adverbial form well. In the English sentence The cat sat on the mat, the subject is the cat (a noun phrase), the verb is sat, and on the mat is a
prepositional phrase composed of a noun phrase the mat, headed by the preposition on. Modern English syntax is moderately analytic. [212] It has developed features such as questions, negative polarity, the passive voice and progressive
aspect. English word order has moved from the Germanic verb-second (V2) word order to being almost exclusively subject (SVO). [213] The combination of SVO order and use of auxiliary verbs often creates clusters of two or more verbs at the centre of the sentence, such as he had hoped to try to open it. In most sentences, English only
marks grammatical relations through word order. [214] The subject constituent precedes the verb and the object constituent follows it. The example below demonstrates how the grammatical roles of each constituent follows it.
sentences where one of the constituents is a pronoun, in which case it is doubly marked, both by word order and by case inflection, where the subject pronoun follows the verb and takes the objective case form. [215] The example below demonstrates this double marking in
a sentence where both object and subject are represented with a third person singular masculine pronoun: HehithimSVOIndirect objects (IO) of ditransitive verbs can be placed either as the first object in a double object construction (S V IO O), such as I gave Jane the book or in a prepositional phrase, such as I gave the book to Jane. [216] Main article
English clause syntaxEnglish sentences may be composed of one or more clauses, that may in turn be composed of one or more phrases, verb phrases, verb phrases, verb phrases, that may in turn be composed of one or more phrases, that may in turn be composed of one or more clauses, that may in turn be composed of one or more phrases, verb phrases, verb phrases, verb phrases, verb phrases, that may in turn be composed of one or more phrases, verb phr
clause (or matrix clause) whereas other clauses are subordinate to a main clause. Subordinate clause is the phrase I think (that) you are lying, the main clause is headed by the verb in the phrase I think (that) you are lying.
The subordinating conjunction that shows that the clause that follows is a subordinate clause, but it is often omitted. [217] Relative clauses are clauses that function as a modifier or specifier to some constituent in the main clause that you received today specifies
the meaning of the word letter, the object of the main clause. Relative clauses can be introduced by the pronouns who, whose, whom, and which as well as by that (which can also be omitted.)[218] In contrast to many other Germanic languages there are no major differences between word order in main and subordinate clauses.[219]English auxiliary
verbs are relied upon for many functions, including the expression of tense, aspect, and mood. Auxiliary verbs form main clauses of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verb form main clauses, and the main verbs function as heads of a subordinate clause of the auxiliary verbs form main clauses.
Subjectauxiliary inversion is used in many constructions, including focus, negation, and interrogative constructions. The verb do can be used as an auxiliary even in simple declarative sentences, where it usually serves to add emphasis, as in "I did shut the fridge." However, in the negated and inverted clauses referred to above, it is used because the
rules of English syntax permit these constructions only when an auxiliary is present. Modern English does not allow the addition of the negating adverb not to an ordinary finite lexical verb, as in *I know not it can only be added to an auxiliary do is
used, to produce a form like I do not (don't) know. The same applies in clauses requiring inversion must involve the subject and an auxiliary verb, so it is not possible to say *Know you him?; grammatical rules require Do you know him?[220]Negation is done with the adverb not, which precedes the main verb and
follows an auxiliary verb. A contracted form of not -n't can be used as an enclitic attaching to auxiliary verbs and to the copula verb to be. Just as with questions, many negative constructions require the negation to occur with do-support, thus in Modern English I don't know him is the correct answer to the question Do you know him?, but not *I know him to the copula verb to be. Just as with question to occur with do-support, thus in Modern English I don't know him is the correct answer to the question Do you know him?, but not *I know him?
him not, although this construction may be found in older English.[221]Passive construction in such a way that the object of the active phrase is either omitted or demoted to a role as annoted to a 
oblique argument introduced in a prepositional phrase. They are formed by using the past participle either with the auxiliary verb to be or to get, although not all varieties of English allow the use of passives with get. For example, putting the sentence she sees him into the passive becomes he is seen (by her), or he gets seen (by her). [222] Both yes/no
questions and wh-questions in English are mostly formed using subjectauxiliary inversion (Am I going tomorrow?, Where did he go?). In most cases, interrogative words (wh-words; e.g. what, who, where, when, why, how) appear in a fronted position. For example, in the guestion
What did you see?, the word what appears as the first constituent despite being the grammatical object of the sentence. (When the wh-word is the subject or forms part of the subject, no inversion occurs: Who saw the cat?.) Prepositional phrases can also be fronted when they are the questions theme (e.g. To whose house did you go last night?). The
personal interrogative pronoun who is the only interrogative pronoun to still show inflection for case, with the variant whom serving as the objective case form, although this form may be going out of use in many contexts. [223] While English is a subject-prominent language, at the discourse level it tends to use a topic-comment structure, where the
 known information (topic) precedes the new information (comment). Because of the strict SVO syntax, the topic of a sentence generally has to be the grammatical subject of the sentence, it is often promoted to subject position through syntactic means. One way of doing this is
through a passive construction, the girl was stung by the bee. Another way is through a cleft sentence where the main clause is demoted to be a complement clause of a copula sentence with a dummy subjects are also used in
constructions where there is no grammatical subject such as with impersonal verbs (e.g., it is raining) or in existential clauses (there are many cars on the street). Through the use of these complex sentence constructions with informationally vacuous subjects, English is able to maintain both a topic-comment sentence structure and a SVO
syntax. Focus constructions emphasise a particular piece of new or salient information within a sentence, generally through allocating the main sentence level stress on the focal constituent. For example, a wasp that stung her), or The girl was stung by a bee (contrasting with
another possibility, for example that it was the boy).[225] Topic and focus can also be established through syntactic dislocation, either preposing or postposing the item to be focused on relative to the main clause. For example, That girl over there, she was stung by a bee, emphasises the girl by preposition, but a similar effect could be achieved by
postposition, she was stung by a bee, that girl over there, where reference to the girl is established as an afterthought. [226] Cohesion between sentences is achieved through the use of deictic pronouns as anaphora (e.g. that is exactly what I mean where that refers to some fact known to both interlocutors, or then used to locate the time of a narrated
event relative to the time of a previously narrated event).[227] Discourse markers are often the first constituents in sentences and help to create cohesion. Discourse markers are also used for stance taking in which speakers position themselves in a
specific attitude towards what is being said, for example, no way! expressing disbelief), or boy! I'm hungry (the marker boy expressing emphasis). While discourse markers are particularly characteristic of informal and spoken registers of English, they are also used in written and formal registers.[228]The
English lexicon consists of around 170,000 words (or 220,000, if counting obsolete words), according to an estimate based on the 1989 edition of the English Dictionary. [229] Over half of these words are nouns, a quarter adjectives, and a seventh verbs. There is one count that puts the English vocabulary at about 1 million words but that count
presumably includes words such as Latin species names, scientific terminology, botanical terms, prefixed and suffixed words, jargon, foreign words of extremely limited English use, and technical acronyms. [230] English adopts foreign words of extremely limited English use, and technical acronyms.
 lexicographers, the scholars who formally study vocabulary, compile dictionaries, or both, were impeded by a lack of comprehensive data on actual written texts and spoken passages. Many statements published before the end of the 20th century about the growth of
English vocabulary over time, the dates of first use of various words in English, and the sources of English vocabulary will have to be corrected as new computerised analyses of linguistic corpus data become available. [232][233] English forms new words from existing words or roots in its vocabulary through a variety of processes. One of the most
productive processes in English is conversion, [234] using a word with a different grammatical role, for example using a noun as a verb or a verb as a noun. Another productive word-formation process is nominal compounding, [230][233] productive word-formation process is nominal compounding, [234] Formation of new words, called
neologisms, based on Greek and/or Latin roots (for example television or optometry) is a highly productive process in English and in most modern European languages, so much so that it is often difficult to determine in which languages, so much so that it is often difficult to determine in which language a neologism originated. For this reason, American lexicographer Philip Gove attributed many such words to the
"international scientific vocabulary" (ISV) when compiling Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1961). Another active word-formation process in English is the creation of acronyms, [235] words formed by pronouncing abbreviations of longer phrases as single words, e.g. NATO, laser, scuba. Main articles: Foreign-language influences in
English and Lists of English words by country or language of originSee also: Linguistic purism in EnglishEnglish lexicon by source language[11][236]French, including Modern scientific and technical Latin (28.24%)Germanic languages (Old English, Old Norse, Dutch) (25%)Greek (5.32%)No etymology given
(4.03%)Derived from proper names (3.28%)Other (5.83%)English, besides forming new words from existing words and their roots, also borrows words from other languages. This borrowing is commonplace in many world languages, but English has been especially open to borrowing of foreign words throughout the last 1,000years. [237] Nevertheless
most of the core vocabulary and the most common words in English are still West Germanic (238) The English words first learned by children as they learn to speak or write English without Germanic words, but it is possible to write or speak many sentences in English
without foreign loanwords.[240]But one of the consequences of long language contact between French and English in all stages of their development is that the vocabulary of English has a very high percentage of "Latinate" words (derived from French, especially, and also from other Romance languages and Latin). French words from various periods
of the development of French now make up one-third of the vocabulary of English (241] Linguist Anthony Lacoudre estimated that over 40,000 English words are of French origin and may be understood without orthographical change by French speakers.
between Old Norse and Old English during colonisation of eastern and northern England. Many of these words are part of English core vocabulary, such as egg and knife. [243] English has also borrowed many words directly from Latin, the ancestor of the Romance languages, during all stages of its development. [233] [230] Many of these words had
earlier been borrowed into Latin from Greek. Latin or Greek are still highly productive sources of stems used to form vocabulary of subjects learned in higher education such as the sciences, philosophy, and mathematics. [244] English continues to gain new loanwords and calques ("loan translations") from languages all over the world, and words from
languages other than the ancestral Anglo-Saxon language make up about 60% of the vocabulary of English. [245] English has formal and informal speech, tend to be made up predominantly of words of Anglo-Saxon origin, while the percentage of vocabulary that is of Latinate origin is higher
in legal, scientific, and academic texts.[246][247]Main article: English word free instead of the Spanish, using the English word free instead of the Spanish gratisEnglish has had a strong influence on the vocabulary of other languages.[241][248] The influence of English comes from such factors as opinion leaders in other countries knowing
the English language, the role of English as a world lingua franca, and the large number of books and films that are translated from English is an especially suitable language for expressing new ideas or describing new technologies. Among
varieties of English, it is especially American English that influences other languages, such as Japanese, readily take in English loanwords written in sound-indicating script. [251] Dubbed films and television programmes are an especially
fruitful source of English influence on languages in Europe. [251] Since the 9th century, English has been written using the English alphabet, which uses the Latin script. Anglo-Saxon runes were previously used to write Old English are in the Old English Latin
alphabet.[34]English orthography is multi-layered and complex, with elements of French, Latin, and Greek spelling on top of the native Germanic system.[252] Further complications have arisen through sound changes with which the orthography has not kept pace.[51] Compared to European languages for which official organisations have promoted
spelling reforms, English has spelling that is a less consistent indicator of pronunciation, and standard spelling differences between British and American English. These situations have prompted proposals for spelling reform in
English.[254]Although letters and speech sounds do not have a one-to-one correspondence in standard English spelling, spelling rules that take into account syllable structure, phonetic changes in derived words, and word accent are reliable for most English words.[255] Moreover, standard English spelling shows etymological relationships between
related words that would be obscured by a closer correspondence between pronunciation and spelling for example, the words photography, and photography, and photography, and photography is "near-optimal",[252] there is a
rationale for current English spelling patterns. [256] The standard orthography of English is the most widely used writing system in the world. [257] Standard English spelling is based on a graphomorphemic segmentation of words into written clues of what meaningful units make up each word. [258] Readers of English can generally rely on the
correspondence between spelling and pronunciation to be fairly regular for letters or digraphs used to spell consonant sounds. The letters c and g normally represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, g, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, the phonemes /b, d, f, h, d, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z represent, respectively, represent, respe
a soft g pronounced /d/. The differences in the pronunciations of the letters c and g are often signalled by the following letters in standard English spelling. Digraphs used to represent phonemes and phoneme sequences include ch for /t/, sh for //, qu for /kw/, and ph for /f/ in Greek-derived words. The single letter x is generally
pronounced as /z/ in word-initial position and as /ks/ otherwise. There are exceptions to these generalisations, often the result of loanwords being spelled according to the spelling patterns of their languages of origin[255] or residues of proposals by scholars in the early period of Modern English to follow the spelling patterns of Latin for English words
of Germanic origin.[259] For the vowel sounds of the English language, however, correspondences between spelling and pronunciation are more irregular. There are many more vowels are often indicated by combinations of letters
(like the oa in boat, the ow in how, and the ay in stay), or the historically based silent e (as in note and cake). [256] The consequence of this complex orthographic history is that learning to read and write can be challenging in English. It can take longer for school pupils to become independently fluent readers of English than of many other languages.
including Italian, Spanish, and German. [260] Nonetheless, there is an advantage for learners of English reading in learning the specific sound-symbol regularities that occur in the standard English spellings of commonly used words. [255] Such instruction greatly reduces the risk of children experiencing reading difficulties in English. [261] [262]
Making primary school teachers more aware of the primacy of morpheme representation in English may help learners learn more efficiently to read and write English writing also includes a system of punctuation is to mark
meaningful grammatical relationships in sentences to aid readers in understanding a text and to indicate features important for reading a text aloud. [264] Dialectologists identify many English dialects, which usually refer to regional varieties that differ from each other in terms of patterns of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The pronunciation
of particular areas distinguishes dialects as separate regional accents. The major native dialects of English are often divided by linguists into the two extremely general categories of British English varieties: Southern Hemisphere English, the
most prominent being Australian and New Zealand English. Speech example of a man with a Cockney accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Received Pronunciation accent (Alain de Botton).
class Estuary English accent (Russell Brand). Speech example of a man with a (West) Yorkshire accent (Damien Hirst). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a with a contemporary Liverpool accent (John Bishop). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a contemporary Liverpool accent (John Bishop). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (Rob Brydon). Speech example of a man with a (South) Wales accent (R
for 1,500years explains why England has a great wealth of regional dialects. [266] Within the United Kingdom, Received Pronunciation (RP), an educated accent associated originally with the South East of England, has been traditionally used as a broadcast standard and is considered the most prestigious of British accents. The spread of RP (also
known as BBC English) through the media has caused many traditional dialects of rural England to recede, as youths adopt the traits of the prestige variety instead of traits from local dialects. At the time of the 195061 Survey of English Dialects, grammar and vocabulary differed across the country, but a process of lexical attrition has led most of this
between Upper and Middle-class RP speakers and between native RP speakers and between native RP speakers and speakers and identities. An
which include the urban subdialects of Manchester (Mancunian) and Liverpool (Scouse). Having been the centre of Danish occupation during the Viking invasions of England, Northern English dialects, particularly the Yorkshire dialect, retain Norse features not found in other English varieties. [271] In the West Midlands, dialects such as Black
Country (Yam Yam), and by less extent Birmingham (Brummie), preserve archaic features from Early Modern and Middle English, retaining Germanic elements such as specific grammatical structures and vocabulary.[272]Since the 15th century, South East England varieties have centred on London, which has been the centre from which dialectal
innovations have spread to other dialects. In London, the Cockney dialect was traditionally used by the lower classes, and it was long a socially stigmatised variety. The spread of Cockney features across the South East led the media to talk of Estuary English as a new dialect, but the notion was criticised by many linguists on the grounds that London
had been influencing neighbouring regions throughout history.[273][274][275] Traits that have spread from London in recent decades include the use of intrusive R (drawing is pronounced drawring /drr/), t-glottalisation (Potter is pronounced with a glottal stop as Po'er /p/) and th-fronting, or the pronounciation of th- as /f/ (thanks pronounced fanks) or
/v/ (bother pronounced bover).[276]Scots is today considered a separate language from English, but it has its origins in early Northern Middle English[277] and developed and changed during its history with influence from other sources, particularly Scottish Gaelic and Old Norse. Scots itself has a number of regional dialects. In addition to Scots,
Scottish English comprises the varieties of Standard English spoken in Scotland; most varieties are Northern English accents, with some influence from Scots. [278] In Ireland, various forms of English have been spoken in Scotland; most varieties are Northern English accents, with some influence from Scots.
Forth and Bargy and Fingallian developed as offshoots from Early Middle English and were spoken until the 19th century. Today Irish English is divided into Ulster English, the Northern Ireland dialect with strong influence from Scots, and various dialects of the
Alabama woman with a contemporary Southern American accent (Martha Roby). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Chuck Zito). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York City accent (Marty Walsh). Speech example of two men with a New York
(Russell Gage). Speech example An Ontario woman with a Standard Canadian accent (Margaret Atwood). Percentage of Americans aged 5+ speaking English at home in each public usage microdata area (PUMA) of the 50 states, Washington, D.C. and Puerto Rico. according to the 20162021 American Community Survey Rhoticity dominates in North
American English, but The Atlas of North American English found over 50% non-rhoticity with at least one local speaker in each US metropolitan area (designated with a red dot) and non-rhotic African-American Vernacular English pronunciations found primarily among African Americans regardless of location. STANDARD CANADIAN Pacific
NorthwestAboriginal CanadianQuebecOttawa-ValleyMTEATLANTIC CANADIANLunenburgNewfoundlandDue to the relatively strong degree of mixing, mutual accommodation, and koinization that occurred during the colonial period, North American English has traditionally been perceived as relatively homogeneous, at least in comparison with
British dialects. However, modern scholars have strongly opposed this notion, arguing that North American English shows a great deal of phonetic, lexical, and regional varieties such as African American English, Chicano English, Cajun English, or
Newfoundland English.[280] American accent variation is increasing at the regional level and decreasing at the very local level,[281] though most American English (GA), with differences hardly noticed even among Americans themselves
including Midland and Western American English. [283] In most American and Canadian English dialects, rhoticity (or r-fullness) is dominant, with non-rhoticity (or r-fullness) is dominant.
become the standard.[286]Separate from General American English are American English are American English and Eastern Wew England English and African-American Vernacula:
English; all of these, aside from certain subdialects of the American South, were historically non-rhotic. Canadian English varieties, except for those of the Atlantic provinces and perhaps Quebec, are generally considered to fall under the General American English continuum, although they often show raising of the vowels /a/ and /a/ before voiceless
consonants and have distinct norms for writing and pronunciation as well.[287] Atlantic Canadian English, It was mostly influenced by British and Irish English, Irish and Scottish Gaelic, and some Acadian French.
[289] Regions such as Miramichi and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English, the most populous American brotic prestige of their respective regions. In Southern American English, the most populous American English, the most populous American "accent group" outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English, the most populous American English, the most populous American English, the most populous American English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English, the most populous American English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern American English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions. In Southern English (and Cape Breton Island have a wide variety of phrases and words not spoken outside of their respective regions.)
[291][292][293] Southern accents are colloquially described as a "drawl" or "twang",[294] being recognised most readily by the Southern Vowel (e.g. pronouncing spy almost like spa), the "Southern breaking" of several front pure vowels into a gliding vowel or even two syllables (e.g. pronouncing the
word "press" almost like "pray-us"),[295] the pinpen merger, and other distinctive phonological, grammatical, and lexical features, many of which are actually recent developments of the 19th century or later.[296]Spoken primarily by working- and middle-class African Americans, African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) is also largely non-rhotic
and likely originated among enslaved Africans and African Americans influenced primarily by the non-rhotic, non-standard older Southern dialects. A minority of linguists, [297] contrarily, propose that AAVE mostly traces back to African languages spoken by the slaves who had to develop a pidgin or Creole English to communicate with slaves of other
ethnic and linguistic origins.[298] AAVE's important commonalities with Southern accents suggest it developed into a highly coherent and homogeneous variety in the 19th or early 20th century. AAVE is commonly stigmatised in North America as a form of "broken" or "uneducated" English, as are white Southern accents, but linguists today recognise
both as fully developed varieties of English with their own norms shared by large speech example of a man with a general Australian accent (Julia Gillard). Speech example An example of a man with a general Australian woman with a general Australian accent. Problems playing this file? See media help. Speech example An example of a man with a general Australian accent. Problems playing this file? See media help. Speech example An example 
example of a Queensland man with a cultivated Australian accent (Geoffrey Rush). Speech example of a woman with a New Zealand accent (John Key). Since 1788, English has been spoken in Oceania, and Australian English has developed as the first
language of the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Australian continent, its standard accent being General Australian. The English of neighbouring New Zealand English are each other's closest relatives with few differentiating
characteristics, followed by South African English and the English of South East England, all of which have similarly non-rhotic accents, aside from some accents in the South Island of New Zealand. Australian and New Zealand English stand out for their innovative vowels are fronted or raised, whereas many long vowels have
diphthongised. Australian English also has a contrast between long and short vowels, not found in most other varieties. Australian English grammar aligns closely with British and American English; like American English grammar aligns closely with British and American English also has a contrast between long and short vowels, not found in most other varieties. Australian English grammar aligns closely with British and American English; like American English grammar aligns closely with British and American English grammar aligns closely with British and English grammar aligns closely with British grammar aligns closely with British grammar aligns closely with British grammar aligns grammar al
front vowels that are often even higher than in Australian English.[304][305][306]Speech example of a male teenager with a Singaporean accent. Problems playing this file? See media help. Speech examples of a man and woman with Filipino accents. The first significant exposure of the Philippines to the English language occurred
in 1762 when the British occupied Manila during the Seven Years' War, but this was a brief episode that had no lasting influence. English later became more important and widespread during the Seven Years' War, but this was a brief episode that had no lasting influence. English later became more important and widespread during the Seven Years' War, but this was a brief episode that had no lasting influence. English later became more important and widespread during the Seven Years' War, but this was a brief episode that had no lasting influence.
 found on street signs and marquees, in government documents and forms, in courtrooms, in the media and entertainment industries, in the business sector, and in various other aspects of daily life.[307] One particularly prominent form of English usage in the country is found in everyday speech: most Filipinos from Manila use or, at the very least,
have been exposed to Taglish, a form of code-switching between Tagalog and English. Speech example of a man with a South African accent. Problems playing this file? See media help. Speech example An example of a
woman with an educated Nigerian accent (Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie). Speech example of a woman and man with Jamaican accents. Speech example of a woman with an Indian accent (Arundhati Roy). English is spoken widely in southern Africa and is an official or co-official language in several of the region's countries. In South
Africa, English has been spoken since 1820, co-existing with African English (SAE) as a first languages. Today, about nine percent of the South African English (SAE) as a norm. It is one of the few non-rhotic
English varieties that lack intrusive R. The second-language of their speakers. [309] Most phonological differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] The vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant differences from RP are in the vowels. [310] Consonant
other varieties), while r is often pronounced as a flap [] instead of as the more common fricative.[311] Nigerian English spoken in Nigerian English spoken in Nigerian English spoken in Nigerian English origin have made it into Nigerian
English. Additionally, some new words and collocations have emerged from the variety out of a need to express concepts specific to the culture of the nation (e.g. senior wife). Over 150million Nigerians speak English.[313]Several varieties of English are also spoken in the Caribbean islands that were colonial possessions of Britain, including Jamaica
the Leeward and Windward Islands and Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, the Cayman Islands and Belize. Each of these areas is home both to a local English and African languages. The most prominent varieties are Jamaican English and Jamaican Creole. In Central America, English-based
creoles are spoken on the Caribbean coasts of Nicaragua and Panama. [314] Locals are often fluent in both the local English variety and the local English variety and the local creole languages, and code-switching between them as a spectrum of language
registers in which the most creole-like forms serve as the "basilect" and the most RP-like forms serve as the "acrolect", the most formal register. [315] Most Caribbean varieties are based on British English and consequently, most are non-rhotic, except for formal styles of Jamaican English which are often rhotic. Jamaican English differs from RP in its
vowel inventory, which has a distinction between long and short vowels rather than tense and lax vowels as in Standard English. The diphthongs [ie] and [ou] (e.g. bay and boat pronounced [be] and [bot]). Often word-final consonant clusters are simplified so that "child" is
pronounced [tail] and "wind" [win].[316][317][318]As a historical legacy, Indian English tends to take RP as its ideal, and how well this ideal is realised in an individual's speech reflects class distinctions among Indian English speakers. Indian English accents are marked by the pronunciation of phonemes such as /t/ and /d/ (often pronounced with
retroflex articulation as [] and []) and the replacement of // and // with dentals [t] and [d]. Sometimes Indian English speakers may also use spelling-based pronunciations where the silent h found in words such as ghost is pronounced as an Indian voiced aspirated stop [].[319]Speech example of a Hispanophone man speaking
English. Problems playing this file? See media help. Speech example of a Japanese man speaking English (Shinzo Abe). Speech example of a German man speaking English (Werner Herzog). Non-native English speakers may pronounce words differently due to having not fully mastered English pronunciation. This can happen
either because they apply the speech rules of their mother tongue to English ("interference") or through implementing strategies similar to those used in first language acquisition.[320] They may create innovative pronunciations for English sounds, not found in the speaker's first language.[320]Linguistic purism in EnglishEnglish-speaking
worldEnglish-only movementEnglish in the Commonwealth of NationsList of countries and territories where English is an official languages?". Ethnologue. 2023. Archived from the original on 18 June 2023. Retrieved 3 October 2023. ^ a base of the top 200 most spoken languages?". Ethnologue. 2023. Archived from the original on 18 June 2023. Retrieved 3 October 2023. ^ a base of the top 200 most spoken languages?".
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pp.325326. Bazelmans 2009, p.326: "According to most researchers, this means that there cannot have been an 'original' Anglo-Frisian entity ...". It is not possible to construct the exclusive common relative chronology that is necessary in order to be able to establish a node on a family tree. The term and concept of 'Anglo-Frisian entity ...".
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century and were more or less complete in the nineteenth. Although do coexisted with the simple verb forms in negative statements from the early ninth century, obligatoriness was not complete until the nineteenth. The increasing use of do periphrasis coincides with the fixing of SVO word order. Not surprisingly, do is first widely used in
interrogatives, where the word order is disrupted, and then later spread to negatives.". Leech et al. 2009, pp.1819. Mair & Leech 2006. Mair 2006. Which countries are best at English as a second language?". World Economic Economic Economic Mair 2006. Which countries are best at English as a second language?". World Economic Economic Mair 2006. Which countries are best at English as a second language?". World Economic Mair 2006. Which countries are best at English as a second language?". World Economic Mair 2006. Which countries are best at English Proficiency Index 2019.
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