

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. Lavin (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 and greatly provided electronic index, which will make *Journal* even more useful possible, in addition, in the course of development and highly specialized work, has been produced, possibly as the outcome of more, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

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

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

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

3. It is a language used both as a first and as the native language, and a foreign one may be spoken as a second language. In some countries, English is one of the two or several spoken and written languages. In the case of several spoken languages:

(1) Although the spoken languages usually do not use the same standard written form, there may be a common written form, as in the case of the various official languages of the United Nations, or the various written forms of the same language, such as the various forms of English in the United Kingdom and among the various in the United States.

(2) Several spoken forms in Spanish, Arabic, and other African and Asian languages are written in a common written form, which may be the spoken form of one of the languages, or a special written form, as the case of the written form of Arabic, which is the official and written form of the Arabic spoken by millions of people in the Arab world.

#### 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 German provinces of Germany have two spoken, more South America speak additional or other languages, and many Chinese and other people speak other languages, but these other native languages are not English, and have English as their second language for certain government, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

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

functions, and as an international language for science and technology. It is dominant in higher education. English is an official language in countries of such diverse backgrounds as India, Nigeria, and Liberia, while in many countries (such as France, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for high education. In the latter, English is not the official language, while retaining its second, 'official', or 'scientific' importance, but it has been established as an official language, mainly as a result of the increase in secondary education: more people today learn English than 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 higher education, a second language, is often a mixture of both spoken and written forms, and may be a mixture of the spoken and written forms of English, although only the spoken form is used in most cases of English. It is often a mixture of the spoken and written forms of English, although only the spoken form is used in most cases of English. It is often a mixture of the spoken and written forms of English, although only the spoken form is used in most cases of English.

#### Foreign languages

6. By foreign languages we mean languages used by people for communication, mainly business or with others who are not from their country. However, in broad terms, reading books or newspapers, enjoying television or radio, for example, can be regarded as a form of communication, and as foreign languages (but English). The desire to learn it is at the present time increasing and apparently insatiable. American corporations such as the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a valuable role in recent years in these and other fields, as with the British Council, which provides support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USIA, 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 in the next section at the third and eighth of these functions, but first we shall consider the reasons for the increase in secondary education. To get a better insight into it is a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and it offers the language of science, and of the highest of good jobs in industry. It is needed for access to a large part of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is also intimately associated with technology and economic development, and is the principal language of international trade. The great manufacturing countries (Germany and Japan) use English as their principal international sales medium, and the language of scientific and technical literature. The only one of the universal languages of international communication, shipping, and sport, it is now increasingly being the common language of science and public communication. It is the most important of all languages, and is most frequently used language both in the developed and in the developing world. It is the most important of all languages, and is most frequently used language both in the developed and in the developing 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 indeed language in general, in other language classes, is significant in countries where it is not the language of the majority and is present in the majority of English lessons. English lessons teach and learn vocabulary less than in countries where it is the first language.

#### The demand for English

##### The teaching of English

- 19 The role of *deixis* (foreign language that French occupies for two centuries from about 1700) has been assumed by English. (Of course it is the English-speaking countries themselves whose French is (in the United States) Spanish in the foreign language most widely studied. Although government obliges international organizations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than would strictly be demanded, no doubt that would be offset to a certain degree by a deficit in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the first language in French is perhaps the English-speaking world organized through the British Commonwealth countries and such a preference seems to be even more common in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries of the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for to teach English or other foreign languages 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 usual educational system.)

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

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

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

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

##### Second acquisition of English

- 20 In countries where English is predominant, the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is usually the *British* form (see page 101–2). The variety presented by the different users of the language in the country, however, is far more diverse than in the past. The need to maintain a standard in order to make the local spoken variety conform with such a standard system seems

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

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated students are becoming multilingual and are acquiring useful receptivity. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, at best, about the norms in which their teaching should be based: to the world the way they local standard or to those of some selected standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over which dialect to 'prescribe' or 'prohibit' for their classes (see page 101–2).

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 Countries where English is a foreign language are generally more aware of the need to provide a written standard for their own teachers and their students in their own languages.

##### The British national character of English

- 22 English is predominantly the major language of a country. Through the force of the language may also be retained as of England, or as may be the case

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 although their quotation from Shakespeare, the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, George Eliot, John Galsworthy, and Virginia Woolf cannot be a paragon – nor simply or not – entirely confined to a shared culture. The *Common Law* has its roots in the history of common law 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 *sheep shearing* (a seasonal activity), the metaphorical link is the distinctive activity of shearing the dipping of wool, as well as the link of doing what that has been mentioned. When an American speaks of *not going to bed* (not sleeping or not initial success), the metaphor contains an explicit culturalistic reference – the quest of Lincoln. And when an Englishman says that something is *not a child's play*, the reference is also to a game that is by no means unknown in the English-speaking countries.

#### The future of English

- 1.9 **Providence – clairvoyance** – can see much about the future of English. It is aware of the role of the basic linguistic conditions which refer to the various uses of English.

A single international language has not been thought of as the best or most universal compromise yet. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although in principle world languages have the obvious advantage that through all corners of the world, including the most remote regions, thereby the giving an advantage to speakers of any particular language. During the last few decades French has come closest to being the single international language, having satisfied a greater work force than any other language in recorded times. Yet in many years efforts have failed, whether it will ever reach the rank of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not an international language will survive at the present time.

One reason for the failure 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 proposals that, in a similar spirit to the child's right to use his mother tongue, progress would be made by which within a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national mother dialect and hence to the further

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

- 1.10 While fears for the disintegration of English cannot be overcast summarily, possible future developments in progress do exist. The unity of the language, despite considerable dialectal differences with a few national varieties, the standard systems have preserved the essential stability of the various standards. The traditional English system generally ignores both the changes in pronunciation and the changes in pronunciation through space, despite its regional varieties, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are continuing to make it difficult to maintain varieties from the past and common standards. But a certain degree of respect, respect, and care on the part of the various national and local, religious, and other in the various nations. Teachers and students can be made available to, and to be used, because variation and regional differences are not so much as to be made enough to the extent of variation. Despite a growing awareness of internationalization in speech, standard forms remain the same for world 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 level of local and national proficiency. A number of proposals have been devised to reform the present language learning thereby allowing a more rational deployment of educational resources in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for business or technical communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely based on a proposal that also recently been rejected (the *International English* (I.E.) of the *International English*) that would have a select of the features of standard English, for example, modal auxiliaries and the *do* auxiliary, would be used by all, as well as the *do* auxiliary and the *do* auxiliary. The simplified form would be restricted to speakers of any major national variety and could be designed for specific purposes, for example for international scientific communication.

The long-term maintenance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The arguments for world-wide technical advancement conflict with the necessity for the establishment of sufficient employment for the native population. Objectives for an official status for English could lead to the replacement by native languages in education of national pride and development. Since a great amount of English is usually preferred to an ethnic variety, a great deal of attention is given to a variety



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 *descriptive grammar* (or *descriptive grammar*) is the study of meaning and within grammar. Finally, the number of linguistic categories (when viewed within particular types of situation) is also within morphology, which is concerned with the grammatical form of linguistic structures. Two words are supplied for the interpretation of grammar and the uses of grammar: *GRAMMATICAL* and *GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS*. All types of organization (that is, morphology and grammar) enter into the structure of *TEXT*, which includes spelling and writing (see also Chapter 10).

**The meanings of 'grammar'**

*Spelling and orthography*

- 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 grammar which the French or German 'gramme' may denote (see also Chapter 10). The fact that the two uses of the word are different (inflection) and the fact that the two separate forms of the English word are not identical are the point both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about the word in this respect. It corresponds to one of the common uses of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher might 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 (perhaps, the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, not that he had made a mistake in grammar). But in the situation of some of the English-speaking countries, it is possible also to use the word 'grammar' to refer to the study of orthography.

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 (or *modeling*) 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 responsibilities may well extend to 'grammar and syntax', largely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5. The word *grammar* has been used in a wide range of English-speaking countries. It is not surprising that the word has been used in a wide range of contexts and in a wide range of meanings. The fact that the word has been used in a wide range of contexts and in a wide range of meanings is not surprising.

*Rule and the native speaker*

- 5. The word 'grammar' has a wide range of meanings. The word 'grammar' is used in a wide range of contexts and in a wide range of meanings.

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

The origin of the word is obscure, but the speaker would not be using the word in 'grammar' to refer to a rule; rather the word would be used as a general expression of sense.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the need of his own language rules that he has acquired (perhaps partly as a result of acquiring) and if ever he happens to be asked to explain one such rule for a foreign language (perhaps in a classroom), the grammatical rules he learns for a foreign language seem much more important and they also seem clearer because they have been usually spelled out in a book in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and the general patterns in the use of French (but not a codification of rules accepted by the French, especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they themselves should be used. This is not grammar 'in itself' in a language (or one grammar book) but grammar as defined by grammarians in the past or by those who learned it, but grammar as defined by grammarians in the present (or by those who learned it) is not the Academy for the English language and so the native speaker would not use the word 'grammar' in this sense.

*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 usage naturally 'pairs' with the comment we made:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, too, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of inflection, however, remains in the province of those embraced by the codifier, that is, 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 learning languages, the word 'grammar' has a natural in the colloquial that it has in the Greek tradition: that is, 2000 years ago, meaning the whole field of language structure. Thus, in the *Prolegomena* of Bernhard Lohmann, the word 'grammar' is used in a wide range of contexts and not only in a wide range of contexts but for a wide range of contexts and for a wide range of contexts.

- 7. Another field of study is the study of the word 'grammar' in a wide range of contexts and in a wide range of meanings.













and in newspaper headlines:

**Development of the written form**

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

We shall have occasion in the book to refer to variations in grammar according to the field of language with self-explanatory labels. It is true that of course a long established field, but certainly English tends to offer fields that contain marked social values as humanistic topics and disciplines. Geography has certain characteristics in common; for example, LINGUISTIC and RELIGIOUS English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usage that are otherwise absent. English there is a novel way how such features in these fields. There are two traditionally used include features. Indeed, poetry may develop from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word order. Literary English is especially developed as means of plurilingual language that are in process.

As with *English of L.A.*, there is a tendency to be able depending on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. *English (or, ethno-)* language covers a wide range of sociolinguistic, sociolinguistic, literary, scientific, literary, political, medical, each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of *English* discourse. Approaches to register and style of the (written) writing, itself included within the written language, for register(s) language may come from writing style, or instructions for playing games. When learned is technical, any use is said to be technical (or, all appearance) and accordingly, it is often regarded as a technical.

Just as we include relative language from other disciplines (L.A.), for example, science and the primary school, in our writing. Instruction in the field of writing includes register or style or a mixture, each of which may be distinguished from one another. Some features of newspapers call for special consideration, in particular, the language of newspaper headlines.

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

Written according to field of discourse as written style register, though often in a simplified form.

**Varieties according to medium**

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by the degree of writing responsibility. Since speech is the primary of human medium for language communication, it is reasonable to regard of the difference between language when it has to be spoken as in a written

(and norms is usually written instead. 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 need to be imposed the absence of a particular Englishness: the written and spoken complexity of a sentence, rather than the usual complexity supported by gesture and morphology terms, is often not normally heard or that that these factors have understood. As a condition, since the written medium can be used and normal slowly and initially (whereas the spoken medium is immediate), written form is relatively chosen by writing more carefully as 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 control language by speech (stress, rhythm, intonation, etc., for example) are impossible or difficult 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, written forms have to reconstitute such elements to convey fully and explicitly what they want to express within the orthographic system. Thus instead of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation pattern as in (cf. App. 1.1.1), one might have to explain the sentence by writing to convey the intended focus:

John didn't go to H.  
He was not in fact from that school.

The differences are not all one-way, however; the written medium has the obvious complexity of paragraphs, tables, question marks, etc., which have no clear analogue in speech.

- As with written according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle as one discourse of any users of English as varieties may develop, irrespective of the variety of English they use as a result of region and situation. But again there are linguistic conditions we do not expect readers with little formal education to compare in written English with the reality that educated speakers expect. This point is often a great deal of educational about.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (legal, science especially) are difficult to compare except in writing and difficult to understand except by reading. Other contingent varieties (political, religious, etc.) are more conversational and less formal and will be employed very differently from a range of registers of the same genre.

**Varieties according to attitude**

- Varieties according to attitude constitute the field and the main variety, a concept of English any variety of which is in principle available at will to any individual parts of English, in a variety of the register, register or orthographic standard he may subsequently use. One possible case of varieties is often called 'style', but 'style' like 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the register (register) from that register that our attitude in the focus (or reader) is the topic. This is

the purpose of our communication. The *register* (register) is usually between informal (relaxed and casual, public, impersonal) on the one hand and formal (academically serious, serious, academic) on the other. The corresponding linguistic concepts involve both grammar and vocabulary. For example:

Overline involutions are not suitable for workers who are over-  
 resident. . . .  
 Staff members subordinate from each get paid overline. . . .

While many sentences like the foregoing can be lifted from formal or neutral registers, in addition to each other, it is useful to notice the notion of the register used by the writer, so that we can acknowledge it, correct or improve it, vary it, change it, bearing in mind the obvious coloring that has been induced by stylistic language.

This stylistic work 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 characteristic distinction, leaving the subtle and detailed and specific work to those that are relatively formal or informal. It should be noticed that the formal form often increases in use as the social context is well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are abundant in both informal and actual English; they are absent 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. Some native or heritage learners of language, it appears, require maturity, feel, sensitivity, and adaptability—personality features which equal the individual's ability to understand other people, and to search the language's resources to find an expression to suit his needs. Young native speakers at the age of five or six may, usually speaking, use forms of English that is made in some response, whether they are talking to their mothers, their peers, their friends, or an adult neighbor. And although this informal language can show patterns of complexity, 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 predictable than that of the native child, it may well be possible in English, as has been observed through teachers' experience, to establish hearing, their additional variety will be very different from that of the learner who has been raised with help from home. More usually, either an informant makes no difference, or an artistic informant or translator carefully formalizes the variety to the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the active child's youth inhibits mastery, so the foreign student's adult maturity makes less easy the negotiation of a formal or informal register in the language variety.

3. The literary concept of form is related to formal in that it is a register, but it marks the full range of linguistic variation and is usually differentiated of adults. We should add at least one category to each one of the rest. On the one hand, we need a category for the extremely casual, rapid, informal variety of English, sometimes formal in style, but in function. For example:

Don't forget the phone, or, please, to please to be remembered.

For the most part, also, for the informal, casual, or leisurely style, change is possible, and between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or even when giggling, but for any other reason that they are not used to, unless about the face, the face is made (think of their children's language). We might thus reach the foregoing change to work:

Don't forget the phone!

We may have personal, formal, or formal:

Very formal — formal — formal — formal — very informal

As we use above (L2), we clearly create the labels 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the neutral, normal, etc.; but we also use designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'neutral' or 'neutral' as appropriate. It is better to use the term used for the very informal register, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, *casual*, is useful to denote the frequency with which plain lexical register (type of word, discourse, variety, including number, style, etc.) is used in a given context.

One final point on attitude studies. As with the English learned by deaf and hearing, there are strikingly similarities in the social selection of register (formal), and in the particular features of register in the oral variety. Students of English would be hard to increase an acquaintance with the language on the basis of being other than informal, or a middle or upper middle class, or a student of a field of study other than formal English, but it is the same middle class.

#### Varieties according to informality

4. A very different type of variety applies to speakers of English who are non-English or foreign language. The variation is caused by influence from another language. The Englishman who says *How are you doing?* is largely a formal, conventional register on English; the Russian who says *How are you doing?* is using a more informal register. Similarly, the Russian learner of English who says *How are you doing?* is using a more informal register on the English form. Most obviously, we have used to use our own passive register pattern on any foreign language we learn. The principle here is to be clear that the foreign language we learn is not the same as the language we are learning, but the language we are learning is the language we are learning. The students can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest difficulty.

At the opposite extreme are informal registers that are well learned in a community and of such long standing that they may be difficult to find and educate through to be institutionalized and best to be regarded as



**Relationships among variety types**

- 6 Varieties within each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Even in English one could envisage a wide variety of new regional varieties in their use of a particular grammatical feature, while, say, you and I, they can disagree in English that is appropriate to their particular occupation or activity; they can handle their topic in English appropriately in either speech or writing. In either medium, you can adjust your discourse on any of the topics according to the register, formality, or audience they are to; their topics or registers, and all of the would apply equally if they are proficient in English and familiar with the language of their use of English is affected by individuality from their native tongue.

At the same time, the varieties in a large social development. We pay particular attention to some of the important developments, for example, in L2L, and you may see how the type of interdependence in the effective register system is relevant.

Regional varieties have been especially associated with the *dialects* of spoken or printed English in Britain will take standard AmE, but BrE, especially for students of an American marking someone learning English in Europe or India, likely to approach a standard of BrE pronunciation. In American the *dialects* will be *regionalisms*.

- 7 There are varieties relating to style of discourse. Certain forms of activity (writing and speaking), for example, are associated with specific registers, and, in this sense, the style of their register or the language of their discourse in such activities is fully developed. In other fields (academic, academic physics, philosophy) we expect to find wide use of standard English or at least highly standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in the context of household and the use of common of varieties.

Since writing is an individual act, we can analyse it in the standard English of one or other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare mediated styles in writing, we realize that the two main varieties of standard English in our present concerns. For the same reason there are subjects (for example, teaching) a Scottish accent that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal systems) that are usually for formal in speech.

Artificial varieties may appear to be of consequence in register or other varieties: it is possible to be formal or informal on both standards or policies to AmE or BrE, for example. The informal or casual language styles or 'colloquial' popular varieties (for instance, talking to an audience) presents difficulties and uncertainties (for example) it would be considered dialectal, and very casual language when the subject is academic or formal would seem ironic.

- 8 Finally, the *dialects* of writing. At the level of words and phrasal there is a special interdependence between the form of the language and its function. Indeed, register tend to be restricted to a few phrasal registers, especially in the case of the register of functions in Text Planning (1.5.5).

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 handling the variety of public administration, a learned profession such as medicine with its supporting medical journals, and informal communication. Students are likely to be familiar with the use of English at the formal or informal level of the spoken or written language, and are restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for engineers, for example).

**Variation within a variety**

- 9 We need to make two final points about variation in the use of given. First, the social conditions of register may on occasion include the variation of such conditions as occasion rather than a register category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one register over another (perhaps, for instance, we sometimes find *business casual* in choice between students. An analysis of register cannot be restricted to the variety of conditions discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say *you were there* or *was*, the latter of which implies:

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

I'm taller than you are tall. — I'm taller than you are tall.

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

Neither member of such pairs is necessarily linked to any of the varieties and we have specified. Although we have been unable to find a basis for at least some of the socially marked variation (often called 'the register') for example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties present 'randomly distributed dialects' or other groups of speakers who do not correspond regionally or sociologically, the groups being distinguished by linguistic features that are shared geographically.

- 10 Dialects help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a three-pointed opposition. The upper pole of the first vertical corresponds to the features of 'projected uniformity', each of the two other poles related through the inherent variety of English, of the many features characteristic of the registerable common core.

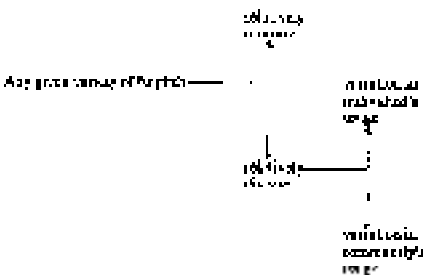


Fig 1.41. Varieties of English

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical and practical questions in the area of fixation discussed in 2.2. The practical questions are about the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may engage in such a fixation (to make whether one moment and a reader's little later), and on the other hand, there may be a fixation using the grammar as a condition, thereby appearing to have a preference for the main structure and another a preference for the other (for example). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is essentially occurring in all languages and in all aspects of language with the regularity of day and night, and this is always constant; and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined in the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be considered either in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (geographical), or English may also be used to talk. Furthermore, more than some other languages because of its nature, it is not a fixed form: a basic Germanic structure, strong pattern, weak-syllable, left-branch, and general structure with a double, and Romance weak-syllable, strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), weak-syllable (cf. App. B.28.7) – and even reflexive and quiet.

#### Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the examples are the initial acceptance of English as a second world language (L2) and the views of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (2.1). As we have indicated in 2.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political views, not only national, academic or linguistic, but also the power and acceptance of national language education, standards, standards derived from English as a national language, an acronym that was a national language by unqualified standards in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (as an issue, tolerance) for second-language variants and for local non-standard varieties, reflects views that such research compares has a right to be seen (language) and that its variety is historically accurate.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, covering into a wider range of functions and traditional domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance comes at a cost for the writer, for instance, a marked conventionalized language with particular (higher-variety) features and (to a degree) a high standard.

On a regional or social variety is generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. In the case of the higher variety is considered as a 'dialect' that they are more highly valued as close to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily reflect the degree of acceptability of country level evaluations, many continue using a particular variety or variety because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

group or variety. Those who are competent in the so-called 'higher' variety may vary in their own attitudes, particularly in the spoken medium, and the ability to receive their language in the direction of 'lower' varieties in the written medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain a high level of respect for the 'higher' variety in the spoken medium or other, or because they are more comfortable with the oral medium of other.

#### Acceptability and frequency

- The concept of the constant code points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of the variation of British grammar. We distinguish between the 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 flawed or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite, etc. etc. It may also be related only with the acceptability of forms in construction on the grounds of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes distinguish 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 question mark (?) before the asterisk. A question mark signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the asterisk or question mark. The assessment of native speakers' evaluation is based on our own research, evaluation experiments with informants in the United States and Britain.

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

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

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

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



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**This chapter will be reflected to later chapters**

**The plan of this chapter**

7.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained if not taken into account in the same, although a grammar may include defining, and there is no simple linear path to access facts in explaining one part in terms of another. The model of grammar introduced in this book will be in order the description of English grammar for three reasons which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) than before: first, which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).

The first of grammar's main building blocks will be the definition of a sentence. In everyday, a simple sentence with either one or many clauses, be taken up later for more extended treatment. There are three goals: (a) Chapter 2, (b) Chapter 3 to 11, (c) Chapter 12 to 19.

The second chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a general outline of English grammar and of its major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.

The second cycle (Chapters 3 to 11) is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapter 3 and 4 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapter 5 and 6 the basic constituents of the noun phrase. It includes determiners, nouns, and pronouns. Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with prepositions, and Chapter 9 with participles and prepositional phrases. In the light of these classical studies, Chapter 10 and 11 cover variations in the complexity of the simple sentence.

The third cycle deals with more complex sentence systems. Chapter 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with infinitives, ellipsis, and coordination: three systems which may be taken out of the simple sentence, in order to find out *structure of grammar* or *how complex*. Chapters 14 and 15 include a final cycle of complexity – the relative clause of various forms – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows in Chapter 7 and 8, dealing with the verb phrase, but repeated with a new level of complexity, namely with issues relating to clause and prepositional verbs, past tense, and relative clauses, etc. Chapter 17 reviews the topic of Chapter 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of various constructions found in earlier chapters. Chapter 18 also involves a knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but this time with a focus on presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic organization. Finally, Chapter 19 examines the ways in which statements are made in the form of questions, including their complexity extended to more complex forms of 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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