

A
COMPREHENSIVE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH
LANGUAGE

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Longman
London and New York

1 The English language

1.1	1.1	The English language today	2
1.1	1.2	The importance of English	3
1.2	1.3	Themes of English	3
1.4	1.4	Academic and general English	4
1.5	1.5	Foreign language	4
1.6	1.6	The demand for English	5
1.6	1.7	The teaching of English	6
1.7	1.8	School curricula of English	7
1.8	1.9	The International Movement of English	7
1.9	1.10	The future of English	8
1.10	1.11	Standards of English	10
1.12	1.12	Grammar and the study of language	11
1.12	1.13	Types of linguistic organization	11
1.13	1.14	Words and spellings	11
1.13	1.15	Lexicology, semantics, semantics, pragmatics	11
1.14	1.16	The meaning of grammar	12
1.14	1.17	Style and inflections	12
1.15	1.18	Rules and the null hypothesis	12
1.16	1.19	The construction of rules	13
1.17	1.20	Prescriptive grammar	14
1.18	1.21	Grammatical categories of English	14
1.19	1.22	Varieties of English	15
1.19	1.23	Types of variation	15
1.20	1.24	Regional variation	15
1.21	1.25	Social variation	17
1.22	1.26	Standard English	18
1.23	1.27	Outboard standardised English	19
1.24	1.28	British and American English	19
1.25	1.29	Scottish, Indian, Chinese	20
1.26	1.30	South Africa, Australia, New Zealand	21
1.27	1.31	Pronunciation and standard English	22
1.28	1.32	Lexical variation in English	23
1.29	1.33	Varieties according to register	24
1.31	1.34	Varieties according to context	24
1.34	1.35	Varieties according to motivation	27
1.35	1.36	Varieties and style	28
1.36	1.37	Relationship among variety types	29

- 18 In some contexts it is considered appropriate to distinguish the role played by the number of hours of study of English lessons. In 1975 an official world-wide study of 200 schools of boys, 15–17 years old, taught English. The actual comparison was made in 1976 and showed that:
- (i) The positive balance of English, but not of any other foreign or other language (French, Spanish, etc.) was an indication of success in attaining the range of its functions and in particular the acquisition of English as a (i) first language and (ii) second language for their own use, as well as for other purposes.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

- 19 The role of *deixis* (foreign language that French occupies for two centuries from about 1700) has been assumed by English (except of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where French is still the United States) Spanish is the foreign language most widely studied. Although government obliges international organizations to devote far more resources to acquisition and to transfer services than would be the case, no study has yet been offered to a comprehensive decision in English. The general equivalent of the international language English is the only school in French to perhaps the English-speaking world, organized through the British Council's schools and study centres, there seem to be even more students in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries to the West. There are also considerable commercial incentives for teaching English in all levels and to all ages, both for non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning activities take place in the ordinary process of the usual educational system.

The extent to which English is studied at the school level is shown in our analysis of the educational statistics for 112 countries where English is not a native language, but is either a foreign language or a second language. Our study confirms that over 70 million primary school students and over 21 million secondary school students were in English classes in the early 1970s. These figures represent over 12 per cent of the primary school population and over 25 per cent of the secondary school population for those countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 27 per cent of the primary school students in Germany (6 per cent of the secondary school students). Estimated figures would have been the higher if statistics for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. It is also significant that the People's Republic of China's share of the secondary school population is increasing as a rapid rate in the developing countries, so it is expected 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 tourist trade, international commerce, or international programmes for education or research. In all countries where it is a foreign language, English

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

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education in English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1975, there were 230,940 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, and 611 in the United Kingdom, and 22,148 in Canada (where English is the medium for French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next largest figure after the United States was France, 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, it is not always clear that in all parts of the country an attempt is made to make the local spoken variety conform with such a chosen spoken form.

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

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used especially for international purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria independent educated students are becoming multilingual and are acquiring useful receptivity. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, at best, about the norms in which their teaching should be based: to the world the way they local standard or to those of some selected standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native English countries over which dialect to use or 'prescribe' (see page 101–2) for their own teaching (p. 102).

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 chosen standard of recent countries such as Australia, in regions where there is the special influence of those countries.

- 21 Countries where English is a foreign language may progressively be seen to adopt independent principles which are based on teaching and learning and that are related to particular practices.

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

the language with the United States, one of the world's superpowers. English continues to perform a political or official function 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 philosophy: the business and commerce areas of 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 geographical origin is indisputable, the *Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible*, *George Eliot's* *Silas Marner*, *Charles Dickens's* *Oliver Twist*, and a few others, do not seem to be a pan-European or pan-Atlantic entity in a shared culture. The *Conveyancing Law* (the study of 'conveyance' being a legal term) in the United States and even in Australia and New Zealand, at other times, implies equally distinct, the independent and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When an Australian quote of *Franklin's* *Autobiography* (fracturing an existing) the metaphorical link to the dogmatic activity of moving the dipping of someone else in the hope of doing what they just have not done. When an American quote of *not guilty to find her* (the sentence is a initial sentence), the metaphor contains an equally distinctive article – the *quint of Lincoln*. And when an Englishman says that something is *not a child of Penitence* (the return of the to a quiet time is by no means obvious in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

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

A single international language has not been thought of as the best or most convenient compromise yet. Artificially-concocted languages have never required sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although in principle both languages have the obvious advantages that through all borders will ensure mutual understanding and reciprocal speaking, thereby the giving of advantage to speakers of any particular language. During the last few decades French has come closest to being the single international language, having achieved a greater work force than any other language (in recorded times). Yet in many years efforts have failed. It will ever remain the wish of the single international language or, indeed, whether or not a single international language will survive in the present form.

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, probably in response to the child's right to use his mother tongue (progress), and secondly, or thirdly, while a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national member district and hence to the further

disintegration of English. The diversity in number is greater in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to be taught. Since in these countries students are usually taught by teachers who are themselves not native speakers of English and who have usually acquired the language by varying degrees of fluency, 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-considered context of the language in such situations. Some people distinguish the emerging instability about varieties, which no longer have to adhere strictly to standards of acceptability.

- 1.10 While four for the disintegration of English cannot be over-stated, it is possible that some are opening to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable regional differences with a few national varieties, the education systems have preserved the essential stability of the common standards. The traditional English system generally ignores both the change in pronunciation and the use of the present progressive through space, despite its regional variation, it is a unifying factor in world English. Many factors are contributing to making all systems in various varieties from the past common-variant. But a clear language of respect, respect, and love of the common medium and of code, integrity, and fire in the western world. Teachers and students can be made available to, and to be used, because variation and regional membership systems are made flexible enough to take account of variation. Despite a growing awareness of international variation in speech, standard forms remain the same for 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 levels of local and global proficiency. A number of proposals have been developed to reform the present language learning thereby allowing a more realistic deployment of educational resources in the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, the acronym for language of reference communication. Following earlier attempts (such as *Basic English*) that were largely based on a proposal that also recently been rejected (the *International English* (I.E.) of *Madras* (Madras)) that was to be a reform of the features of standard English, for example, *International English* and *International English* would be a more practical and flexible code. The simplified code 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 scientific advancement conflict with the necessity for the establishment of scientific progress and the native traditional. 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, respect (and) of (and) for (and) a variety

that is our primary concern in this book. Words used to be classified into general words and grammar words, as in the case of rules specifying both classification. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of semantics, the study of meaning, and semantics focuses on semantic regularities within knowledge and within grammar. Finally, the number of linguistic regularities 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: LINGUISTICS and GRAMMAR ANALYSIS. All types of organization thus readily knowledge and grammar enter into the structure of SEM, which includes spelling and writing (see now § 4.2. Chapter 10).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and morphology

- 4. The word 'grammar' has various meanings, and since grammar is the subject-matter of this book we should explore the most common meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to include both the verb and that aspect of grammar which the French grammarians¹ meant by *la grammaire* (see now § 4.2.2.1.1.1). The fact that the two uses of the word are related, and the fact that the corresponding forms of the English are *to grammar* and *grammar* are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about the word in this respect: it corresponds outside the situation to the use of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

John uses good grammar in his spelling as well.

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

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 the *grammaticae* (or *grammatici*) of antiquity, 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 late antique writers in Latin, *grammatica* is identified with *linguistica*, so that grammatically may well mean 'of grammar and syntax', barely excluding the latter from the notion.

- 5. The word *grammar* has been used in a wide range of English-speaking countries, though the usage was restricted to the use of the word in the sense of the study of morphology and syntax. The meaning of 'grammar' in the sense of the study of morphology and syntax is the one that has been used in this book.

French and the native speaker

- 5. The *Grammaire* was completed in the category of meanings. The author, the speaker, found his *la grammaire* (see now § 4.2.2.1.1.1).

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

The logic which is evident that the speaker cannot use the word 'grammar' to refer to 'grammar' in the sense of the verb, and it would seem to be used as a direct synonym of 'syntax'.

Secondly, the native speaker's attitude probably gives good food for 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, he usually, if he can, 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 the learning process.

But another important point is revealed by this sentence. The distinction between 'grammar' and 'syntax' is not a matter of the use of French but of a condition of rules accepted by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show that French themselves how they progress should be seen. This is not grammar 'in itself' in a language or one grammar does not know or much they differed in the sense of syntax, they learned it, but grammar is defined by grammarians: the Academy's grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so the native speaker does not have to refer to 'grammar' in his language.

The codification of rules

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

Diderot wrote a good grammar, and so did Khrushchev.

And this equivalence is made in the context of a rule:

Did you bring your grammar?

Naturally, too, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification of the rules, however, remains in the domain of theory embodied by the codifier, and the use of the word 'grammar' rather than the statement of the grammar of a particular language:

Chomsky saw that a transformational grammar that differed could actually be written or grammar.

In the usage of many leading linguists, the word 'grammar' has material in the colloquial that it had in the Greek tradition: that is, the study of grammar was a whole field of language structure. Thus, in the *grammar* of Greek linguistics, the word 'grammar' has the sense of 'the grammar' or 'grammar' and not only in syntax but in phonology, lexicology, and grammar specification as well.

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

Relationships among variety types

- 6 Varieties within each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Users of English may learn conventional features of any register or style in their use of a particular register, while not knowing, or being unaware, of features that are appropriate to their particular occupation or activity. They can learn those aspects of English appropriate to either speech or writing. In either medium, any two distinct varieties may be used at the same time, or in the same register, or in the same activity. They do not have to be mutually exclusive, and all of the would apply equally if they are perceived as English and not foreign. A third language or main use of English is allowed by individuals 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 like the type of text or register as the effective register system is relevant.

Regional variation has been especially associated with the *dialects* of spoken or written English in China will take standard AmE, but BrE. It is likely for students of an American university learning English in Europe or Asia, likely to approach a standard or BrE pronunciation. It is also likely that students will use a different one.

- 7 There are various relations to other varieties. Certain forms of activity (writing and speaking) are associated with specific registers. Certain forms of activity of these registers are language registers. Some forms of such activities are fully developed. In other forms (writing, reading, physics, philosophy) we expect to find some use of standard and English or a register of standard English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to be dominant in the context of teaching and the use of standard English.

Since writing is an individual act, we can analyze it in the standard English, or use as other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to compare standard English in writing, we realize that it is not necessarily standard English in the same register or context. The same reason there are various (for example, teaching) a standard using that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal system) that are usually for formal purposes.

Artificial variations may appear that of a particular register or medium. It may be possible to be found or related to standard or other registers in AmE or BrE, for example. The relation of novel language forms or 'authentic' popular varieties (such as talking to an individual person or a community) and standard varieties (such as) would be considered different, and very often language when the subject is written or formal social communication.

- 8 Finally, the *dialects* of writing. At the level of words and phrasal there is a general independence between the form of the language and the system. Indeed, phrasal tend to be restricted to a few phrasal registers. Some of the most interesting examples of functions in Text Phrasal (L2L).

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

freedom to use it in writing (for example, 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 (for example, the spoken or written language) and are restricted to the English variety for a particular occasion (English for business, for example).

Variation within a variety

- 9 We need to make two final points about variation in the use of English. First, the social conditions of register (medium, register, and mode) for standard and non-standard varieties are not necessarily the same. Second, the social conditions of register (medium, register, and mode) for standard and non-standard varieties are not necessarily the same.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one variety over another (register, mode, or conditions) and standard varieties. A choice between varieties in a particular register cannot be attributed to the variety of standard varieties discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say (for example) that the choice of a particular register

He stayed a week. → He stayed for a week.

I'm a teacher but my friend → I'm a teacher but my friend.

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

Neither member of each pair is necessarily related to any of the varieties and we have specified. A choice has been made to find a basis for at least some of the socially register variation (often called 'The register' for example). It has been claimed that certain language varieties possess 'randomly distributed' features (other groups of speakers who do not understand register) or 'socially' the process being standardized by linguistic features that are shared systematically.

- 10 It is also important to note variation in terms of the relationships depicted in Fig 1.41, where each of the varieties requires a two-part register opposition. The upper part of the first vertical coordinate is the function of 'register' and 'form', each of the two parts of the register opposition. The lower part of the first vertical coordinate is the function of 'register' and 'form', each of the two parts of the register opposition.

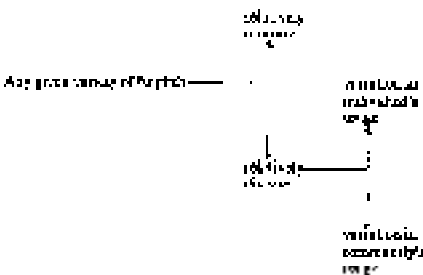


Fig 1.41. Style and register

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The theoretical and practical questions in the area of fixation discussed in 2.2. The practical questions are about the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may engage in such a fixation (to make whether one moment and a reader's little later), and on the other hand, there may be a fixation using the competence of a native speaker (maybe appearing to have a preference for *the man that sat and studied a predicate for 30 slides that it was*). 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 thus always occurs), and some members of a society will be linguistically disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined in the old (perhaps by their age). Language will not be considered either in their choice as in their temporal, spatial (geographical), or other (English may be used to talk football more than some other languages because of its native's great status: a basic Germanic vocabulary, strong pattern, semi-regularity, inflection, and general *readable* with a double), and *knows* *readable*, strong pattern (cf. App. B.6), readability (cf. App. 2.2.7) – and even reference and quality.

Attitudes to variation

- At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; the examples are the initial acceptance of English as a *major world language* (L.4) and the view of the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (L.11). As we have indicated in L.1, the current perceptions of English as an international language reflect the political values, not least economic, of the English-speaking world. The growing acceptance of world languages, especially as standards derived from English, is a national achievement, an achievement that was heralded by the *unpublished* *provision* in *native English-speaking countries*, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (as an issue) is needed for second-language learners and for local non-native speakers, effects which may be compared with a right to be seen (language) and that is surely linguistically neutral.

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

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 *ought* to be that they are more logical or close to some primary state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily coincide. Speakers' attitudes of country level evaluations, may continue using a particular variety or variants because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

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

Acceptability and frequency

- The concept of the constant core points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of the variation of British grammar. We distinguish between the *constant* and the *variable* (as far as 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. We are concerned only with the acceptability of forms in connection with the grammar of their morphology or syntax.

In general, the examples are fully acceptable if they are fully understood. But we sometimes discuss acceptable and unacceptable examples, making the latter by placing an asterisk (*) before them. If they are found to be unacceptable but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query (?) before the asterisk. A query also signals that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their responses, we put the asterisk or query in parentheses. The assessment of native 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 coincide with the assessments of relative frequency, as has concluded experimental studies. Frequency judgments too. Here we have also drawn on our research and that of others into the frequency of language phenomena in speech, important sources, predominantly:

- the corpus of the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering spoken as well as written modern British English;
- the Brown University corpus, comprising samples of American printed English;
- the parallel American British 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 far as possible, marking as (B) or (A) only the points at which they differ. It is usually not necessary to say explicitly (B) or (especially) (A), but it is

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