Л.М. ОТРОШКО

СИСТЕМАТИЗИРУЮЩИЙ КУРС ГРАММАТИКИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Учебник

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Учебник «Систематизирующий курс грамматики английского языка» включает семь частей учебно-методического комплекса по грамматике английского языка, в которых рассматриваются формы и функционирование различных частей речи, членов предложений и предложений в современном английском языке.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Учебное пособие «Систематизирующий курс грамматики английского языка» состоит из семи частей: «Основы синтаксиса и морфологии», «Именные словосочетания с существительным и местоимением в качестве ядра», «Именные словосочетания с прилагательным в качестве ядра», «Глагольные словосочетания (на базе личных форм глагола)», «Глагольные словосочетания (на базе неличных форм глагола)», «Предложение», «Члены предложения».

Изложение материала ведется в соответствии с программой по систематизирующему курсу грамматики английского языка, которая отражает специфику работы по практической грамматике в НГЛУ. Комплексная организация учебного материала по практике иностранного языка, принятая в НГЛУ, предусматривает преподавание грамматики на первом и последующих курсах в комплексе с другими языковыми аспектами на занятиях по практике языка. Систематизирующий курс грамматики служит, в основном, целям упорядочения и обобщения уже фактически приобретенных студентами знаний.

Настоящее пособие, построенное с учетом традиционного деления сфер грамматики на морфологию и синтаксис, открывается разделом, содержащим краткую характеристику всех единиц указанных уровней языковой системы. Подобное изложение материала объясняется стремлением объединить форму и функцию грамматических элементов, что позволяет представить строй английского языка в общем виде. В то же время оно способствует привитию студентам навыка квалифицированного опознания грамматических единиц на начальном этапе изучения систематизирующего курса грамматики.

Основные разделы пособия построены на синтаксической основе. Однако в каждом случае составители стремились по возможности показать соотнесенность двух разделов грамматики. Так, рассмотрение словосочетания проводится параллельно с описанием парадигматических свойств его ядра.

В пособии сохранена традиционная классификация частей речи. Она представлена в начальном разделе, где даются основные сведения о функционировании всех лексико-грамматических классов. Более детальный разбор их форм и функций приводится в связи с рассмотрением соответствующих словосочетаний. Так, например, местоимения как часть речи, их классификация и функции описываются в начальном разделе работы. Далее, в разделе «Именные словосочетания» анализируется использование местоимений в качестве детерминативов и субститутов.

Такое расположение материала неизбежно вызывает повторение отдельных пунктов, однако оно дает возможность более полно и четко описать каждую из анализируемых языковых единиц.

В отличие от большинства нормативных грамматик артикль не выделяется как часть речи, а рассматривается как детерминатив в рамках именного словосочетания. Выбор артикля обосновывается уникальностью/ неуникальностью референции.

В настоящей работе была использована задача системного представления фактов, в связи с чем возникла необходимость сравнения и противопоставления грамматических форм и функций. Наряду с этим была предпринята попытка учета вариативности грамматических единиц.

Будучи ориентированным на функционирование грамматических единиц в соответствии с общелитературным стандартом, пособие не содержит специальной маркировки стилистических вариантов. Однако в ряде случаев указывается на принадлежность данной структуры либо официальной (formal), либо неофициальной (informal) речи.

В целях предотвращения ошибок студентов некоторые грамматические формы и конструкции приводятся под звездочкой как не соответствующие английскому узусу.

Дополнительные сведения о функционировании грамматических единиц помещены в сноски.

При составлении пособия использовались сведения, содержащиеся в «Пособии по грамматике английского языка» Л.С. Бархударова и Д.А. Штелинга, «Грамматике современного языка для университетов» Р. Кверка, С. Гринбаума, Дж. Лича и Я. Свартвика, «Справочнике по грамматике для изучающих английский язык» Р.А. Клоуза, «Коммуникативной грамматике английского языка» Дж. Лича и Я. Свартвика в книге М. Суона «Английский язык в современном употреблении», а также в других отечественных и зарубежных учебниках по грамматике английского языка.

Настоящее пособие является описательно-нормативной грамматикой, поэтому оно снабжено, в основном, типовыми примерами, значительная часть которых заимствована из словарей А.С. Хорнби и Е.А. М. Уилсона, а также из указанных книг Р. Кверка с соавторами, Р.А. Клоуза, Дж. Лича и Я. Свартвика, М. Суона; остальные примеры взяты из современной английской художественной литературы. Во избежание загромождения иллюстрированного материала примеры приводятся в основном без атрибуции.

Первой части пособия предпослан глоссарий.

Работа над пособием была распределена между составителями следующим образом:
Glossary; Fundamentals of syntax and morphology – Ф.С. Гришкун, М.П. Данкова, Л.Е. Кондаурова, Л.М. Отрошко;
The noun phrase; Classification of nouns; Number; Case – М.П. Данкова, Л.М. Отрошко;

Determiners; Predeterminers; Postdeterminers; Substitutes – Ф.С. Гришкун;

Adjectives and adjectival phrases – В.И. Курышева;

Classification of verbs; Person and number; Tense; Aspect; Sequence of tenses; Mood – Л.М. Отрошко;

Voice – Ф.С. Гришкун;

Modal verbs – И.И.Туранский;

Non-finite verb phrase; Predicative constructions – Л.Е. Кондаурова, В.И. Курышева;

Utterances that are less than grammatical sentences; Parentheses; Sentences with homogeneous parts; Compound-complex sentences; Complex-compound sentences – Ф.С. Гришкун, Л.М. Отрошко;

Compound sentences – Л.Е. Кондаурова;

Complex sentences – И.И. Туранский;

The subject; The attribute; Word order and emphasis; Subject-predicate concomitance – Л.М. Отрошко;

The predicate – И.И. Туранский;

The object – В.И. Курышева;

The adverbial modifier – М.П. Данкова;

Sentence analysis – Ф.С. Гришкун.

Conventions and abbreviations

/ /	Slants enclose phonetic transcription.
( )	Close brackets indicate optional of item
{ }	Curved braces indicate choice of items
/	An oblique stroke indicates free alternatives
* after a sentence	An asterisk placed after a sentence or a form refers to a footnote
* before a sentence	An asterisk placed before a sentence or a form signifies that what follows it is unacceptable or "not good English"
ø	Zero marker
=	"equal(s)"
+	"with", "followed by"
: :	"opposed to"
A	Adjective
Adj $_{comp}$	Comparative degree of the adjective
Adj $_{posit}$	Positive degree of the adjective
Adj $_{superl}$	Superlative degree of the adjective
Adv	Adverb/adverbial modifier
Art $_{int}$	Indefinite article
Attr	Attribute
C	Predicative
D	Adverb
f	Feminine
In	Noun pronoun
ind	Indefinite
m	Masculine
N	Noun
Nom	Nominative
NP	Noun phrase
N	Neuter
O	Object
Od	Direct object
Oi	Indirect object
Obj	Objective
P	Predicate
P$_l$	Link verb
p	Preposition
part	Participle
pers	Person
Poss $_{Abs}$	Absolute form of the possessive pronoun
S	Subject
T	Determiner

V	Verb
V_i	Intransitive verb
Ven	Participle II
V_{ing}	-'ing' form of the verb
V_t	Transitive verb
V_p	Verb phrase

GLOSSARY
NOTES FOR USE

A typical entry will contain:
- (a) a bracketed part of speech label: (adj) = adjective, (n) = noun, (v) = verb;
- (b) a phonetic transcription in accordance with the International Phonetic Alphabet;
- (c) a translation (in block capitals);
- (d) a general definition, which is an interpretation of the concept in question;
- (e) examples.

Some entries contain cross references indicated by means of an arrow: →, which is equivalent of 'see'. Cross references show the relationship of the term to other terms within the system. Thus in the entry **absolute genitive**, a cross reference is made to: → **genitive**.

Alternative terms are listed at the end of the entry.

A dash is used to indicate terminological combinations with the word opening the entry.

A

ABBREVIATION [q"brJvi'eiSqn] (n) **сокращение** Shortening; a shortened form of a word or words. Many abbreviations are made from initial letters of the most important words in a phrase, e.g. "BBC" from "British Broadcasting Corporation". In grammar abbreviated forms of auxiliary verbs are common, e.g.

'd = { had / would }   'll = will   've = have   's = { is / has }

Alternative term: shortening.

ABSOLUTE ['xbsqlHt] (adj) **независимый** Self-existent; independent; used without its head.
- **ABSOLUTE GENITIVE** → **GENITIVE**
- **ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION абсолютная конструкция** A structure containing secondary predication isolated from the main sentence by intonation or commas, e.g. *Weather permitting*, we shall go. Alternative term: nominative absolute construction.

ADDRESS [q'dres] (n) **обращение** The use of a proper or a common noun denoting a person as a means of establishing verbal contact, e.g. *Rachel*, are you all right?

ADJECTIVE ['xGiktiv] (n) **прилагательное** A part of speech which is used to describe people, things, events. Adjectives are used in connection with nouns and pronouns, e.g. A *green* apple; I am *hungry*.

ADJECTIVAL ["xGek'taivql] (adj) **адъективный**; **свойственный прилагательному; имеющий характер прилагательного** Pertaining to adjectives or resembling them in some way.

- **ADJECTIVAL PHRASE адъективное словосочетание** A phrase with a single adjective, e.g. (He is) *happy,* or with an adjective and one or more → adjuncts, e.g. (He is) *so very happy*.

ADJECTIVAL ["xGek'taivql] (n) **адъективное слово; слово, употребленное в качестве прилагательного** A name given by some grammarians to a structure which functions as an adjective, before or after a noun, but which cannot take the normal inflections of an adjective, e.g. the *above* statement; the examples *adduced*.

ADJOIN [q'Goln] (v) **примыкать** To add, to append.

ADJOINMENT [q'Golnment] (n) **примыкание** Subordination of the adjunct to the head which is achieved by their positions and meanings, e.g. listened carefully; all right; much more

ADJUNCT ['xGAN(k)t] (n) **адъюнкт; подчиненный элемент** A subordinate component of a phrase, e.g. my. brother; *particularly* pleasant; knew *them*.

ADVERB ['xvWb] (n) **наречие** A part of speech which can be used to qualify a verb, adjective or another adverb, e.g. quickly.

ADVERBIAL [qd'vWbjql] (adj) **адвербиальный; свойственный наречию; имеющий характер наречия** Pertaining to adverbs or resembling them in some way.

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE придаточное обстоятельственное** A subordinate clause used as an adverbial modifier in a complex sentence.
- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CAUSE придаточное обстоятельственное причины** e.g. *As it was raining* I brought an umbrella.
- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONCESSION придаточное обстоятельственное уступки** e.g. *Although he hadn't eaten for days*, he looked strong and healthy. Alternative term: concessive clause
- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONDITION придаточное обстоятельственное условия** e.g. Give this message to John *if you see him.*
Alternative term: conditional clause.

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF MANNER AND COMPARISON придаточное обстоятельственное образа действия и сравнения** e.g. Do it the *way I suggest.* This road is less crowded *than the other one was*. Alternative term: comparative clause.

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF PLACE придаточное обстоятельственное места** e.g. We live now *where we've always lived.*

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF PURPOSE придаточное обстоятельственное цели** e.g. He left early *so that he should not miss the train.*

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF RESULT придаточное обстоятельственное следствия** e.g. I took no notice of him, *so (that) he flew into a rage.*

- **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME придаточное обстоятельственное времени** e.g. Buy your tickets *as soon as you can*. Alternative terms: time clause; temporal clause.

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER обстоятельство** A secondary member of the sentence which modifies a predicate-verb, a verbal in any of its function or a part of the sentence expressed by an adjective or adverb.

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF ATTENDANT/ATTENDING CIRCUMSTANCES обстоятельство сопутствующих явлений** e.g. She sat under a tree, the sun shining.

- **ADVERBIAL MIDIFIER OF CAUSE обстоятельство причины** e.g. She flushed *from being looked at.*

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF CONCESSION обстоятельство уступки** e.g. Even Marial laughed *in spite of herself.*

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF CONDITION обстоятельство условия** e.g. I shall ring you up *in case of necessity.*

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF DEGREE AND MEASURE обстоятельство степени и меры** e.g. They are *very* gloomy.

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF MANNER AND COMPARISON обстоятельство образа действия и сравнения** e.g. She stared at him *as if surprised.*

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF PLACE AND DIRECTION обстоятельство места и направления** e.g. He was born *in London*: John went *to the butcher's.*

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF PURPOSE обстоятельство цели** e.g. She strained her ears *to catch the words*.

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF RESULT обстоятельство следствия** e.g. He is too weak *to go there*.

- **ADVERBIAL MODIFIER OF TIME AND FREQUENCY** ['frJkwqnsi] **обстоятельство времени и частотности** e.g. She came *early today*; I *often* go there.

- **ADVERBIAL PHRASE обстоятельственное словосочетание** A phrase with a single adverb, e.g. Did you get *far*? , or with an adverb and one or more adjuncts, e.g. *How far* did you get?

ADVERBIAL [qd'vWbjql] (n) **обстоятельство** A name given by some grammarians to a structure which functions as an adverbial modifier, e.g. They drove *downhill to the college.*

ADVERSATIVE [qd'vWsqtiv] (adj) **противительный** Expressing opposition.
- **ADVERSATIVE CONJUNCTION противительный союз** e.g. but, yet, still, while (She likes opera, *while* I like ballet).

AFFIRMATIVE [q'fWmqtiv] (adj) **утвердительный** Asserting that a fact is so, answering 'Yes'.
- **AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCE утвердительное предложение** A sentence that is not negative. Cf.: I agree (affirmative); I do not agree (negative).

AGENT ['eiGqnt] **агенс, субъект действия** In a passive construction the expression that says who/what an action is done by, e.g. This picture is probably painted *by a pupil of Rubens.*

AGENTIVE [q'Gqntiv] (adj) **агентивный** Pertaining to the agent.

AGREEMENT [q'grJmqnt] (n) **согласование** A means of expressing subordination which consists in making the adjunct take a form similar to that of the head, e.g. *this* day; *these* days.
- **AGREEMENT RULE правило согласования** A rule governing the use of subject-predicate forms: a subject in the singular requires a singular predicate verb, e.g. He is working; *They are* working.
- **NOTIONAL AGREEMENT согласование по смыслу** Agreement of the verb with the idea of plural in the collective noun rather than the actual singular form of the noun, e.g. A family who *quarrel* among themselves.
- **AGREEMENT VIOLATION** [vaiq'leiSqn] **нарушение согласования** Use of forms that contradicts grammatical agreement of number and person, e.g. *Here's* your keys.

ALTERNATIVE [Ll'tWnqtiv] (adj) **альтернативный, обозначающий выбор** Offering choice between two or more things.
- **ALTERNATIVE QUESTION альтернативный вопрос** E.g. Are you coming or not?

ANALYTICAL [xnq'litikq] (adj) **аналитический** Expressing grammatical relations by separate items instead of by inflections.
- **ANALYTICAL FORM аналитическая форма** A form consisting of an auxiliary and a notional word, e.g. has been doing; more beautiful.

ANAPHORIC ["xnq'forik] (adj) **анафорический** Pointing back, referring to something previously mentioned, e.g. She gave me a book to read. The book is very interesting.
- **ANAPHORIC REPLACER анафорический заместитель** An item that replaces a previously mentioned construction. It is a personal and possessive pronoun, the prop-word 'one', e.g. These apples are not ripe. Give me some ripe *ones*.

ANIMATE ['xnimit] (adj) **одушевленный** Living.
- **ANIMATE NOUN одушевленное существительное** A noun denoting a living being, e.g. a girl, a goose.

ANTECEDENT ['xntl'sJdent] (n) **антецедент**; **определяемое слово** A word or a phrase referred back to by a subsequent item, e.g. I remember *the place* where we rested.

ANTICIPATORY [xnti'sJpeitqri] (adj) **антиципирующий, предвосхищающий** Pointing forward, referring to something to be mentioned.

- **ANTICIPATORY OBJECT вводящее, предваряющее дополнение** A preparatory (formal) object, introducing the real object, e.g. I thought it peculiar that she hadn't written.

- **ANTICIPATORY SUBJECT вводящее, предваряющее подлежащее** A preparatory (formal) subject, introducing the real (notional) subject, e.g. *It* is necessary to work hard; *There* are some people outside

APPOSITION ["xpq'ziSqn] (n) **приложение** A nominal element which gives another designation to what is expressed by the word it refers to, e.g. Herr Müller, *our new teacher*, is a German.
- **CLOSE APPOSITION необособленное приложение** An apposition which is not separated by a comma and stands in close connection with the word modified, e.g. *Doctor* Patrick; the town *of Daventry*.
- **DETACHED** [di'txCt] **APPOSITION обособленное приложение** An apposition which is not closely connected with the noun it modifies; it is separated by a comma and has a stress of its own, e.g. Mr.Hall, *an old friend of mine*. Alternative term: loose apposition.

APPOSITIVE [q'pOzitiv] (adj) **аппозитивный** Functioning as apposition.
- **APPOSITIVE CLAUSE придаточное аппозитивное** An attributive clause which discloses the meaning of the antecedent expressed by an abstract noun, e.g. The news *that he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.

APOSTROPHE [q'pOstrqfi] (n) **апостроф** A diacritic mark used in writing to indicate omission of a sound or part of a word, e.g. 'm, 'd; the genitive case: Mary's dress; the children's toys.

ARCHAIC [R'keiik] (adj) **архаический, устаревший** No longer in common use, e.g. thou, ye.

ARTICLE ['Rtikl] (n) **артикль** A noun determiner.

- **DEFINITE ARTICLE определенный артикль** : the.
- **INDEFINITE ARTICLE неопределенный артикль** : a(n)

ASPECT ['xspekt] (n) **вид** A grammatical category of the verb which shows the manner in which the action is experienced or regarded: as a fact or activity in progress.

- **COMMON ASPECT общий вид** E.g. She *cried* with pain when the dentist *pulled* the tooth out. Alternative term: non-continuous.
- **CONTINUOUS ASPECT продолженный вид** E.g. She *was crying* for joy.

ASPECTIVE FUNCTION OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE качественно-аспектуальная функция неопределенного артикля This function of the indefinite article is evident when the indefinite article determines an uncountable abstract noun modified by a descriptive attribute which brings out a special aspect of the notion expressed by the noun, e.g. *A* dull *anger* rose in his chest. Nouns denoting objects considered to be unique can also be determined by the indefinite article in its aspective function, e.g. He had never seen so red *a moon*.

ASYNDETIC ["xsin'detik] (adj) **бессоюзный** Used without a ➔ connector.

- **ASYNDETIC CONNECTION бессоюзная связь** A connection of sentence parts and clauses without a connector. Alternative term: asyndeton.

ASYNDETON [x'sinditqn] (n) **бессоюзие** A construction which omits the connectors, e.g. *Slowly, stealthily*, he crept towards his victim; *All I did* was in vain.

ATTRIBUTE ['xtrlbjut] (n) **атрибут, определение** A ➔ secondary sentence part qualifying the noun or its equivalent, e.g. a *green* shirt; the *city* council, the procedure *to be followed*.

- **DESCRIPTIVE ATTRIBUTE описательное определение** An attribute which describes the person or thing denoted by the noun and gives additional information, e.g. a *red* pencil; an *apple* tree.
- **LIMITING ATTRIBUTE ограничивающее определение** An attribute which narrows the class to which the object denoted by the noun belongs, e.g. a good place *to stay*; the substance *discovered almost by accident*.

- **POSTPOSITIVE ATTRIBUTE постпозитивное определение** An attribute which is placed after the noun it qualifies, e.g. a girl *resembling Joan.*

- **PREPOSITIVE** [pri'pOsitiv] **ATTRIBUTE препозитивное определение** An attribute which is placed before the noun it qualifies, e.g. an *only* child.

- **CIRCUMSTANTIAL** ["sWkqm'stxnSql] **ATTRIBUTE обстоятельственное определение** A variety of a → detached attribute which is very close in meaning to an adverbial modifier, e.g. Suddenly *touched* she came over to his chair and kissed his cheek.

- **COMPLEX ATTRIBUTE сложное определение** An attribute which is expressed by a verbal → construction, e.g. There is a danger *of a fire being started.*

ATTRIBUTIVE [q'tribjutiv] (adj) **атрибутивный** Pertaining to attributes.

- **ATTRIBUTIVE CLAUSE придаточное определительное** A subordinate clause functioning as attribute, e.g. He admires Mrs Brown, *which surprises me*.

AUXILIARY [Lg'ziljqri] (n) **вспомогательное слово** A word which helps to build analytical forms (degrees of comparison; future, continuous, perfect verb forms, etc), e.g. *More* valuable; *will* go; *was* done.

C

CARDINAL ['kRdinl] (n) → numeral

CASE (n) **падеж** A grammatical category of a → noun or → pronoun indicating its relationship to other words in the sentence.

- **COMMON CASE общий падеж** The uninflected form of the noun in opposition to the Genitive case, e.g. Mary, boy. Alternative term: Nominative case.

- **GENITIVE CASE родительный падеж** The case form of a noun with 's inflection, e.g. Mary's, boy's. Alternative term: Possessive case.

- **NOMINATIVE** ['nOminqtiv] **CASE именительный падеж** A case form indicating that the personal pronoun in question is functioning as the subject of the sentence, e.g. she; they.

- **OBJECTIVE** [qb'Gektiv] **CASE объектный падеж** The oblique form indicating that the personal pronoun in question is not used as the subject, e.g. her, them.

CATEGORY ['kxtigqri] (n) **категория** A class of grammatical items in which each member has a characteristic common to all the rest, e.g. number, case, tense, voice.

CAUSATIVE-CONSECUTIVE ['kLzetiv-kqn'sekjutiv] **CONJUNCTION** **причинно-следственный союз** A conjunction introducing a clause which expresses a reason, purpose or effect, e.g. because, so, therefore.

CENTRE OF COMMUNICATION центр коммуникации The part of the sentence providing 'new' information, which is the most important in the sentence.

CLASS NOUN = COUNTABLE NOUN A noun which may form a plural, e.g. chair, table.

CLASSIFYING FUNCTION OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE классифицирующая функция неопределенного артикля This function of the indefinite article is evident when the indefinite article used with a countable noun in the singular indicates that the object denoted by the noun is one of the class without defining its place in the class, e.g. a student, a window.

CLAUSE предложение, входящее в сложное предложение A syntactical unit containing a subject and a predicate, which makes part of a composite sentence.

- **COORDINATE** ['ko(V)'Ldnlt] **CLAUSE предложение, входящее в сложносочиненное предложение** A → clause in a → compound sentence, e.g. *He tried hard*, but *he failed.*

- **MAIN CLAUSE главное предложение** A clause which has full meaning when standing alone and which is not dependent on any other clause, e.g. *You can do it* if you try. Alternative term: principal clause.

- **SUBORDINATE** [sq'bLdinlt] **CLAUSE придаточное предложение** A clause which is dependent on another clause for its full meaning; a constituent of the main clause, e.g. You can do it *if you try*.

COGNATE ['kOgneit] (adj) **родственный** Having the same source or origin.

COGNATE ['kOgneit] (n) **родственное слово** A word that is → cognate with another, e.g. English "mother", German "Mutter", Latin "mater".

- **COGNATE OBJECT родственное дополнение** The → object which is etymologically or semantically related to the verb by which it is governed, e.g. They lived a happy *life*: He runs *a race*.

COMBINABILITY [kqm"blnq'bllltl] (n) **сочетаемость** The ability of   a word to co-occur with words of different classes.

COMPARATIVE → DEGREE OF COMPARISON → COMPARATIVE DEGREE

- **DOUBLE COMPARATIVE двойное сравнение** The formation of the comparative using two markers is one form, e.g. the *Lesser* Bear.

- **COMPARISON** (n) **сравнение** A grammatical category reflecting various qualitative and quantitative degrees of properties.

- **COMPLEMENT** ['kOmplimqnt] (n) **предикативный член** A constituent that is necessary to complete a grammatical construction, usually that part of a verb phrase which is required to make it complete, e.g. The food tasted *good*.

- **OBJECT(IVE) COMPLEMENT объектно-предикативный член** A noun or its equivalent required to complete the meaning of a transitive verb; it re-identifies the direct object of the verb and makes part of a ⇀ complex object, e.g. They made him *chairman*.

- **SUBJECT(IVE) COMPLEMENT субъектно-предикативный член** A noun or its equivalent that completes the meaning of a link verb or a transitive verb in the passive and at the same time refers to the subject making a ⇀ complex subject with it, e.g. The house appeared *deserted*: He was appointed *an associate justice*.

COMPLETE SENTENCE полное предложение A simple or a complex sentence without any part felt as missing.

COMPLEX ⇀ CONSTRUCTION ⇀ PREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION

COMPLEX ADVERBIAL MODIFIER сложное обстоятельство An adverbial modifier expressed by a ⇀ predicative construction, e.g. All that was *after Nick's leaving the place*.

COMPLEX ATTRIBUTE сложное определение An attribute expressed by a ⇀ predicative construction, e.g. There's little sense *in your staying here now*.

COMPLEX OBJECT сложное дополнение An ⇀ object expressed by a predicative construction, e.g. I'm surprised *at John making that mistake*.

COMPLEX PREDICATIVE сложный предикатив A ⇀ predicative expressed by a ⇀ predicative construction, e.g. It's all *their doing*.

COMPLEX SUBJECT сложное подлежащее A ⇀ subject expressed by a predicative construction, e.g. *Their being bothered* amused him.

COMPOSITE SENTENCE сложное предложение A sentence with coordinate and/or subordinate clauses.

COMPOUND ['kOmpaund] (adj) **сложный** Made up of two or more parts.

- **COMPOUND NOUN сложное существительное** A noun which is made up of two or more stems, e.g. Bluebeard, machine-gun.

- **COMPOUND PREDICATE составное сказуемое** A → predicate consisting of a finite verb and other elements, e.g. can do; began to speak; is right.

- **COMPOUND SENTENCE сложносочиненное предложение** A sentence which is made up of at least two independent clauses connected by → coordinating conjunctions or asyndetically, e.g. Harry was at the party, and Fred was also there.

CONCORD → **AGREEMENT**

CONCRETE ['kOnkrJt] NOUN конкретное существительное A → noun referring to a material object, e.g. table, animal. It may take any determiner and usually forms a plural.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSE → **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONDITION**

CONDITIONAL MOOD условное наклонение An → analytical form of the → subjunctive mood expressed by "should/would" + infinitive of the main verb which implies a condition or hypothesis, e.g. If I could I *should go* there; He *would have done* it for nothing.

CONJOINT [kOn'GOInt] (adj) присоединенный United, associated.

- **CONJOINT FORM присоединенная форма** A form of the possessive pronoun which precedes the noun it modifies, e.g. your, my.

CONJUNCTION [kOn'GANkSqn] (n) союз A → form word used to link together sentence parts or clauses. Alternative terms: connector, connective.

- **COORDINATING [kOu'LdineitiN] CONJUNCTION сочинительный союз** A conjunction which links together items of equal rank without syntactic or semantic implications, e.g. and, but, or, nor, for, etc, which in turn may be classified into → copulative, e.g. and, nor, not only ... but; → adversative, e.g. but, still, yet; → disjunctive, e.g. or, either ... or; → causative-consecutive, e.g. for, hence, so. Alternative term: coordinator.

- **CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTION** → **CORRELATIVE**

- **SUBORDINATING [sq'bLdineitiN] CONJUNCTION подчинительный союз** A conjunction which indicates subordination of the clause introduced, e.g. *Unless* you put on your overcoat, you'll catch a cold. Sometimes it introduces a phrase, e.g. He looked at me kindly *if* somewhat sceptically. Alternative term: subordinator.

- **CONJUNCTIVE [kqn'GANktive] (adj) союзный** Referring to the →connectors.

- **CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB союзное наречие** An adverb which connects clauses, e.g. why, how.

- **CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN союзное местоимение** A pronoun which connects clauses, e.g. which, what.

- **CONJUNCTIVE WORD союзное слово** A conjunctive adverb/ pronoun.

CONNECTOR [kq'nqktq] = **CONJUNCTION**

CONSTITUENT [kqn'stitjuqnt] (n) **конституент, составная часть** A language element which is a component part of a larger unit.

CONTACT ['kOntxkt] **CLAUSE контактное придаточное** An attributive clause joined → asyndetically to the main clause, e.g. I devoured the books *they lent me.*

CONTEXT ['kOntekst] (n) **контекст** The language units preceding and following a particular linguistic item in an utterance or text. Alternative term: environment.

CONSTRUCTION (n) **конструкция** The process or result of a grouping of words within a sentence.

- **PREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION предикативная конструкция** A construction based on → secondary predication, e.g. a complex subject, a complex object, etc. Alternative terms: a verbal construction, a complex with a verbal.

CONTINUOUS [kqn'tinjuqs] (n) **продолженный вид** An → analytical aspect form of the verb expressed by 'be' + participle I of the main verb, which indicates temporariness, i.e. limited duration of the action, e.g. is writing.

CONTRACTION [kqn'trxkSqn] (n) **стяжение** The process or result of a merging of an → abbreviated form with the preceding word, e.g. I'm; who'll; can't.

CO-OCCUR ['kOuq'kW] (v) **допускать совместную встречаемость** To be used together.

COORDINATE CLAUSE → **CLAUSE**

COORDINATING CONJUNCTION → **CONJUNCTION**

COORDINATION [kOu"Ldi'neiSqn] (n) **СОЧИНЕНИЕ (**1) A syntactic relation between units which are equal in rank, i.e. not dependent on one another; (2) The linking of → homogeneous sentence parts and → coordinate clauses. Coordination is expressed by → coordinating conjunctions or → asyndetically, e.g. My closest friends are *Fred and his wife; Honest, clever* students always succeed.

COORDINATOR → **COORDINATING CONJUNCTION**

COPULATIVE ['kOpjulqtiv] (adj) **СОЕДИНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ** Serving to connect.

- **COPULATIVE CONJUNCTION** **соединительный союз** A coordinating conjunction denoting addition, i.e. one fact is added to another, e.g. and, nor, neither ... nor, as well as, both ... and, not only ... but also.

CORRELATIVE [kq'rqlqtiv] (n) **коррелирующий, соотносительный союз** A conjunction consisting of a pair of words such as 'either ... or', 'hardly ... when', etc connecting words or clauses, e.g. He was *both* shocked *and* entertained.

COUNT(ABLE) NOUN → **NOUN**

D

DECLARATIVE SENTENCE → **SENTENCE**

DEFECTIVE VERB недостаточный глагол A verb which does not possess all the forms typical of its class, e.g. the verbs 'must' and 'ought' have no past tense forms.

DEFINING [di'fainiN] **CLAUSE идентифицирующее** придаточное → **RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE**

DEGREE OF COMPARISON степень сравнения A grammatical form of → comparison.

- **POSITIVE** ['pOzqtiv] **DEGREE положительная степень** The statement of a quality or quantity but implying no comparison; the →basic form of the adjective or adverb as listed in a dictionary, e.g. sad, glad.

- **COMPARATIVE** [kqm'pxrqtiv] **DEGREE сравнительная степень** A form expressing a higher degree of a particular quality or quantity in relation to a reference point, e.g. a hotter day than yesterday.

- **SUPERLATIVE** [sju'pWlqtiv] **DEGREE превосходная степень** A form expressing the highest degree of a quality or quantity, e.g. (the) quickest, (the) most numerous.

DEGREE WORD слово, выражающее степень A word which modifies the meaning of a particular word in the sentence, e.g. I'm *very* hungry; I agree with you *absolutely*.

DEMONSTRATIVE [di'mOnstrqtiv] (n) **указательное местоимение** A word used to point out or indicate persons or things specifically, e.g. this (these), that (those), same, such.

DEPENDENT APPENDIX [q'pendiks] **аппендикс** A verbless clause consisting of (1) the conjunction 'than' and a noun phrase following the comparative of an adjective or adverb, e.g. She is better *than you*: (2) the conjunction 'as' and an adjective, noun, pronoun or adverb following the adverb 'as', e.g. Will he be as good *as his word*?

DEPENDENT CLAUSE → **SUBORDINATE CLAUSE**

DERIVED [di'raivd] **SENTENCE производное предложение** A result of transformation, e.g. They gave Jackson a package → They gave a package to Jackson. Alternative term: a transform.

DESCRIPTIVE ATTRIBUTE → **ATTRIBUTE**

DETACHED [di'txCt] **SENTENCE PART обособленный член предложения** An → adjunct characterized by some degree of independence from its → head word, e.g. *Carefully*, he signed his name.

DEFINITE ARTICLE → **ARTICLE**

DETERMINER [di'tWminq] (n) **детерминатив, определитель** A word that determines or limits a noun in various ways, e.g. by making it definite (*the* boy), indefinite (*a* boy) or by indicating quantity (*much* food). Determiners comprise → articles, the → demonstratives 'this' and 'that', → possessive pronouns in the → conjoint form and the indefinite pronouns 'some, any, no, each, either, neither, much'

DIRECT OBJECT прямое дополнение An → object without a preposition denoting the person or thing which suffers the action of the verb in the sentence, e.g. She is washing *the dishes* now.

DIRECT SPEECH прямая речь A quotation of actual speech as opposed to → indirect speech.

DISJUNCTIVE [dis'jANktiv] (adj) **разделительный** Implying a contrast or disassociation.

- **DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTION разделительный союз** A → coordinating conjunction offering some choice between one statement and another, e.g. or, either ... or.

DISYLLABIC ['disi'lxbik] (n) **двусложное слово** A word consisting of two syllables, e.g. polite, common.

DOUBLE COMPARATIVE → COMPARATIVE

DOUBLE PREDICATE двойное сказуемое A crossing of a verbal and nominal predicate, e.g. The moon *rose red* = The moon *rose*. The moon *was red*.

DOUBLET ['dAbllt] **дублет** A pair of items in a language which are similar in origin, form and meaning, e.g. older - elder; farther - further.

DRAMATIC PRESENT историческое настоящее время (1) The use of the present tense forms of verbs in stage directions; (2) The use of the present tense forms of verbs to narrate events which occurred in the past, often to give a sense of immediacy or urgency. Alternative term: historic(al) present.

ELATIVE [I'leitiv] (n) **элатив** The use of the adverb 'most' before an adjective to convey a very high degree of quality without implying comparison with any particular object, e.g. He was a most capable doctor.

ELLIPSIS [I'lipsis] (n) **эллипсис** The process or result of omitting some part of a word or sentence.

ELLIPTICAL [I'liptikql] (adj) **эллиптический** Referring to → ellipsis. Alternative term: incomplete.

EMPHASIS ['emfqsis] (n) **эмфаза, выделение** Laying special stress on a word to indicate that it has special importance in a sentence.

EMPHASIZE ['emfqsaiz] (v) **выделять** To lay → emphasis on.

ENCLOSURE [In'klouZq] (n) **замыкание** A way of connection consisting in framing up subordinate elements, e.g. *our* new *acquaintance*.

ENDING → **INFLECTION**

EXCLAMATION [eksklq'meiSqn] (n) **восклицание** A sentence conveying intensity of emotion, e.g. Good heavens!

EXCLAMATORY [eks'klxmqtqri] (adj) **восклицательный** Containing an exclamation.

EXISTENTIAL ["egzis'tenSql] **SENTENCE экзистенциальное, бытийное предложение** A sentence which expresses or denies the existence of something, e.g. There is (no) chair in this room.

EXPLICIT [iks'plisit] (adj) **эксплицитный, явно выраженный** Outspoken, e.g. In 'If it were not for you we should not have finished in time' the condition is explicit. Cf. → implicit.

F

FACTIVE NOUN → **NOUN**

FACTUAL MEANING значение, основанное на фактах A meaning based on fact.

FEMININE ['femlnln] (adj) **женский (род)** Having the → gender proper to women's names.

FINITE ['fainait] **FORM личная форма** A form which can be used as predicate, e.g. Yesterday he *went* fishing.

FINITE ['fainait]**CLAUSE придаточное с личной формой глагола**   A clause containing a → finite verb.

FIXED WORD ORDER → **W0RD ORDER**

'FOR' CONSTRUCTION конструкция с предлогом for A predicative → construction introduced by the preposition 'for', e.g. It's time *for us to go*.

FORM (n) **форма** The shape or appearance of a linguistic unit.

FORM WORD служебное слово A word which does not carry a full lexical meaning, but rather a grammatical or functional significance. Alternative terms: function word, structural word.

FUNCTION (n) **функция** The role played by an element within a sentence and its structural relationship to other elements.

- **STRUCTURAL FUNCTION служебная функция** The function of a → structural word.

FUNCTION WORD → **F0RM WORD**
FUTURE TENSE → **TENSE**

G

GENDER ['Gendq] (n) **род** A grammatical → category reflecting the classification of objects roughly corresponding to the two sexes & sexlessness (→ masculine, → feminine & → neuter). Gender in English applies strictly only to certain pronouns, e.g. It affects the form of the 3rd person singular of the personal pronouns.

GENERIC [Gi'nerik] **FUNCTION OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE родовая (обобщающая) функция определенного артикля** The function of the definite article enabling the noun to denote a whole range of members of   a given class, e.g. *The* whale is a mammal not a fish.

GENITIVE → **CASE** → **GENITIVE CASE**

- **ABSOLUTE GENITIVE независимый родительный** The Genitive used without its head noun, e.g. *The butcher's* is next. Alternative term: independent **genitive.**

- **GROUP GENITIVE групповой родительный** The use of the 's inflection with a phrase, e.g. Lucy and Dick's aunt.

- **LOCATIVE** ['lOkqtiv] **GENITIVE локатив, местный родительный**
A Genitive case form indicating the location at which an action takes place, e.g. at *the dentist's.*

- **OBJECTIVE** [qb'Gektiv] **GENITIVE родительный объекта** The Genitive case form transformationally related to the object of the sentence, e.g. the murderer's arrest.

- **PARTITIVE** ['pRtitiv] **GENITIVE партитив, количественный родительный** The use of the Genitive case in the meaning 'one of many', e.g. a friend of my brother's.

- **SUBJECTIVE** [sqb'Gektiv] **GENITIVE родительный деятеля** The Genitive case form transformationally related to the subject of the sentence, e.g. Ann's sorrow.

GERUND → NON-FINITE

GERUNDIAL CONSTRUCTION → CONSTRUCTION → PREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION

GOVERN (v) **управлять** To determine the morphological form of a word, e.g. a preposition can govern the Objective case form of a personal pronoun – 'to her'.

GOVERNMENT (n) **управление** The determination of the morphological form of one word by another word.

GRAMMAR (n) **грамматика** In its widest sense, the term 'grammar' refers to generalized statements of the regularities and irregularities in language.

GRAMMATICAL MEANING грамматическое значение The meaning which indicates the formal relationship between words in a sentence or phrase.

H

HALF-GERUND (n) **полугерундий** An '-ing' form preceded by a personal noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case which is intermediate between participle I and the gerund, e.g. I rely on *Jack (him) doing* it on time. Alternative term: merged participle.

HEAD (n) **ведущий компонент** A word which is syntactically dominant in a group and could have the same syntactic function as the whole group if it stood alone, e.g. incredibly *beautiful.*

HISTORIC(AL) PRESENT → DRAMATIC PRESENT (2)

HOMOGENEOUS ["hOmq'GJnjqs] (adj) **однородный** Of the same structural type.

HOMONYM ['hOmqnlm] (n) **омоним** One of two or more words which are identical in sound, but different in meaning, e.g. 'rest' = remainder, 'rest' = to relax.

I

IMPERATIVE [lm'perqtiv] (n) **императив, повелительное наклонение** A → mood form of the verb expressing a command, e.g. *Stand* up!

IMPERSONAL (adj) **безличный** With no reference to a particular subject, e.g. It is freezing.

IMPLICIT [lm'plisit] (adj) **имплицитный, подразумеваемый** Implied though not expressed formally, e.g. in 'I would go there' the condition is implicit.

INANIMATE [ln'xnlmqt] **NOUN неодушевленное существительное**   A noun denoting a lifeless object, e.g. room, idea.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE → **ARTICLE**

INDEFINITE PERSONAL SUBJECT → **SUBJECT**

INDEFINITE PRONOUN неопределенное местоимение A pronoun which does not refer to a definite person or thing, e.g. anybody, everything.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENT независимый элемент предложения A word or phrase, usually an → interjection or → exclamation, which has no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence in which it functions, e.g. *Well*, what about it?

INDICATIVE [ln'dikqtiv] (n) **индикатив, изъявительное наклонение** A → mood form of the verb stating a fact, e.g. He *reads* much.

INDIRECT SPEECH косвенная речь The paraphrasing of an utterance without quoting verbatim the actual words used by the original speaker. Alternative term: reported speech.

INFINITIVE (n) **инфинитив** A form of the verb which is not limited by → -person, → number or → tense; the form usually listed in dictionaries, e.g. *To see* is *to believe.*

- **BARE INFINITIVE инфинитив без частицы** An infinitive standing alone, without the particle 'to'.

- **INDEFINITE INFINITIVE неопределенная форма инфинитива** A non-perfect, non-continuous, non-passive infinitive, e.g. to write.

- **SPLIT INFINITIVE расщепленный инфинитив** A construction in which an → adverbial or other → adjunct is embedded between the two parts of an infinitive, e.g. She was told *to* regularly *attend* classes.

- **'TO'-INFINITIVE инфинитив с частицей to**, e.g. to think.

INFLECTION (n) **флексия, окончание** An affix added to the root of a word to determine and limit its grammatical significance, e.g. the plural morpheme 's' (hats), tense morphemes: look - looked. Alternative term: ending.

'ING' FORM инговая форма A name given by some grammarians to the gerund and participle I.

INSTRUMENTAL [Instru'mentl] (n) **творительный падеж** A case form in some inflected languages denoting the agent or the origin of an action.

INTENSIFIER (n) **усилитель** An ⟶ adverbial of degree which intensifies the meaning of a word, e.g. *extremely* lucky.

INTERJECTION [Intq'ZekSn] (n) **междометие** An indeclinable word which has no syntactic relationship with other forms, and which is used in an exclamation to express emotion, e.g. Ugh!; Bother!

INTERROGATIVE ["Intq'rOgativ] **SENTENCE вопросительное предложение** A sentence type which is one way of expressing a question, e.g. Are you going?

INTRANSITIVE [In'trxnsitiv] **VERB непереходный глагол** A verb which makes complete sense on its own without an ⟶ object, e.g. Time *elapsed*.

INTRODUCTORY = ANTICIPATORY

INVERSION ⟶ **WORD ORDER**

IRREGULAR VERB неправильный глагол A verb which exhibits certain forms which do not coincide with a particular paradigm considered as the norm for that type, e.g. sing - sang - sung.

IRREGULAR PLURAL нестандартная форма множественного числа A plural form which does not conform to the majority of nouns forming the plural by adding '-s' e.g. men, oxen, phenomena.

ITEM (n) **единица** A linguistic form which can be isolated and quoted as part of a list.

L

LINK (n) **глагол-связка** A verb such as 'be, seem, become, look', etc which relates the ⟶ subject to the predicative, e.g. He is a teacher; It got worse and worse. Alternative term: copula, link(ing) verb.

M

MARKER (n) **знак, показатель** A special feature of a linguistic unit which indicates its class and function, e.g. the -s marker may indicate plurality.

MASCULINE ['mxskjulin] (adj) **мужской (род)** Of the ⟶ gender to which names of males normally belong, e.g. his.

MEMBER OF THE SENTENCE = PART OF THE SENTENCE

MIXED (adj) **смешанный** Having characteristics of more than one type.

MODAL ['moudl] (adj) **модальный** Expressing a speaker's attitude to what he is saying.

- **MODAL VERB модальный глагол** A semi-notional verb used to express → modality such as optative, obligative, etc. e.g. can, dare, may.

- **MODAL WORD модальное слово** An → independent element used to express → modality, often homonymous with a '-ly' adverb, e.g. practically, certainly, maybe.

MODALITY [mou'dxliti] (n) **модальность** The way in which a speaker can express his attitude towards a situation in interpersonal communication, usually realised by modal verbs and modal words.

MODIFIER ['modifaiq] (n) **модификатор, определение** An → adjunct which limits or qualifies a → head word, e.g. the *four tall* boys; to cry *bitterly*.

MODIFY ['mOdifai] (v) **модифицировать, определять** To be used as   a → modifier.

MONOSYLLABIC (n) **односложное слово** A word of one syllable, e.g. hot.

MOOD (n) **наклонение** A grammatical category of the verb which expresses a speaker's attitude to what he is saying. The → indicative, → imperative and → subjunctive moods are distinguished.

MORPHEME ['mLfJm] (n) **морфема** A minimum distinctive unit of grammar, e.g. in 'cats' 'cat' is a → root morpheme and 's' represents a → plural morpheme.

MORPHOLOGY [mL'fOlqGi] (n) **морфология** A branch of grammar concerned with the study and analysis of the structure, forms and classes of words.

MULTIPLE CLAUSE STRUCTURE многоступенчатая сложноподчиненная структура A → complex sentence with → consecutive subordination, e.g. We cancelled our plans to go out, because it looked as though it might snow.

MULTITUDE ['mAltitjHd] **NOUN существительное множественности** A subclass of → collective nouns denoting a great number of people or animals gathered together, e.g. people, cattle.

MUTATED [mjH'teitid] **PLURAL умляутированная форма множественного числа** A plural formed by vowel change, e.g. men, geese.

N

NEUTER ['njHtq] (adj) **средний (род)** Neither → masculine nor → feminine, e.g. it.

NOMINAL ['nOminql] (adj) Of a noun or nouns.

NOMINATIVE ['nOminqtiv] (n) **именительный** A case form usually indicating that the noun in question is functioning as the subject of a sentence. It is usually considered the first case and is the form which appears in dictionaries.

NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE = ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION

NOMINATIVE WITH THE INFINITIVE → **CONSTRUCTION** → **FREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION**

NOMINATIVE WITH THE PARTICIPLE → **CONSTRUCTION** → **PREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION**

NON-ANAPHORIC (adj) **неанафорический** Having no reference back to an → antecedent.

NON-COUNT → **NOUN** → **UNCOUNT(ABLE) NOUN**

NON-DEFINING = NON-RESTRICTIVE

NON-FINITE VERB FORM неличная форма глагола A form of the verb which is not limited by → person, → number or primary → tense, e.g. → participle, → gerund, → infinitive. Alternative term: verbal.

NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE неограничительное придаточное An attributive clause which gives additional information about some element in the sentence but which is not essential to the general meaning of the sentence, e.g. Mr Smth. *who used to be my teacher*, is coming tomorrow. Non-restrictive clauses are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by means of commas.

NOTIONAL WORD знаменательное слово A word which has a full lexical meaning of its own, e.g. nouns, verbs, as opposed to a → form word.

NOUN (n) **существительное** A part of speech denoting or naming a person, thing or concept, e.g. man; door; fact.

- **ABSTRACT NOUN абстрактное, отвлеченное существительное** A noun referring to a non-material concept, e.g. happiness, as opposed to a → concrete noun.

- **COLLECTIVE NOUN собирательное существительное** A noun which refers to a group of persons, things or ideas, e.g. family, crockery, tidings.

- **COMMON NOUN имя нарицательное** A noun designating a general class of objects or objects rather than an individual or personal name, e.g. chair, idea, as opposed to a → proper noun.

- **CONCRETE ['kLNkrJt] NOUN конкретное существительное** A noun referring to a material object, e.g. table, animal.

- **COUNT(ABLE) NOUN исчисляемое существительное** A noun that can be used both in the singular and plural, e.g. book, remark.

- **FACTIVE NOUN фактивное существительное** An abstract noun capable of functioning as ➙ antecedent of an ➙ appositive attributive clause, e.g. idea, reply, fact.

- **PROPER NOUN имя собственное** The name of an individual person, place or object, e.g. Mary, London, as opposed to a ➙ common noun.

NUMERAL (n) **числительное** A word denoting a number or quantity.

- **CARDINAL NUMERAL количественное числительное** A numeral answering the question 'How many?', e.g. one, hundred. Alternative term: number.

- **ORDINAL NUMERAL порядковое числительное** A numeral indicating the order in a sequence, e.g. first, fifty second.

O

OBJECT (n) **дополнение** Any ➙complement excluding the one functioning as a ➙ predicative, e.g. I'll do *it for you*.

- **DIRECT OBJECT ➙ DIRECT**

- **INDIRECT OBJECT косвенное дополнение** An object denoting the person or thing for whom or on whose behalf an action is carried out, e.g. He gave me the book.

OBJECTIVE [qb'Gektiv] CASE объектный падеж An oblique case form of personal and some other classes of pronouns, e.g. me, whom, as opposed to the ➙ Nominative case, e.g. I, who.

OBJECTIVE INFINITIVAL CONSTRUCTION объектная инфинитивная конструкция A ➙ complex object whose second component is expressed by an ➙ infinitive, e.g. I saw *him cross* the street. Alternative term: Accusative with an infinitive.

OBJECTIVE PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTION объектная причастная конструкция A ➙ complex object whose second component is expressed by a ➙ participle, e.g. I saw *him crossing* the street. Alternative term: Accusative with a participle.

OBJECTIVE PREDICATIVE ➙ COMPLEMENT ➙ OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

OBJECTIVE VERB объектный глагол A verb which requires one or two objects, e.g. I *know* her well; It *depends* on you.

ONE-MEMBER SENTENCE односоставное предложение A sentence comprising one member which is neither the subject nor the predicate, e.g. Silence. Then a knock.

- **ONE-MEMBER INFINITIVE SENTENCE односоставное инфинитивное предложение** A one-member sentence whose main part is expressed by an → infinitive or infinitive phrase, e.g. To have his friendship, his admiration, but not at that price.

P

PARENTHESIS [pq'renTisis] (n) (**pl PARENTHESES** [pq'renTisJz]) **парентеза, вводный член** A word, phrase or clause inserted into a sentence modifying a particular part of the sentence without adding to or changing its basic structure, e.g. *Fortunately*, he was out.

PARENTHETICAL ["pxrqn'Tetikql] (adj) **вводный** Functioning as a → parenthesis.

PART OF SPEECH часть речи A lexico-grammatical word class (the noun, the verb, etc).

PART OF THE SENTENCE член предложения A constituent of a sentence, e.g. a → subject, a → predicate, a → complement, etc.

PARTICIPIAL ["pRti'sipjql] (adj) **причастный** Referring to a → participle.

PARTICIPLE ['pRtsipl] (n) **причастие** A → non-finite form of the verb which has certain characteristics of a verb and adjective (participle I, participle II).

PARTICLE (n) **частица** An invariable part of speech used for specification and emphasis, e.g. even, too.

PASSIVE → VOICE

PATTERN (n) **модель** A systematic arrangement of elements according to the regularities found in the language.

PERFECT (n) **перфект** A → secondary tense form of the verb expressed by the auxiliary 'have' + participle II of the main verb denoting an action prior of the moment of speaking or to the time of another action, e.g. has written, had tried.

PERSON (n) **лицо** A grammatical category relating interlocutors one to another (the 1st person denotes the speaker, the 2nd person the listener, the 3rd person people or things other than the speaker or listener).

PERSONAL PRONOUN личное местоимение A → pronoun referring to one of the categories of → person such as 'I, he, she, they' etc as well as their inflected forms 'me, him, her, them', etc.

PHRASAL VERB фразовый глагол A verb forming a combination with a → postposition, e.g. get up, catch on.

PHRASE (n) **словосочетание** A grammatical unit consisting of one or more words which is higher in rank than word and of lower rank than clause, e.g. very well, a good book, him cross.

PLURAL (n) **множественное число** Number, referring to more than one.

POLYSYLLABIC ['pOlisi'lxbik] (n) **многосложное слово** A word consisting of more than one syllable, e.g. popular.

POSSESSIVE → **CASE** → **GENITIVE CASE**

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN притяжательное местоимение A pronoun indicating possession. There are two forms of possessive pronouns: → conjoint, e.g. my, your, and → absolute, e.g. mine, yours.

POSITIVE DEGREE → **DEGREE OF COMPARISON**

POSTDETERMINER (n) **постдетерминатив** A word which can occur between the article and the noun it modifies, e.g. the *first* man.

POSTPONEMENT (n) [pOust'pounmqnt] **оттяжка** A device consisting in removing an element from its normal position, and placing it towards or at the end of the sentence, e.g. It is a pity *to make a fool of oneself.*

POSTPOSITION (n) **постпозитив** A functional component of a → phrasal verb which is mainly a place adverb, e.g. get *up*, find *out*.

PREDETERMINER ['prJdi'tWminq] (n) **предетерминатив** A word or group of words which can occur in front of an article or other → determiner in   a noun phrase, e.g. all the men.

PREDICATE ['predikit] (n) **сказуемое** A verb or verb phrase, with or without a complement, functioning as one of the two fundamental constituents of a sentence, (e.g. The black cat *caught* the mouse), the other being the subject.

- **SIMPLE VERBAL PREDICATE простое глагольное сказуемое** A predicate expressed by a finite form of verbs, group-verbs included. It denotes an action, e.g. He *smiled*; She *took no notice* of it.

- **COMPOUND NOMINAL PREDICATE составное именное сказуемое** A predicate consisting of a → link and a → predicative which denotes the state or quality of the person or thing expressed by the subject, e.g. He is *lucky*; The silence *grew long*.

- **COMPOUND VERBAL ASPECT(IVE) PREDICATE составное глагольное аспектное сказуемое** A predicate consisting of a → finite form of verbs of starting, stopping and continuing and a → non-finite form (an infinitive or gerund, rarely a participle) of the main verb, e.g. It *started to rain.* He *went on eating.*

- **COMPOUND VERBAL MODAL PREDICATE составное глагольное модальное сказуемое** A predicate consisting of a modal verb or its equivalent and an infinitive of the main verb, e.g. You *must* do it; Who *is to do* the job?

PREDICATION (n) **предикативность** The relationship between the →subject and the → predicate.

PREDICATIVE [pri'dikqtiv] (n) **предикатив** A nominal part of a compound nominal predicate expressed by a noun, adjective or other nominal part of speech, e.g. He is *a student*; You seem *tired.*

PREDICATIVE CLAUSE придаточное предикативное A clause functioning as predicative, e.g. That's *what I want*.

PREDICATIVE CONSTRUCTION → CONSTRUCTION

PREFIX ['prJfiks] (n) **приставка** An → affix which is added to the front of a → root or astern, e.g. unlikely.

PREPOSITION ["prepq'ziSqn] (n) **предлог** A → form word used together with a noun phrase to show the relationship between that phrase and other words in the sentence, e.g. She went *with* me.

PREPOSITIONAL (adj) **предложный** Of, like or containing a preposition.

PRESENT TENSE → TENSE

PRIMARY PREDICATION первичная предикация The relationship between the → subject and → predicate when the latter is expressed by a →finite verb form.

PRINCIPAL PART главный член The → subject and the → predicate.

PRIMARY TENSES = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textbf{PAST} \\ \textbf{PRESENT} \\ \textbf{FUTURE} \end{array} \right\}$ **INDEFINITE**

PRONOUN ['prOunaun] (n) **местоимение** A part of speech denoting substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances, etc. not by naming or describing them but by indicating them. Pronouns can be → substitutes (e.g. it, each), → determiners (e.g. this, that), → predeterminers (e.g. all, such), postdeterminers (e.g. many, several).

PROPER NAME → NOUN → PROPER NOUN

PROP-WORD (n) **слово-субститут** A word such as a → pronoun which serves to replace another word for the purpose of back → reference, e.g. I don't want *this*, have you got another *one*?

PROXIMITY [prq'ksimiti] **RULE правило соседства** The adjustment of the verb form functioning as the predicate to the noun or pronoun which closely precedes it, instead of the head word of the phrase acting as the subject, e.g. No one except his own supporters agree with him.

Q

QUALITATIVE ['kwOlitqtiv] (adj) **качественный** Of, or pertaining to quality.

QUANTIFIER ['kwOntifaiq] (n) **количественный показатель** A word or expression used in noun phrases to show the amount, e.g. *many* trees, *a lot of* time.

QUANTITATIVE ['kwOntltqtiv] (adj) **количественный** Of, or pertaining to quantity.

QUESTION = INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

- **DISJUNCTIVE QUESTION разделительный вопрос** A question containing an interrogative formula appended to the part built after the pattern of a → declarative sentence, e.g. It is right, isn't it? Alternative term: tag question.

- **GENERAL QUESTION общий вопрос** A question requiring the answer 'Yes' or 'No', e.g. Do you like music?

- **SPECIAL QUESTION специальный вопрос** A question opening with an interrogative word, e.g. Who lives in this house? Alternative term: WH-question.

RECIPROCAL [ri'siprqkql] **PRONOUN взаимное местоимение** A pronoun expressing mutual relationship, e.g. each other.

REFERENCE (n) **референция, соотнесение** The relationship between a → referent (e.g. a concrete entity or an abstract concept) and the symbol which is used to identify it.

- **NON-UNIQUE REFERENCE неединичная референция** Reference which is not confined to a single object.

REFERENT ['rqfqrqnt] (n) **референт** The physical entity or abstract concept to which we give a name by a verbal or written symbol.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUN возвратное местоимение A pronoun which refers back to the subject, e.g. myself; themselves.

RELATIVE ['relqtiv] **CLAUSE придаточное относительное**   A subordinate clause introduced by a ➝ relative pronoun or adverb, e.g. This is the place *where he was born.*

RELATIVE PRONOUN относительное местоимение A pronoun such as 'who, whom, whose, which, that' which refers back to a previous word in the sentence, e.g. 'that' in 'The house that Jack built' refers to 'the house'.

RELATIVE TENSES ➝ **PERFECT** ➝ **SECONDARY TENSES**

REPLACER (n) **ЗАМЕСТИТЕЛЬ** A ➝ substitute which replaces a noun or a whole noun phrase, e.g. ➝ personal pronouns, ➝ reflexive pronouns, ➝ indefinite pronouns is '-body, -thing, -one', etc.

REPORTED CLAUSE придаточное дополнительное в косвенной речи An object clause used in ➝ reported speech which is a periphrasis of the ➝ utterance made in ➝ direct speech, e.g. He said he *would come.*

REPORTED SPEECH ➝ **INDIRECT SPEECH**

REPORTING VERB глагол, вводящий косвенную речь A verb which introduces ➝ reported speech, e.g. He *said* he would come.

REPRESENTER (n) **репрезентант** A ➝ substitute which stands for the noun phrase it itself introduces, e.g. This car is old but *that* (car) is new.

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSE ограничительное придаточное An attributive clause which specifies an ➝ antecedent, e.g. The boy who was *sitting by the window* caught a cold. Alternative term: defining/identifying clause.

ROOT (n) **корень** A ➝ morpheme within a word which carries the main lexical Information.

S

SECONDARY PART второстепенный член The ➝ object, ➝ adverbial modifier, ➝ attribute.

SECONDARY PREDICATE вторичное сказуемое The predicate of a secondary predicative construction, e.g. I saw him *cross* the street.

SECONDARY PREDICATION вторичная предикация The relationship between the ➝ secondary subject and ➝ secondary predicate in a ➝ predicative construction.

SECONDARY SUBJECT вторичное подлежащее The subject of a ➝ secondary predicative construction, e.g. I saw him cross the street.

$$\text{SECONDARY TENSES} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textbf{PAST} \\ \textbf{PRESENT} \end{array} \right\} \textbf{PERFECT}$$

FUTURE

SEMI-AUXILIARY (n) **полузнаменательный глагол** A verb used in the ➙ finite form in a ➙ compound predicate, e.g. She is a student; He *must* come.

SEMI-NOTIONAL (n) = **SEMI-AUXILIARY**

SENTENCE (n) **предложение** The largest grammatical unit consisting of ➙ phrases and of ➙ clauses, used as a means of communication.

- **EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE = EXCLAMATION**

- **EXTENDED SENTENCE распространенное предложение** A sentence consisting both of ➙ principal and ➙ secondary parts, e.g. I know it.

- **NEGATIVE SENTENCE отрицательное предложение** A sentence usually comprising a negator, e.g. He won't tell the truth.

- **UNEXTENDED SENTENCE нераспространенное предложение** A sentence containing only ➙ principal parts, e.g. It is raining.

SENTENCE WORD слово-предложение A single word functioning as a sentence, e.g. Yes; Alas!; Good-bye.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES согласование времен The conditioning of the tense to be used in a subordinate clause by the tense in the main clause, e.g. He *asked* me whether I *wanted* to come.

SIMPLE PAST ➙ TENSE ➙ PAST TENSE

SINGULAR (n) **единственное число** Number, referring to not more than one.

STATEMENT утвердительное предложение A sentence expressing an assertion or a hypothesis as opposed to a ➙ question or a command, e.g. He always comes late. Alternative term: declarative sentence.

STATIVE ['steitiv] (n) **слово категории состояния** An adjective or its equivalent with the ➙ prefix 'a-' generally used as ➙ predicative in a ➙ compound nominal ➙ predicate, e.g. alive; asleep; afire.

STEM (n) **основа** That which is left off a word when all ➙ inflections are removed.

STRUCTURE (n) **структура** The organization of the language as a whole and of individual linguistic elements into meaningful ➙ patterns.

STRUCTURAL WORD ➙ FORM WORD

SUBJECT (n) **подлежащее** A nominal phrase which may function as one of two ➙ principal parts of a sentence (e.g. He said himself), the other being the ➙ predicate.

- **DEMONSTRATIVE SUBJECT указательное подлежащее** A subject expressed by the pronouns 'it, this, that' which points out a person or thing in the sentences which identify them, e.g. Is <u>that</u> Ruth?

- **FORMAL SUBJECT формальное подлежащее** A temporary subject used in order to postpone a 'heavy' logical subject to the end of the sentence, e.g. It doesn't matter *when you come*. Alternative term: grammatical/structural subject.

- **GRAMMATICAL SUBJECT = FORMAL SUBJECT**

- **IMPERSONAL SUBJECT безличное подлежащее** A subject having no reference to a particular person or thing, e.g. *It* is late.

- **INDEFINITE PERSONAL SUBJECT неопределенно-личное подлежащее** A subject expressed by the pronouns 'you, we, they, one' which refer to people in general, e.g. You never know.

- **PERSONAL SUBJECT личное подлежащее** A subject denoting a person, thing or concept, e.g. *The lake* is frozen.

SUBJECTIVE INFINITIVAL CONSTRUCTION субъектная инфинитивная конструкция A →complex subject whose second component is expressed by an infinitive, e.g. He was seen *to cross* the street. Alternative term: Nominative with an infinitive.

SUBJECTIVE PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTION субъектная причастная конструкция A → complex subject whose second component is expressed by a participle, e.g. He was seen *crossing* the street. Alternative term: Nominative with a participle.

SUBJECTIVE PREDICATIVE → COMPLEMENT → SUBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

SUBJUNCTIVE [sqb'GANktiv] (n) сослагательное наклонение A → mood form whose meaning is considered less → factual than that of the → indicative mood, e.g. If I *were* you, ...

SUBORDINATE [sqb'Ldineit] (v) подчинять Assign an inferior rank or position to a language unit.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE → CLAUSE

SUBORDINATION [sq"bLdi'neiSqn] (n) подчинение (1) A syntactic relation between the → head word and its → adjunct; (2) The linking of the units, one of which is → subordinated to the other. Phrasal subordination realizes itself through → agreement, → government, → adjoinment → and → enclosure. Clausal subordination is observed in → complex sentences.

- **CONSECUTIVE [kqn'sekjutiv] SUBORDINATION последовательное подчинение** An arrangement of subordinate clauses in which each clause

is subordinate to the preceding one, e.g. The party was held in a large room which was already crowded when he entered.

SUBORDINATOR = SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION/ CONJUNCTIVE WORD SUBSTANTIVIZED ['sAbstqntivaizd] (adj) **субстантивированный** Assuming the properties of a noun.

- **FULLY SUBSTANTIVIZED WORD полностью субстантивированное слово** A word which has assumed all the noun properties, e.g. 'a relative, periodicals' are fully substantivized adjectives.

- **PARTIALLY** ['pRSqli] **SUBSTANTIVIZED WORD частично субстантивированное слово** A word which has not assumed all the properties of a noun, e.g. 'the young, the unemployed' are partially substantivized words.

SUBSTITUTE ['sAbstitjHt] (n) **субститут** A word or phrase used instead of another word or phrase. Substitutes are subdivided into ➜ replacers and ➜ representers.

SUBSTITUTION ["sAbsti'tjHSqn] (n) **субституция** The process or result of replacing a linguistic item within a larger unit by a ➜ substitute.

SUFFIX ['sAfiks] (n) **суффикс** A ➜ morpheme following the ➜ root, e.g. 'ness' in 'kindness'.

SYNDETIC [sin'detik] **CONNECTION союзная связь** A connection of sentence parts and clauses by means of ➜ connectors.

SUPERLATIVE ➜ DEGREE OF COMPARISON

SUPPLETIVE ['sAplitiv] **FORM супплетивная форма** A ➜ synthetical form which makes use of different stems, e.g. good - better - best.

SYNTACTIC(AL) (adj) **синтаксический** Referring to the relationship between sentence constituents.

SYNTAX ['sintxks] (n) **синтаксис** That branch of grammar which is concerned with the study of the arrangement of words in phrases and sentences.

SYNTHETICAL[sin'Tetikql] **FORM синтетическая форма** A one word form (e.g. writes, went), as opposed to an ➜ analytical form.

T

TAG QUESTION = DISJUNCTIVE QUESTION

TEMPORAL CLAUSE = ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME

TENSE (n) **время** A grammatical category of the verb expressing by means of grammatical contrasts the time relationship of the action referred to in the sentence and the time of utterance. Three → primary tenses are distinguished.

- **FUTURE TENSE будущее время** A tense form of a verb formed with the auxiliaries 'shall' and 'will' referring to an action which will take place at some future point in time, e.g. He *will go*.

- **PAST TENSE прошедшее время** A tense form of a verb referring to an action which took place prior to the time of the utterance, e.g. He *went* away.

- **PRESENT TENSE настоящее время** A tense form of a verb referring to an action which is contemporaneous with the utterance, e.g. Men *walk*; Birds *fly*.

TIME CLAUSE = ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME

TIME INDICATOR показатель времени A word or phrase indicating time, e.g. yesterday; at five o'clock.

TRANSITIVE ['trxnsitiv] **VERB переходный глагол** A verb used with a → direct object, e.g. The boy *kicks* the ball.

TWO-MEMBER SENTENCE двусоставное предложение A sentence comprising both → principal parts.

U

UTTERANCE (n) **высказывание** Stretch of speech between two periods of silence or potential silence, usually marked at the end by a rising or falling intonation.

V

VERB (n) **глагол** A part of speech which may function as → predicate in a sentence, e.g. He *is coming*.

- **DYNAMIC** [dai'nxmik] **VERB динамический глагол** A verb expressing an action, e.g. walk, read. Alternative term: action verb.

- **REGULAR VERB правильный глагол** A verb which has an '-ed' inflection in the past tense form and participle II, e.g. add - added - added; help - helped - helped.

- **STATIC** ['stxtik] **VERB статический глагол** A verb which does not express an action, e.g. know, contain.

VERBAL (n) = NON-FINITE VERB FORM

VERBLESS CLAUSE безглагольное предложение A clause containing no verb element but functioning like a ➙ finite clause, e.g. *If in doubt*, ask me.

VOICE (n) **залог** A grammatical category of the verb indicating certain relationship between the subject and object of a verb

- **ACTIVE VOICE действительный залог** A verb form indicating that the subject of the verb carries out some activity or process, e.g. They *gave* him a book.

- **PASSIVE VOICE страдательный залог** A verb form Indicating that the subject of the verb is the goal or sufferer of the action expressed by the verb, e.g. He *was given* a book.

W

WORD GROUP = PHRASE

WORD ORDER порядок слов The placing of words in a sentence in a sequence according to the conventions of a given language.

- **FIXED WORD ORDER фиксированный порядок слов** Word order which is used to indicate grammatical relationship and which cannot be changed without altering or destroying the meaning of the sentence.

- **FREE WORD ORDER свободный порядок слов** Word order which, although not completely free in the literal sense, is not used to signal grammatical relationship.

- **INVERTED WORD ORDER обратный порядок слов** An arrangement of words within a sentence that is different from the normal declarative pattern, e.g. The subject occurring after an auxiliary verb to produce an ➙ interrogative sentence: 'Do I?', Alternative term: Inversion.

ZERO (n) **нуль** The meaningful absence of a linguistic element.

- **ZERO ARTICLE нулевой артикль** The meaningful absence of the article, e.g. Dinner is ready; Were you in town?

- **ZERO PLURAL нулевая форма множественного числа** A plural form identical with the singular, e.g. sheep, aircraft.

PART ONE
FUNDAMENTALS OF SYNTAX AND MORPHOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the grammatical structure of the English language with a more detailed discussion to follow in later chapters.

Syntactic units

1.1. Sentence and phrase

The basic unit in English is the **sentence.** The sentence is built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a communicative purpose.
(1) Silence. (2) Then a door opened. (3) A light foot touched the ground. (4) More silence. (5) Even the crickets were silent.

Each of the above mentioned sentences follows a definite syntactic pattern and states a fact in the affirmative form.
Example sentences 2, 3, 5 consist of a noun followed by a verb. This is the basic English sentence pattern.
When nouns and verbs follow each other in this sequence they become subjects and predicates, the two elements upon which most English sentences are built. A small minority of sentences have neither subject nor predicate:
(1) Come in. (2) Don't do that. (3) Silence. (4) Then a laugh. (5) A strange sound in that place.
Sentences comprise phrases of various degrees of complexity, ranging from a single word to several words: eyes; her photo; a cosy sort of office.

1.2. Classification of sentences. Communication types

Communicatively, sentences may be subdivided into four major syntactical classes.
(1) **Declarative** sentences, or statements. They are sentences which give information, or state facts in the affirmative or negative. They are mostly characterized by the subject-predicate word order and generally pronounced with a falling intonation:
The press conference had gone off fairly well; Nobody was able to answer the question.

(2) **Interrogative** sentences, or questions. They are typically sentences by which someone asks his hearer to give information. They are subdivided into the following groups:
(a) **general** questions ('yes-no' questions). They are usually formed by placing an auxiliary verb before the subject and giving the sentence a rising intonation.

Have you done it?; Did she go there?

(b) **special** questions (**WH**-questions). They are formed with the aid of one of the following interrogative words; **who/whom/whose, what**, **which, where, how, why**. As a rule the interrogative word comes first with the auxiliary following it (e.g. Why did you do that?), yet when the question refers to the subject no auxiliary is needed (e.g. Who told you that?)

(c) **alternative** questions. The alternative question expects as an answer one or more alternative mentioned in the question. There are two types of alternative questions, the first resembling a general question, and the second a special question:
Would you like chocolate or strawberry ice-cream?; Which ice-cream would you like? Chocolate or strawberry?

(d) **disjunctive** questions (tag questions). They ask for confirmation of the truth of the statement. The tag question added to the end of the statement consists of an auxiliary verb plus pronoun, with or without a negative particle. In most cases if the statement is positive, the tag question is negative, and vice versa:
He likes his job, *doesn't he*?; Nobody was watching me, *were they*?

(3) **Imperative** sentences, or commands. They are aimed at getting someone to do something.
Shut the door; Just look at this mess.

A command differs from a statement in that (i) it has no subject, (ii) it has a verb in the imperative: Be careful; Please hurry up.

(4) **Exclamatory** sentences, or exclamations. They are used to express the speaker's feeling or attitude. The exclamation as a sentence type begins with **what** as predeterminer in noun phrases or **HOW** as a degree word with adjectives or adverbs[*]. In contrast to **WH**-questions, there is generally no subject-predicate inversion:
What a good dinner she cooked! How delightful her manners are!; How beautifully she dances!

1.3. Structural types

According to their structure, sentences may be simple and **composite.**
Sentences with only one subject-predicate group are called **simple.**
I *stared* for a moment at Arnold's face.

Sentences with more than one subject-predicate are called **composite**. They are further subdivided into compound (1) and complex (2):

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[*] Predeterminers are words used before the article, see 2.1, 2.41

(1) *He waved* his hand and *I went* in through the half-open gate.

(2) *I laid* the hundred dollar bill *the Indian had given me* down on the desk.

Simple sentences may be subdivided into two-member and one-member sentences.

Two-member sentences contain both principal parts - the subject and the predicate.

The door was shut; So far I had only *made* four mistakes.

A two-member sentence may be complete and incomplete. It is **complete** when it has a subject and a predicate.

I sat still for a moment.

The sentence is **incomplete** or **elliptical** when one of the principal members or both are omitted. The missing part (or parts) of such sentences can be easily understood from the context or the situation. Elliptical sentences are used in colloquial style, most commonly in dialogue. They enable the speaker to avoid repetition and focus attention on new material.

Did somebody phone you? – *Carol*;

'Any ideas?' he asked softly. - *About what*?

There are sentences which comprise only one central element which can be identified neither with the subject nor with the predicate.

The floor was covered with green and grey linoleum in squares. The walls were painted white. *A clean room! Marvellous!; My poor lamb! To think of the work* you'll have getting straight in that stupid Vale View.

These sentences are called **one-member** sentences. They are marked out as a structural and semantic type of sentence.

Both one-member and two-member sentences may be **extended** and **unextended.**

An **unextended** sentence contains no other parts but the subject and the predicate (or only one central member in case of one-member sentences).

I knocked. Silence.

An **extended** sentence contains not only the main members - the subject and the predicate (or the central element in a one-member sentence), but one or more secondary members: objects, attributes or adverbial modifiers.

The garage was full of nothing. Rubbish, garbage, junk, rusted gardening tools, old cans, plenty of those, in cartons.

1.4. Sentence parts

The subject and the predicate are traditionally regarded as the principal (main) parts of a sentence because they constitute the backbone of the sentence. The object, the attribute and the adverbial modifier are secondary members.

The subject

The **subject** is the main part of the sentence which is expressed by any word, phrase or clause functioning as a nominal unit.

The *room* beyond was large and square (a noun); *She* wrote fast and easily (a pronoun); *Five* are missing (a numeral); *To err* is human (infinitive); *Seeing* is believing (a gerund); *For a bridge to collapse like that* is unlikely (a phrase); *That the driver could not control his car* was obvious (a clause).

1.5. The predicate

The predicate is the second principal part of the sentence. It expresses an action, or state or property characterising the subject.

Structurally, predicates are classified into simple (1) and compound (2).

(1) He *pattered* her shoulder and *walked* out of the kitchen.

(2) I *could* just see her face; The water *is beginning to boil;* She'*s the secretary* of a client.

Simple predicates are verbal, i.e. they are expressed by a verb in its finite form (synthetical or analytical) or by a set expression.

Oh, I *forgot* I *had told* you; She *made no reply* (= did not reply).

Compound predicates may be **verbal** and **nominal. Compound verbal** predicates comprise two verbs, the second element always being a non-finite form.

The first element in a **compound verbal modal** predicate is a modal verb, its equivalent or a verb having some modal force about it.

She *must pay* for it; We *were to meet* at five; I *tried to save* her.

The first element of a **compound verbal aspective** predicate is a verb which indicates the beginning, duration or end of the action denoted by the infinitive or the gerund.

He *continued to work* all summer; I'*ve* only just *finished dusting*.

Compound nominal predicates consist of a *link verb* (**be, become, feel, look, remain, seem,** etc) and a *predicative*, which is a nominal part expressed by a noun or its equivalent.

If I were you I *would become an actor*: That really *seems final*: My aim *was to prevent the accident*.

1.6. The object

The object is a secondary part of the sentence which refers to the words denoting actions and qualities and completes their meaning. It is expressed by nouns and their equivalents.

Nobody knows *anything about him*. He was conscious *of her trouble*: Life shall be worth *living* again; He shivered at the very thought *of it*.

Objects can be direct and indirect.
A **direct** object denotes someone or something directly affected by the action of the verb. It is used after transitive verbs. A**sk, answer, forgive, envy** take two direct objects.
They helped *her*; He asked *me my name*.

It may be also combined with the adjectives **like, busy, worth**.
I felt like *laughing*; He was busy *writing*.
An **indirect** object denotes a living being to whom the action of the transitive verb is directed.
She never told *him* anything;   He had given it *her* himself.

Some transitive verbs and adjectives, as well as nouns derived from verbs and adjectives are followed **by prepositional** objects.
It's years since I heard *from him*; Hans was clever at *carving in wood;* Is there any objection *to my seeing her*?; The boy began to take a great interest *in football*.

1.7. The attribute

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence qualifying the noun or its equivalent. The attribute may be expressed by an adjective, a pronoun, a noun, a numeral, a participle, a gerund, an infinitive, an adverb and a prepositional phrase.
Anne Crowder walked up and down the *small* room in her *heavy tweed* coat; The *station* clock marked there minutes to midnight; He saw their *smiling* faces raised under the *great* lamp; Robert works at a *motoring* school; Bigg's boy was the first *to come round;* The sun danced on the warm lawn *outside;* Far off I heard the whine *of a vacuum cleaner;* I hate the idea *of Larry making a mess of his life*.

1.8. The adverbial modifier

The **adverbial modifier** is a secondary part of the sentence which gives additional information about the action or state expressed in various parts of the sentence. For example, it may point the time when the action happened, the place where it happened, the manner in which it happened, etc. Accordingly,

adverbial modifiers are divided into those of *time (1), place (2), manner (3), comparison (4), attending circumstances (5), cause (6), purpose (7), result (8), condition (9), concession (10), degree (11).*

Adverbial modifiers may be expressed by adverbs, nouns, numerals, participles, infinitives; nouns, pronouns and gerunds introduced by prepositions.

(1) They started *at seven*.
(2) The paper lay *on the floor at Mr. Davis's feet*.
(3) He slept *heavily*.
(4) He complains *like mad* when things go wrong.
(5) Now *with the telephone within reach* he began to read the memorandum on his desk.
(6) *The weather being unusually mild*, the lake did not freeze over.
(7) I turned my face away *to conceal a smile*.
(8) The name was too complicated *to read upside down*.
(9) *But for his open eyes*, he might have been asleep.
(10) I'll do it *in spite of everyone*.
(11) It is not so big as I thought it would be.

PHRASES

1.9. Morphological classification

The phrase is a meaningful unit which consists of one or more words denoting phenomena and their properties. Morphologically, the following types of phrases are distinguished:

noun phrase (NP), characterized by a nominal element:
    John, a voice, each child, anything new, a fine strong set of teeth;

verb phrase (VP), characterized by a finite or non-finite verbal element:
    grow, smokes heavily, explained in slow English, to smoke like that, explaining in English;

adjectival phrase (AjP), characterized by an adjective element:
    tiny, very good;

adverbial phrase (AvP), characterized by an adverbial element:
    before, almost softly, weeks later;

prepositional phrase (PP), characterized by prepositional element:
    in the ocean, at first, of it.

1.10. Syntactic relations

In order to state general rules about the construction of phrases which comprise more than one word, it is necessary to refer to **syntactic relations**.

When two or more words are connected syntactically, their relation may be described as **coordination, subordination** and **predication**. Accordingly, there exist **coordinate, subordinate** and **predicative phrases**.

Joined through *coordination*, the words are equal in rank, they are not dependent on one another:

<div align="center">

man and wife   tired but satisfied

now or never   slowly, stealthily

</div>

Coordination may be syndetic, as in the first three instances given above - when coordinators **(coordinating conjunctions)** are present – and **asyndetic,** as in the last instance - when coordinators are absent but could be supplied:

Slowly, stealthily, he crept towards his victim.

Slowly and stealthily, he crept towards his victim.

Sometimes the coordination of two elements is made more emphatic by the addition of a word before the first element: **both ... and, either ... or, not only ... but (also)**. This is called **correlative** coordination.

He plays *both* the flute *and* the horn; His doctor allows him *neither* to drink *nor* to smoke; She's *not only* an excellent housewife, *but (also)* a first class mathematician.

Joined through subordination, the words are not equal in rank: one word (adjunct) is subordinated to the other (head). Subordination realizes itself through agreement, government, adjoinment and enclosure.

Agreement (or concord) consists in making the adjunct take a form similar to that of the head, It is practically found only between the demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** and the noun:

<div align="center">

this day - these days   that day - those days

</div>

Government consists in the use of a certain form of the adjunct required by the head. This holds for some personal pronouns and the interrogative and conjunctive **whom** dependent on a verb or preposition. Hence **verbal** government (1) and **prepositional** government (2) are distinguished. (1) loved them; saw him; (2) by her; to whom

Adjoinment implies such subordination of the adjunct to the head which is achieved by their position and their meanings. The most typical example of adjoinment is the relation between an adverb and its head, whether this is an adjective or a verb, or another adverb:

<div align="center">

ran fast; very proud; much more

</div>

Adjectives, nouns and other words used as prepositive attributes, except the demonstratives **this** and **that**, are also merely adjoined to their heads:

<div align="center">

old friends; library tables; some notes

</div>

Enclosure consists in the putting of a component of a phrase between two constituents of another component. The most widely known instance of this is

the enclosing of a word between an article and the noun to which the article belongs:

a private detective; the spoken word

A component of a phrase can be also enclosed between a pronoun or a preposition and the head. Any word thus enclosed is known to be an attribute to the noun:

some other day; his own radiantly imagined future; in her composed voice

The **predicative** relation unites the subject and the predicate: The components of a predicative phrase predetermine each other.

he went; they have gone; (the) cattle are grazing

Predication builds up the basis of the sentence:
He went after her along the hall; They *have gone* out;
The cattle are grazing in the fields.

In most sentences this is the only predication they contain. However, there are sentences which contain one more predication which is called secondary predication:

Then he saw a girl coming towards him over the grass;
He is considered foolish.

In the example sentences predication realizes itself not only through 'he saw' and 'he is considered' but also through the phrases 'a girl coming' and 'he foolish' as their components have the same relation as the subject and the predicate of the sentences. 'A girl was coming toward him over the grass' and 'He is foolish'. The phrase 'a girl coming' functioning as a complex object of the first example sentence comprises a participle used as an objective predicative. The phrase 'he foolish' functioning as a complex subject of the second example sentence comprises an adjective used as a subjective predicative.

Of the three main types of syntactic relations discussed above two are used to form composite sentences: coordination and subordination. Accordingly, **compound** (1) and **complex** (2) sentences are distinguished.

(1) The headmaster did not like us very much and he seldom gave us any praise.
(2) It was clear that the headmaster did not like us, because he seldom gave us any praise.

1.11. Parts of speech

Sentence members realize themselves through units which can be referred to as **parts of speech**. These can be exemplified as follows:

(a) noun   - John, room, idea, snow
   adjective - happy, new, large, round
   pronoun - he, they, anybody, one, which
   adverb - happily, closely, very, then
   verb - write, have, do, be
   numeral - two, three, second
(b) prepositions - of, at, without, in spite of
   conjunctions - and, that, when, on condition that
   particles   - not, to, only, just
   modal words - certainly, indeed, really
   words of affirmation and negation - yes, no
   interjections - oh, ah, ugh, phew

The parts of speech are listed in two groups, (a) and (b), and this introduces a distinction of very great significance. Set (a) comprises words called **notional** parts of speech. Notional parts of speech are words denoting things, their qualities, actions and states. Notional words have distinct meanings and perform independent syntactical functions in the sentence - they function as principal or secondary members of the sentence.

Set (b) comprises **form words**, or structural words. Form words differ from notional words semantically - their meaning is more general than that of notional words. Moreover, they are sometimes altogether devoid of it: the conjunction **that**, the preposition **of**, etc. Form words do not perform any independent syntactical functions; they express relations between words in a sentence (e.g. the trees *in* the garden; Tom *and* Joe) or specify the meaning of a word (e.g. *only* tomorrow; very nice *indeed*). Prepositions and conjunctions are called **connectors.**

It is noteworthy that the division of words into parts of speech can be accepted only with certain reservations - there are words which cannot be classed among any of the above mentioned parts of speech (e.g. *please, anyway)*.

1.12. Nouns

Nouns are one of the four large parts of speech, the others being verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Nouns name things. They also name people, places, processes and qualities.

There are several ways to identify and classify nouns in English. Semantically, nouns fall into **proper** (e.g. *Ned, Shakespeare, London*) and **common** (e.g. *table, air, anger*). Both proper and common nouns can refer to something **animate** (e.g. *Ned, friend*) and **inanimate** (e.g. *London, table*).

The most reliable way to identify nouns is by form. We find that most nouns in English can be identified by their ability to form the plural number (e.g. *toy - toys, bird - birds)*. Nouns that inflect for number are called countable

nouns. They are always either singular (naming one object) or plural (naming more than one). The singular form has no inflection; it coincides with the root of the word. The plural has the ending **-s** or **-es** (A few irregular nouns form their plural in other ways). .

Nouns that cannot have a plural form (e.g. *bread, harm, furniture*) are called uncountable.

English nouns have a two-case system: the common case and the genitive case. The common case coincides with the stem of the noun.

The genitive singular has an apostrophe **-s** inflection added to the root of the noun (e.g. *pilot's, newcomer's*). The genitive of regular plurals has no ending in speech; in writing these nouns only add an apostrophe (e.g. *pilots', newcomers'*).

The genitive case is generally used with proper and common nouns denoting human beings and animals. The genitive with inanimate nouns though grammatically possible (e.g. *the chair's leg, the tree's leaves, the storm's strength*) is not regularly used.

In the sentence nouns mainly function as subjects (1) and objects (2).

(1) *A bell* began to ring furiously;

(2) He opened *the door*: I looked *at the ornaments on the desk.*

Nouns can also be predicatives.

This is just *an old politician*.

Many nouns in the common and genitive cases function as **attributes.**

They lived in a *country* house; The *policemen's* words came back to him.

It is very common to use nouns as attributes by putting them before other words: e.g. car door, cassette box, table leg. But it is not always possible to put two nouns together in this way. Sometimes it is necessary to use the construction with 'of' (a loaf of bread, but not *a bread loaf) or the genitive (a miner's lamp, but not *a miner lamp).

Quite often nouns used attributively are introduced by prepositions. In such cases they follow the head noun: e.g. the contents *of the chapter;* the man *in the road*.

Nouns can function as adverbial modifiers.

They visit their parents every *year*.

This function is most common with nouns introduced by prepositions.

They met *before the war* (adverbial modifier of time); He sat down *in the great hall beside a model of Stephenson's 'Rocket'* (adverbial modifier of place); I recall it *with pleasure* (adverbial modifier of manner); It fits him *like a glove* (adverbial modifier of comparison); He got up and came towards them *with his hands out* (adverbial modifier of attending circumstances); She was trembling *with fear* (adverbial modifier of cause); I had lived *for social service* (adverbial modifier of purpose); *In case of your absence* I'll leave you a note (adverbial modifier of condition); *With all her faults* he still liked her (adverbial modifier of concession).

1.13. Adjectives

Adjectives are the most important class of words that modify nouns. Most adjectives assign some quality to the noun: *heavy, useful, bold, narrow, clever*. Such qualities may be present in greater or lesser degree, and therefore nouns that possess them can be compared. In describing the process of comparison we speak of the **positive** degree, the **comparative** degree, and the **superlative** degree.

Most adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms. Regular comparison may be expressed by adding the suffixes **-er, -est** to the adjective (e.g. *loud - louder - loudest; happy -happier - happiest*) and by placing *more* and *most* before the adjective (e.g. *timid - more timid - most timid; interesting -more interesting - most interesting)*.

The forms with suffixes are called synthetical and the forms with *more* and *most*, which are auxiliaries, are called analytical.

A few commonly used adjectives have irregular forms of comparison: *good - better - best; bad - worse - worst*, etc.

The major syntactical functions of adjectives are those of an **attribute** (1) and a **predicative** (2).

(1) Do you see the *small green* boat, which has an odd shape?

(2) I feel *awful* this morning.

1.14. Pronouns

The pronoun is a part of speech including words with a very general or relative meaning. Pronouns, as the name implies, can stand for nouns, i.e. function as a whole noun phrase (in being subject or object of a sentence) or as the head of a noun phrase (e.g. *we* all; *everyone* in our class). Many of them act as **substitutes:** representers (1) and replacers for co-referential noun phrases in the context (2).

(1) When the children entered *each* (child) was given a present; I broke the coffee-pot, so we have to buy *another* (coffee-pot).

(2) Mr Smith went home because he was tired; Some of the equipment has been damaged, but *none* has been lost; The fault is *mine*.

Some pronouns can function as **determiners.**

I had no time; She saw him *every* day; Take out *your* workbooks.

Quite a number of pronouns can act both as determiners (a) and substitutes (b).

(a) *Which* car
(b) *Which*
} is yours?

(a) *This* bike is mine.
(b) *This* is my bike.

Other pronouns can be substitutes only.

John has hurt *himself*; We don't actually dislike *one another*.

In accordance with grammatical tradition, pronouns are treated under the following headings:

personal	– I, us, him, them, etc;
possessive	– my, yours, hers, their, etc;
reflexive	– myself, herself, themselves, etc;
reciprocal	– each other, one another;
demonstrative	– this, that, these, those, such, same;
interrogative	– who, what, whose, which;
conjunctive	– who, whom, whose, what, which, that;
indefinite	– some, any, every, and their compounds in: -body, -one, -thing; all, each, either, neither, both, other, another, none.

1.15. Case

Personal pronouns and the pronoun WHO functioning as interrogative, conjunctive or relative have two cases: the **nominative** and the **objective**.

Nom.	-	I	we	he	she	it	they	who
Obj.	-	me	us	him	her	it	them	whom

Like nouns, the Indefinite pronouns ending in **-one, -body** and the pronouns **each other, one another** distinguish in case between the **nominative** (e.g. *somebody, each other*) and the **genitive** (e.g. *somebody's, each other's*).

1.16. Number

Number is a feature of personal (e.g. *I - we*), reflexive (e.g. *myself - ourselves*), demonstrative **this** and **that** (**these, those**), and indefinite **other** (**others**) pronouns.

1.17. Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns function as replacers for co-referential noun phrases in preceding clauses:

John waited a while but eventually *he* went home.

Personal pronouns distinguish between 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons. They have two sets of forms: nominative (e.g. *he, she*) and objective (e.g. *him, her*) cases; two numbers: singular (e.g. *I, it*) and plural (e.g. *we, they*). Gender applies only to the forms of the 3rd person singular: *he* - masculine, *she* - feminine, *it* - neuter.

1.18. Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns combine the function of determiners with those of substitutes. There are two series of forms of possessive pronouns. The forms

which are syntactically attributes are called **conjoint**: *my, your*, etc. In the noun phrase they are used as determiners: <u>my</u> table, <u>your</u> answer. To the other series belong such forms as *mine, yours*, which are used as replacers and called absolute:

The table is *mine* (This is my table);
His answer is better than *hers* (her answer);

Like personal pronouns, possessive pronouns have number (e.g. *my - our*) and gender (*his, her, its*) distinctions.

1.19. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns replace a co-referential noun phrase, normally within the same sentence.

John hurt *himself;* She looked at *herself* in the mirror.

The reflexive pronouns also have an emphatic   use, where they follow a noun phrase or another pronoun, and   reinforce their meaning:

I spoke to the manager *himself;* She *herself* said it.

Number and gender affect reflexive pronouns in the way they affect possessive pronouns.

The indefinite pronoun **one** has its own reflexive as in 'One mustn't fool *oneself*.

1.20. Reciprocal pronouns

Each other and **one another** are reciprocal pronouns. Their functions are somewhat similar to reflexive pronouns.

They greeted *each other*;
The four children are fond of *one another*.

The reciprocal pronouns inflect for the genitive: The students borrowed *each other's* notes.

1.21. Demonstrative pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns can function both as determiners (1) and substitutes (2).
(1)   I don't like this sort of music: We had *such* fun.
(2)   This costs more than that; Give me the same again, please.
The demonstratives **this** and **that** have number distinctions. Their plural forms are **these** and **those** respectively.

1.22. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are **who, what, whose, which**. They are used to introduce special questions, the so-called **WH**-questions.
In the noun phrase, the interrogatives **what, which, whose** can act as determiners (1) and substitutes (2).

(1) *What* writers do you like?; *Which* pen would you like?; *Whose* car is that outside?

(2) *What* happened?; *Which* would you like - fish or meat?; *Whose* is that?

Who can only be a substitute.

Who is your favourite composer?

Like personal pronouns, **who** distinguishes in case between the nominative (**who**) and the objective (**whom**).

Who told you that?
Whom did you tell that?

Whom is not often used in informal English; it is usually replaced by **who**.

Who did they arrest? (informal)
Who are you going with? (informal)

Whom is preferred in a more formal style, and it is necessary after a preposition.

Whom are you going with? (semi-formal)
With *whom* are you going? (very formal)

Who won - Smith or Fitzgibbon?

Which and **what** can both be used with nouns to ask questions about people and things. But in meaning, **what** differs from **which** with respect to definiteness. **What** has indefinite reference, i.e. it implies that the choice is made from an indefinite number of objects, not previously specified.

What parents would you like to have?

Which has definite reference, i.e. it implies a choice from a limited number of objects.

Which colour do you like best - green, red or yellow?;
Which parent is more important in the first years of life?

1.23. Conjunctive pronouns

The pronouns **who, whom, what, whose, which**, homonymous with interrogative pronouns, are used to introduce the so-called noun clauses, such as subject, predicative and object clauses. They are known as conjunctive pronouns.

Who was to blame is not clear (subject clause); That's *what* always happens in a case like that (predicative clause); He couldn't decide *what* is best (object clause).

Conjunctive pronouns combine a demonstrative meaning with that of a conjunction. In the clauses they introduce they function as subject (1), predicative (2), object (3) or attribute (4).

(1) The problem is not *who* will go, but who will stay;

(2) May I ask *what* the price is?

(3) No one knew on *whom* that heavy responsibility would fall;

(4) She couldn't remember *which* shelf she kept it on.

1.24. Relative pronouns

The pronouns **that, which, who, whom, whose** make up a special group of conjunctive, known as relative. They are called so because they serve to introduce relative clauses, which are a variety of attributive clauses. The relative clause is always correlated with some antecedent, i.e. a noun or its substitute which is identified or modified by the clause.

We cut down the tree that blocked the view;

Anyone who bets on horses deserves to lose money;

That's the girl whom Paul is planning to marry;

They gave me a leaflet, which I dropped in the nearest rubbish bin;

When I looked through the window I saw a girl whose beauty took my breath away.

If relative pronouns function as subject they do not drop. Used in the function other than subject they can drop in certain contexts.

He's a man (*that*) people like at first sight (object);

I admired the way (in *which*) you answered his questions (adverbial modifier).

Who and **whom** are used only of persons (1); **which** is used only of things (2); and WHOSE may be used of either (3).

(1) a student who sat near the window; a man *whom* I had seen before;

(2) a book *which* costs a lot;

(3a) He is the man *whose* son called yesterday;

(3b) It was a meeting *whose* importance I did not realize at the time.

The relative pronoun **that** may refer either to persons or things, though many writers prefer not to use it for persons:

the man *that* told me the address;

the book *that* I like best.

That can not be preceded by a preposition.

This is the book *that* I was asking about; but not:

*This is the book *about that* I was asking.

1.25. Indefinite pronouns

The indefinite pronouns comprise **all, each, either, neither, other, another, both, none; some, any, every, no** and their compounds in -**body, -one, -thing; several, (a) few, (a) little, many, much.**

In the noun phrase some indefinite pronouns (like **each, some, both, several**) can function as determiners and substitutes. Compare:

> *Some* people learn languages easily.
> *Some* like tea, *some* like coffee.
> This model comes in *several* colours.
> *Several* were found dead.

The pronouns **every** and **no** function only as determiners.

> *Every* player was on top form; He made *no* reply.

Of the pronouns which are determiners some (like **all**) can function as predeterminers (1), others (like **many**) can be used as postdeterminers (2), yet others occur in the article position (3).

(1) She's eaten all the biscuits; You can't have it for *both* these reasons; She spends *half* her time travelling.

(2) His *many* friends never deserted him; We went our *several* ways; The *little* money I've saved won't last us long.

(3) *Every* good teacher must study his subject carefully; It's *no* easy matter.

Like nouns, the pronoun **one** and the compounds in -**body**, and -**one** inflect for the genitive: **one's, everyone's, nobody's.**

When **other** refers to plural countable nouns, it assumes the plural form **others**:

> Have you got any *others*? (apples); Two students are ill and where are the *others*?

1.26. Adverbs

Adverbs are words that modify qualities (e.g. *deeply* anxious, *very* heavily) and processes (e.g. married *recently*, laughed *gaily*).

Semantically, adverbs are subdivided into adverbs of time (e.g. *still, just, yet*), place (e.g. *down, outwards*), manner (e.g. *rather, too*), cause (e.g. *why, therefore*) and concession (e.g. *however, nevertheless, yet*).

The most common characteristic of the adverb is morphological: most adverbs are formed from adjectives with the suffix -**ly**: *frank - frankly, happy - happily*, etc.

Most adverbs of manner and a few adverbs of time and place can take **comparative** and **superlative** forms, which are made with **more** and **most** (*more lovely, most lovely*). But such monosyllabic adverbs as **soon, late, hard, near, often** form degrees of comparison synthetically. (However **more often and most often** are more common).

She was the one who was being hurt *most deeply*.

You'll have to do it *sooner* or *later.*

As with adjectives, there is a small group with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems, i.e. suppletively: e.g. *well - better - best; badly - worse - worst.*

Syntactically, adverbs function in the sentence as adverbial modifiers.

He has arrived *already* (adverbial modifier of time);

Upstairs the children were running around (adverbial modifier of place);

He spoke *confidentially* (adverbial modifier of manner).

1.27. Verbs

Verbs express actions and states.

Morphologically, verbs are divided into regular (such as *call*) and irregular (such as *drink*). According to their function, all verbs may be classified as notional, i.e. verbs which have a full lexical meaning (e.g. *ask, write, bark*), and auxiliary, i.e. 'helping verbs' which are necessary for analytical forms (e.g. *be, do, have*).

The verbs have person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood distinctions.

There are three persons (1st, 2nd and 3rd) and two numbers (singular and plural). The only inflection of person and number is **-s** which is used in the 3rd person singular of the present tense:

He/she/it (the boy/ the girl/ the cat) *likes* milk.

Modern English has three primary tenses: present (*play, blow*, etc), past (e.g. *played, blew*) and future (e.g. *shall play, will blow*). Perfect forms (e.g. *have played, had blown*), distinct from the present, past and future, are called secondary tenses. They are used for an event which is seen in relation to a later event or time:

He *has been* in prison for ten years (= He is still there).

Aspect concerns the manner in which a verbal action is experienced or regarded: as a fact - the common aspect (e.g. *study, drive*) or in progress - the continuous aspect (e.g. *is studying, were driving*).

There are two voices: active (e.g. *kill, see*) and passive (e.g. *is killed, will be seen*), and three moods: indicative (e.g. *kills, looked*), imperative (e.g. *kill, look*), subjunctive (e.g. *should kill, looked*).

Verb forms may be finite and non-finite. Finite forms have tense (present, past and future) and mood distinctions. Non-finite forms of the verb are the infinitive (e.g. *to call, to leave*), the present participle (e.g. *calling, leaving*), the past participle (e.g. *called, left*), and the gerund (e.g. *calling, leaving*). They do not inflect for primary tenses and moods.

Syntactically, finite forms are predicates in the sentence whereas non-finite forms occur only as part of the predicate or function as nominal elements.

1.28. Numerals

Numerals or numbers can be cardinal (e.g. *one, two*) and ordinal (e.g. *first, second*). Both types can function as substitutes (e.g. There are *ten* on the list, so you are the *eleventh*) or as determiners (e.g. They have *two* children already, so this will be their *third* child).

1.29. Prepositions

Prepositions are form words which, as their name implies, are placed before a noun phrase (*in* the office, to him, *before* answering, the last *but* one, etc).

In the most general terms, a preposition expresses a relation between two notions with at least one denoted by a noun or its equivalent. Of the various types of relational meaning, those of place (e.g. *in, on, at*), time (e.g. *during, before, till*), instrument (*by, with, without*) and cause (e.g. *because of*) are the most prominent and easy to identify. Other prepositional meanings are difficult to describe systematically in terms of such labels.

Most of the common English prepositions, such as *at, in* and *for*, are **simple**, i.e. consist of one word. Other prepositions, consisting of more than one word are called **complex** (e.g. *along with, away from, owing to, by means of)*.

1.30. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are form words that serve to connect words or phrases, as well as clauses or sentences.

Conjunctions may be simple (e.g. *and, but, while, because, however*), complex (e.g. *in order that, in case, as soon as*) and correlative, i.e. used in pairs (e.g. *both ... and, either ... or, no sooner ... than, as ... as*).

The connection between words, phrases, and clauses is brought about either by way of coordination or by way of subordination. Accordingly, conjunctions are classified as **coordinating** conjunctions or **coordinators** and **subordinating** conjunctions or **subordinators**.

Coordinators connect words, phrases, and clauses that are independent of each other. Coordinators may be subdivided into four subgroups:
  (i)   **copulative** conjunctions which denote that one statement or fact is simply added to another: **and, nor, neither, as well as, both . . . and, not only . . . but (also), neither . . . nor;**
  (ii) **disjunctive** conjunctions which offer some choice between one statement or another: **or, either ... or, or else**;
  (iii) **adversative** conjunctions which show that one statement or fact is contrasted with or set against another: **but, still, yet, while, whereas**;
  (iv) **causative-consecutive** conjunctions which denote consequence, result, or reason: **for, hence, so.**

The conjunction **for** is a borderline case between a coordinator and subordinator. There are three common correlative coordinators: **either ... or**, where **either** anticipates the alternative introduced by **or; both ... and**, where **both** anticipates the addition introduced by **and**; and **neither ... nor**, where **neither** negates the first clause and anticipates the additional negation introduced by **nor.**

Subordinators introduce subordinate clauses: **after, (al)though, as, because, if, since, that, until, when, where, so that, in order that, so far as, as if, as though, in case**, etc.

There is a small group of **correlative** subordinators, i.e. combinations of two markers, one (a conjunction) occurring in the subordinate clause and the other (normally an adverb) occurring in the main clause: **as ... as, so ... as, such ... as, no sooner ... than, hardly ... when, the ... the** and the like.

> We'd *hardly* left the house *when* it began to rain;
> *The* more he heard *the* less he spoke.

There are items which are called borderline subordinators: (a) combinations of a subordinator with a preceding or following particle: **just as, if only;** (b) participle forms: **supposing (=if), seeing, given (=on condition, if), providing/provided (=on condition that):**

> *Supposing* he refuses to speak to me?; I'll do it *providing* they pay me.

Many of subordinators introduce different kinds of clauses. **That** may introduce subject clauses (1), predicative clauses (2), object clauses (3), adverbial clauses (4), and attributive clauses (5).

(1) <u>That</u> we need more equipment is obvious;
(2) The point is <u>that</u> we're leaving;
(3) I know <u>that</u> she is pretty;
(4) John visited London <u>that</u> he could see his uncle;
(5) His wife tried to conceal the fact <u>that</u> he was seriously ill.

The conjunction **if** introduces object clauses (1) and adverbial clauses of condition (2).

(1) Do you know *if* the shop is open?;
(2) *If* you treat her kindly, she'll do anything for you.

The subordinators **as if, as though, when, if**, etc may be occasionally used in simple sentences which go back to complex sentences with a subordinate clause ellipted:

> *Although* told to stop, he kept on working;
> *When* in difficulty, consult the manual.

1.31. Particles

Particles are form words which emphasise, restrict or make negative the meaning of separate words, phrases or sentences.

According to the purpose they serve, particles can be subclassified into the following groups:

(1) **limiting:** *only, merely, but*, etc;
(2) **intensifying**: *simply, just, even, still, yet, the*;
(3) **connecting:** *also, too*;
(4) **negative:** *not, never*.

They brought their own children *too*; The robbers stole everything *but* the typewriter; It will be all *the* easier to deceive him now; She's *never* been heard of since.

1.32. Modal words

Modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility or probability of the events he is speaking about.

Semantically, modal words may be subdivided into the following groups:

(1) modal words expressing certainty: **certainly, surely, of course, no doubt, naturally, really, in fact**;
(2) modal words expressing supposition: **perhaps, maybe, possibly, evidently, obviously,** etc;
(3) modal words expressing (un)desirability: (**un)luckily, (un)fortunately, happily**, etc.

Modal words have no syntactical function in the sentence. They are used as independent (parenthetical) elements. Occasionally they are marked off by commas.

> I *really* want to talk to you; *Fortunately*, the men were genuine patriots and did not betray me.

Some modal words may be used as sentence words.

> Is the whole family agreeable? - *Certainly*. Are you glad? - Yes, *indeed*.

1.33. Interjections

Interjections are words whose only function is to express emotion. Some interjections have imperative meaning.

Emotional interjections express the feeling of the speaker: **oh** [ou] (surprise), **ah** [R] (satisfaction), **aha** [q'hR] (recognition), **wow** [wau] (great surprise), **yippee** ['jipJ] (excitement, delight), **ouch** [auC], **ow** [au] (pain), **ugh** [Ah] (disgust), **ooh** [H] (pleasure, pain), **well** (surprise), **Why!** (surprise), **alas**[q'lxs] (sorrow), etc.

> *Ah*, that's just what I wanted; *Ugh*, what a mess!

Imperative interjections express the will of the speaker or his order or appeal to the hearer: **hey** (call for attention); **here** (protest); **hush** (call for silence); **Eh?** [ei] (impolite request for repetition); **come now** (reproof

cf. Russian Полно-те!/Да что Вы!); **now (then)** (used at the beginning of a sentence, often as a protest or warning, or simply to call attention); **never mind** (encouragement), **so** (used to get someone's attention), etc.

> *Here*! I've had enough of that; *Come, come*! You don't expect me to believe it; *Now then* what's wrong?

Interjections are used either as sentence words or parenthetically.

1.34. Lexico-Grammatical homonyms

There are many homonymous elements in the parts of speech system. Some prepositions are homonymous with adverbs and conjunctions. For instance, the prepositions **after, before, since** are identical with the adverbs **after, before, since**, and conjunctions **after, before, since**.

> We met *after* supper (preposition); What comes *after*? (adverb); We ate *after* I arrived (conjunction).
>
> They were married *before* the war (preposition); It had been fine the day *before* (adverb); Do it now *before* you forget (conjunction).
>
> *Since* last seeing you I have been ill (preposition); He has lived here ever *since* (adverb); Where have you been *since* I last saw you? (conjunction).

The conjunction **until** is homonymous with the preposition **until**:

> I stayed in *until* he phoned (conjunction); I can't come *until* Saturday (preposition).

The subordinator **while** (which is translated into Russian as в то время как; пока) is homonymous with the coordinator **while** (which is translated into Russian as тогда как; а):

> *While* they were skating along, they heard the cars coming close behind them (subordinator);
>
> His nerves had become numb, *while* (= and, but) his mind was filled with visions (coordinator).

Grammatical homonyms may be found among modal words and adverbs since many modal words were derived from adverbs: **happily, fortunately, certainly, surely, really**, etc.

> Soames smiled. *Certainly,* uncle Jolyon had a way with him (modal word); He said it pompously, and yet quite *certainly* (adverb).
>
> I am *truly* happy for you (modal word); Tell me *truly* (adverb).

A number of particles have homonyms among other parts of speech.

> It rained *yet* harder (particle); Has your brother arrived *yet*? (adverb); He saw approaching a lanky *yet* erect young man of his own age (conjunction).

A great number of interjections are homonyms with the notional words they are derived from: **well, now, here, there, come,** etc.

PART TWO

NOUN AND THE BASIC NOUN PHRASE

2.1 The noun phrase

Sentence members can be realized by morphological elements in very different forms. The subject as main sentence part is always a noun phrase (**NP**).

A noun phrase is characterized by a nominal element as its head. The nominal element may be expressed by a noun, a pronoun, a numeral, an infinitive and a gerund: e.g. *John*; the *child*; the *first*: how *to do* it; his *working* hard.

In certain contexts, the phrase is often reduced to a pronoun which has the same reference as the noun phrase: *Billy* turned up three years later. *He* had turned theatre-critic for a new magazine.

The basic noun phrase consists of a determiner (T) and noun (N).

```
                        NP
              ┌──────────┴──────────┐
              T                     N

            the                   table
             a                    book
            two                   pens
             no                   money
            all                   students
            his                   advice
             ø                    pencils
             ø                    John
```
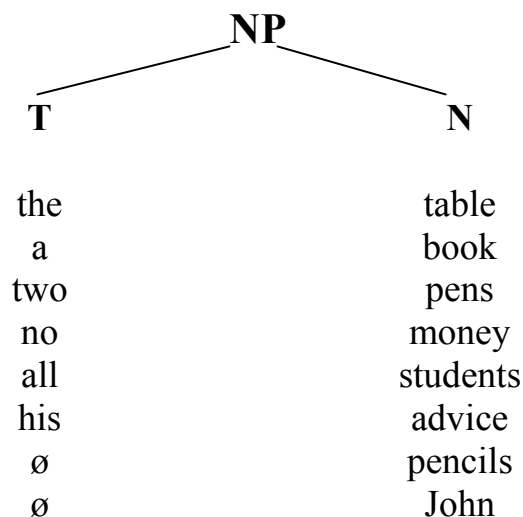
But a noun phrase may be a long and complex structure having a noun as head, preceded by other words such as an adjective or another noun, and followed by a prepositional phrase or by an attributive clause, or by both: e.g. a pretty girl; London buses; the whole history of mankind; the probabilities that lay ahead; the gaps in his life which were unknown to her.

In describing complex noun phrases, we distinguish three components:
- (a) the **head**, around which the other components cluster;
- (b) the **premodifier**, which comprises all the words placed before the head - adjectives and nouns;
- (c) the **postmodifier**, comprising all the words placed after the head - prepositional phrases, non-finite forms and attributive clauses.

Before articles and demonstrative pronouns which function as determiners in a noun phrase such quantifiers as **all, both, half** can occur. They are called **predeterminers.**

Words which follow determiners but precede adjectives used as premodifiers are called **postdeterminers**. They include ordinal and cardinal numerals.

Predeter-miner	Deter-miner	Postdeter-miner	Premo-difier	Head	Postmo-difier
	a		pretty London	girl buses	
all	the the	three	whole long	history stories	of mankind

2.2 Classification of nouns

The noun is a notional part of speech characterized by the lexico-grammatical meaning of substantivity, i.e. thingness. It denotes living beings (*man, bird*, etc), inanimate objects (*table, necklace*, etc), certain facts, phenomena and their qualities regarded as substances (*strike, love, simplicity,* etc).

The noun has **case** (*boy – boy's*) and **number** (*boy -boys*) distinctions.

Unlike Old English where each noun was assigned to some gender: masculine, feminine, or neuter, Modern English makes **no gender** distinctions. The forms of the 3rd person singular of the personal pronouns (*HE, SHE*) functioning as noun substitutes convey the biological category "sex". *HE* refers to a person or animal regarded as male; *she* to a person or animal regarded as female. In a number of cases the distinction between male and female realizes itself through lexical items: *king - queen, man - woman, god - goddess, usher - usherette, she-goat - he-goat, tom-cat - pussy-cat.*

Syntactically, the noun may function in the sentence as subject (e.g. The

baby was asleep), object, attribute, adverbial modifier(e.g. He wrote a *film script*

that *year*) etc.

2.3

Semantically, all nouns can be divided into two main groups - **proper** and **common** nouns.

Proper nouns are names having unique reference. They include personal names (*John, Brown*), geographical names (*The USSR, England, The Mississippi*), names of public institutions (*The British Council, Scotland*

Yard), ships (*The Queen Elizabeth, The Orleans*), newspapers (*The Daily Mail, The Observer*), etc. Names of the months and the days of the week also belong here (*March, June; Monday, Thursday*).

Proper nouns may become common nouns: e.g. a mackintosh - a coat made of water proof material patented by C. Mackintosh; rugby - a kind of football named after a town with a public school in it which started the game at the beginning of the 20th century.

Common nouns are names applied to any member of a class of living beings (*boy, cat*) or things (*tree, chair*), collections of similar individuals (*police, crowd*) or things (*linen, crockery*) regarded as a unit, materials (*water, gold*) or abstract notions (*peace, beauty*). Accordingly, **class** nouns, **collective** nouns, **material** nouns, and **abstract** nouns are distinguished.

Common nouns may become proper names: e.g. the City - the business quarter of London; the Globe - a theatre at the time of Shakespeare.

2.4

Common nouns are usually subdivided into **count** nouns, also called **countables**, and **non-count** nouns, or **uncountables**.

Countables, as the name implies, denote objects that can be counted. They can be either concrete (*boy, house*) or abstract (*idea, suggestion*).

Uncountables or mass nouns are used only in the singular and may be treated as "singularia tantum". To this group belong:

(a) concrete nouns, mass nouns included
   (i)   names of materials: *sand, bread, hair*, etc;
   (ii)   some collective nouns: *fruit, shrubbery, furniture*, etc;
(b) abstract nouns: *permission, advice, progress,* etc;
(c) nouns ending in -**s,** which is part of the root:
   (i)   names of the branches of man's activity: *gymnastics, linguistics, mathematics, physics, phonetics, acoustics, statistics, economics;*
   (ii)   names of diseases and of abnormal states of the body and mind: *measles, mumps, diabetes, creeps, hysterics*, etc;
   (iii)   names of games: *billiards, dominoes, draughts, darts, bowls;*
   (iv)   names of cities and organizations: *Algiers* (Алжир), *Athens* (Афины), the Netherlands.

Uncountable nouns are never determined by the indefinite article; they may be used with the pronouns **some, much, little**.

Note:

[a] Used in the sense of different sorts of materials and items made of the material denoted by the mass nouns, or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns, singularia tantum nouns become countables: an iron, a hair, a joy, teas, cheeses, a copper;

[b] Some singularia tantum mass nouns take an **-s** and become pluralia tantum with a new meaning: tinned/dried/citrus fruits, mineral/neutral waters, sands (= desert)

[c] The nouns ending in **-ics** may function as pluralia tantum when abilities, methods, ideas or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities are meant:

politics (sg) an academic subject, a profession; (pl) political views: *What are your politics?;*

acoustics (sg) an academic subject; (pl) sound quality: *The acoustics in the Festival Hall are extremely good;*

mathematics (sg) an academic subject; (pl) calculations: *His mathematics are very poor.*

ceramics (sg) the art of making bricks, pots; (pl) articles produced this way.

2.5

Collective nouns fall under the following divisions:

(a) Nouns that are used in the singular and plural: *audience, class, club, committee, company, congregation, council, crew, crowd, family, gang, government, group, jury, mob, staff, team, union, (younger and older) generation, orchestra, Parliament, choir, chorus.*

When such a noun is used in the singular it can be followed by a singular or plural verb. The verb is singular and the noun can combine with the relative pronouns **which/that** and can be replaced by **it** when the members of the group denoted by the noun are thought of as a single unit, in an impersonal fashion, i.e. as a whole group:

> The present *government*, *which hasn't been* in power long, *is trying* to control inflation. *It* isn't having much success.

The verb is plural and the noun can combine with the relative pronoun **who** and be replaced by **they** or **them** when the members of the group denoted by the noun are thought of in a more personal way, i.e. as a number of individuals that make up the group:

> The *government*, *who are looking* for a quick victory, *are calling* for a general election soon. *They* expect to be re-elected. A lot of people are giving *them* their support.

(b) Nouns that occur only in the singular, but with either a singular or plural verb: *the proletariat, the majority, the minority, the military, the public, the youth, the infantry, offspring*

The *public* **welcomes / welcome** the decision; Give the *public* what **it wants/ they want**; Her *offspring* **is** like her in every respect (one child); Her *offspring* **are** like her in every respect (more than one child).

(c) 'Singularia tantum,' i.e. nouns that are used only in the singular with a singular verb:*

advice*	health	money	traffic	permission
baggage*	homework*	music*	travel	behaviour
information*	news*	wealth	success	chaos
equipment*	knowledge*	progress	weather	work
furniture*	luggage*	research*	linen	scenery
hair*	machinery*	shopping	accommodation (BrE)	evidence

The *money* they are getting for the finished article **is** more than ever.

(d) 'Pluralia tantum,' i.e. nouns that occur only in the plural with a plural verb:**

arms**	effects**	outskirts	brains**	troops**
belongings	means**	particulars	riches	wages
clothes	funds**	premises**	quarters**	tropics**
congratulations	goods	regards**	stalls**	greens**
contents	looks**	remains	stairs**	grounds**
customs**	odds (in betting)	savings**	surroundings	
earnings	papers**	spirits**	thanks	

'Pair' nouns, referring to things consisting of two equal parts have no singular form and must be preceded by 'a pair of' to emphasize countability. They are also included into the pluralia tantum words: *trousers, glasses, jeans, binoculars, knickers, leggings, pants, pyjamas* (AmE *pajamas*), *scissors, shorts, spectacles, tights, tweezers, scales, shears, tongs, pincers, pliers***.*

(e) Nouns that occur only in the singular, but with a plural verb. They are called **multitude nouns**. The most important are: *cattle, people, police, poultry, vermin, livestock, clergy, gentry.*

Extra *police* are needed here.

Notes:

[a] The plural form of the verb with the nouns in section (a) is more widespread in British English than in American English.

[b] Some proper nouns (e.g. football teams, national proper nouns referring to a sportsteam) can be used as collectives, similarly to those treated above:
Germany *have/has* beaten England.
Arsenal *are/is* playing away on Saturday.

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* You can use expressions such as 'a piece of,' 'a bit of,' or 'an item of' with the words marked with an asterisk* in the above list, to refer to one individual thing.

** Those marked with ** can be used in the singular, but the meaning is different; for example, 'arms' are weapons, but 'an arm' is a part of the body; 'means' – [pl tantum] the money that a person has: People should pay according to their means, but 'means' [count] (pl. means)– an action, an object or a system by which a result is achieved; a way of achieving or doing sth: Have you any means of identification?

*** Some of the pluralia tantum nouns can have a singular form when used in compounds: pyjama top, trouser leg.

[c] National names in the plural (e.g. the Bahamas, the United States, the Netherlands) behave like collective nouns treated either discretely or non-discretely:

The Philippines *has* its problems like any other country.

The Philippines *consist* of a group of very beautiful islands.

[d] The noun **people** may be singular and plural when it means "nation, tribe, race": *The Scots are a proud people*; *the English-speaking peoples*. When it is used as subject it takes a singular verb: *A brave and intelligent people lives here.* **Folk** in the sense of 'people, persons' is normally used without 's' in BrE (*Some folk just don't know how to behave*) whereas AmE prefers 'folks', which in BrE normally is reserved for familiar address and the sense 'family, parents' (*I'd like you to meet my folks*).

2.6. Number

The English number system comprises **singular**, which denotes "one", and **plural**, which denotes "more than one". Count nouns have two numbers: they are always either singular or plural. The **singular** form is a stem of the noun with a zero inflection (*book, pen, bush*). The **plural** of most count nouns is formed by adding an inflection -**s** or -**es** to the stem (*books, pens, bushes*). This rule applies to all newly coined nouns, such as *discotheque* - ['diskqtek] - *discotheques* ['diskqteks].

2.7. Regular plurals

Pronunciation

The plural ending -**s** is read [s] if the stem ends in a voiceless consonant (*books, lips*).

The plural ending -**s** is read [z] if the stem ends in a vowel (*keys*) or a voiced consonant (*bells*).

If the stem ends in a sibilant the inflection -**es** read as [iz] is added (*matches, brushes, buses, boxes*).

Spelling

Nouns ending in -**o** preceded by a consonant take -**es** in the plural: **hero - heroes, potato - potatoes, Negro - Negroes, torpedo - torpedoes.**

If a noun ends in -**o** preceded by a vowel (*cuckoo, video, radio*) or it is an abbreviation (*photo, kilo, disco*), or a musical term of Italian origin (*piano, concerto, solo*) or a proper noun ending in –**o** (*Eskimo, Filipino*), only -**s** is added: **cuckoos, radios, photos, discos, pianos, solos, Filipinos.**

The following nouns have plurals in -**s** and -**es**: **archipelago** [,a:ki'peligou], **flamingo, volcano, buffalo, cargo, halo, mosquito, tornado, motto, grotto, zero.**

If the final letter of the stem is **-y** preceded by a consonant the **-y** is replaced by **-i** and the ending **-es** is added (*story - stories*), otherwise the **-y** remains unchanged and **-s** is added (*boy - boys*).

There are a few instances where the **'s** is commonly used to form a plural:

(a) after letters

Watch your p's and q's.

(b) after abbreviations and years occasionally since the addition of **–s** is their normal means of plurality (e.g. VPs or VP's, MPs or MP's, the 1890s or 1890's).

2.8. Irregular plurals

Irregular in pronunciation only

The following plurals are regular in spelling, but in pronunciation the final consonant of the stem that is voiceless in the singular becomes voiced in the plural:

(a) nouns ending in **-th**, e.g. *bath* [ba:T] - *baths* [ba:Dz]. The same applies to *mouth, oath, path, youth, wreath* [ri:T].

(b) The voiceless [s] in *house* becomes [z] in the plural: ['hauziz].

Irregular in both pronunciation and spelling

The following nouns ending in the singular in [f], spelled **-f(e)**, end in the plural in [vz], spelled **-ves**:

calf	calves	loaf	loaves
half	halves	shelf	shelves
knife	knives	thief	thieves
leaf	leaves	wife	wives
life	lives	wolf	wolves

Note:

[a] The nouns *dwarf, handkerchief, hoof, scarf, wharf* have both regular and voiced plurals.

[b] The painting term *still life* has a regular plural: *still lifes*.

2.9

The following old plural forms have survived into Modern English:

(a) mutated plurals (vowel change in the plural):

foot	*feet*	*man*	*men*	*woman*	*women*
tooth	*teeth*	*mouse*	*mice*	*cow*	*kine*
goose	*geese*	*louse*	*lice*		*(archaic)*

(b) plurals in **-en:**

ox - oxen

child - children (with vowel change [ai] - [i] and "r" survived from Old English)

brother - brethren (with vowel change), used to refer to fellow members of the same society

(c) collective plurals:

die - dice (used to denote gambling cubes),

e.g. to play dice

penny - pence (combined with numbers),

e.g. twopence ['tApqns], sixpence

(d) zero plurals (plural forms homonymous with the singular): *sheep*, *deer*.

A few dirty *sheep* wandered in vain hope of pasture; These *deer* are very beautiful.

Zero plurals of later development

2.10. Plural of animal names

Animal names often have a zero plural. Apart from the above mentioned *sheep* and *deer*, the names of certain other animals, birds and fish, namely *moose, grouse, pike, plaice, mackerel, hake, cod, salmon* ['sxmqn], *trout* have only zero plurals. The nouns *antelope, reindeer, fish, herring* have both regular and zero plurals. The noun *shark* has a regular plural: *sharks*.

2.11. Plural of nationality words ending in [z] or [s]

Nouns, meaning "a person or people of that nationality or local group", ending in the sound [z] or [s] do not inflect for the plural, e.g. *Congolese, Portuguese, Burmese, Swiss, Manx*.

A hundred *Vietnamese, Chinese, Japanese*.

2.12. Plural of quantitative nouns

In definite numbers and measurements *hundred, thousand, dozen, gross (=12 dozen), score (=20), stone* (=14 pounds), *head* (of cattle) have zero plurals.

Two *hundred* dollars; Three *thousand* four *hundred* men; I want three *dozen* of these.

The measurement words *foot* and *pound* can take either a plural or a singular form: Kate is five *foot / feet* eight; …that comes to three *pound / pounds* fifty.

2.13 Miscellaneous

Craft (but only with the meaning of "vessel"): The harbour was full of all kinds of *craft*; Terminal gates, taxiways, and ground holding areas were crammed with waiting *aircraft*, many with engines running.

Counsel (but only with the meaning of "legal adviser, barrister")

The Jury had heard *counsel* on both sides.

Means (= "method, way")

We must find a *means* of solving our problem.

There are several *means* of solving our problem.

Series ['siqrJz]

He gave one *series*/two *series* of lectures.

Species ['spJSiz]

Each of them is a separate *species*; They looked different from his own crew; generally older, fatter, and more peaceful; they were other *species* of sailors.

Notes:

[a] *Fish* has two plurals: the zero plural is commoner in contexts of fishing (e.g. The old man had seen many great *fish*), whereas the regular plural is used to denote more than one unit or species (e.g. two *fishes*; one of those *fishes*: the *fishes* of the Atlantic).

[b] The normal plural of *hundred* and other quantitative nouns is found with indefinite numbers (e.g. I've told you that *dozens* of times, *hundreds* of times).

[c] With certain nouns in -(e)s, such as *barracks, bellows, crossroads, gallows, headquarters, innings, kennels, works* (=factory), *shambles*, usage varies; they are sometimes treated as variable nouns with zero plurals.

2.14. Foreign plurals

Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are restricted to specialized uses in scientific context, whereas the **-s** plural is commoner in everyday language; thus **formulas** (general) - **formulae** (in mathematics). Here is a list of some nouns which have foreign plurals:

2.15. Nouns in -**us** (Latin)

The foreign plural is normally - i [ai]:

magus ['melgqs] - magi ['melGai],

meniscus [me'nlskqs] – menisci [me'nlsai]

Alumnus, bacillus, stimulus, fungus, and **locus** have only foreign plurals, whose pronunciation wavers in case of the last too: **fungi** [fAnGai/GI], **loci** ['lousal/kaI], ['lokJ]. The plural of **beatus** is **beati** [bel'RtJ]. **Cactus,**

hippopotamus, papyrus, syllabus, nucleus and **focus** have both regular and irregular plurals (**focus - foci** ['fousal/kJ]). More common nouns take the plural in –*es: chorus, virus, campus*.

Note:

Genius has two plural forms: *geniuses* –in the sense of "highly intelligent person", *genii* – in the meaning of "demon, supernatural being".

2.16. Nouns in -**a** (Latin)

The foreign plural is - **ae**, pronounced [J]: alga ['xlgq] - algae ['xlGJ], alumna – alumnae, larva – larvae, vertebra – vertebrae.
antenna and **formula** have both plurals:
  antenna [xn'tqnq] - antennae [xn'tqnJ], antennas [xn'tqnqz]
  formula ['fLmjulq] -formulae ['fLmjulJ], formulas ['fo:mjulqz]
More common nouns take the plural in –**s**: drama, arena.

2.17. Nouns in -**um** (Latin)

The foreign plural is - **a**, pronounced, [q]: erratum – errata, ovum – ova, addendum – addenda.
bacterium, datum, stratum have only a foreign plural:
  bacterium [bxk'tlqrlqm] - bacteria [bxk'tlqrlq]
  datum ['deltqm] - data ['deltq]
  stratum ['strRtqm] – strata BrE ['strRtq], AE ['streltqm]
curriculum usually has a foreign plural:
  curriculum [kq'rlkjulqm] - curricula [kq'rlkjulq]
aquarium, millennium, medium, memorandum, stadium, symposium have both plurals:
  aquarium – aquaria – aquariums
Most common ones have –**s**: museums

2.18. Nouns in -**ex, -ix** (Latin)

The foreign plural is - **ices**, pronounced [isi:z].
apex, appendix, index, helix, matrix, vortex have both foreign and regular plurals:
  apex ['eipqks] - apices ['elplsJz], apexes ['elpqkslz]
  appendix [q'pendlks] - appendices [q'pendlslz], appendixes [q'pendlkslz]
  index ['lndqks] - indices ['lndlsi:z], indexes ['lndqkslz]
  helix ['hJllks] - helices ['helisJz], helixes ['hi:llksiz]

matrix ['meltriks] – matrices, ['meltrlsJz], matrixes ['meltrlkslz]
vortex ['vLtqks] – vorticex ['vLtlsJz], vortexes ['vLtekslz]
scolex ['skoulqks] has only a foreign plural: scoleces ['skoulisJz]

2.19. Nouns in -**is** (Greek)

The foreign plural is - **es**, pronounced [i:z].
analysis, axis, basis, crisis, diagnosis, hypothesis, oasis, parenthesis, synopsis, thesis belong here:
    e.g. analysis [q'nxlqsls] -analyses [q'nxlqsJz]
         axis ['xksls] -axes ['xksJz]
   but: metropolis – metropolises.

2.20. Nouns in -**on** (Greek)

The foreign plural is - **a**, pronounced [q].
criterion and **phenomenon** belong here:
    criterion [kraI'tlqrIqn] - criteria [kraI'tIqrIq],
    phenomenon [fi'nOmInqn] -phenomena [fi'nOmInq].
    Automaton [L'tOmqtqn] has two plurals: automata [L'tOmqtq], automatons.
   More common ones have –**s**: demons, electrons.

Notes:
    [a] Informally, *criteria* and *phenomena* are sometimes used as singulars.
    [b] The French noun, *corps* [kL] takes a regular [z] in the plural, with no spelling change: *corps* [ko:z].
        Nouns of French origin in –*eu/eau* have a foreign plural ending –*x* [z]: gateau – gateaux, tableau – tableaux. *Plateau, bureau, milieu* have both foreign and regular plurals: *plateau – plateaus, plateaux; bureau – bureaus, bureaux, milieu –milieus, milieux.*
    [c] The compound *mass media* takes the predicate verb in the singular.
    [d] The plural of the foreign compound *aide-de-camp* is *aides-de-camp* whose pronunciation is homonymous with that of the singular.

2.21. The plural of compounds

Compound nouns form the plural in different ways.
(a) compounds consisting of noun elements, take the plural on the head: *boy friend - boy friends; father-in-law – fathers-in-law;* (but *in-laws* in general reference: *Our in-laws are staying with us*);
(b) the inflection **-s** is added to the last element if there is no noun element in a compound: *forget-me-not – forget-me-nots; merry-go-round – merry-go-rounds; breakdown - breakdowns; sit-in - sit-ins*, etc;
(c) plural of both elements is possible if *man* and *woman* in compound nouns refer to the sexes: *manservant - menservants; woman policeman - women policemen.* (But the first element can also be singular). Other compounds with *man* and *woman* form their plurals only in the second component: *man-eater – man-eaters, woman-hater – woman-haters;*
(d) measures in –**ful** can have the –**s** on either element: *spoonfuls/spoonsful.*

Note:

Care should be taken that *German, Norman, Roman, Mussulman* are not compounds but simple roots: Mussulman – Mussulmans.

2.22. The plural of proper nouns

Surnames can occur in the plural when they are used to denote a family: *the Robinsons, the Bowmans, the Berrys, the Joneses.*
Occasionally the first names are pluralized: Maria – Marias/Maria's. If a personal noun is preceded by a title the inflection is added either to the title or to the proper name itself:

the two doctors Thomson	*the two doctor Thomsons*
Messrs ['mesqz] *Brown*	*Mr Browns*
the Misses Smith	*the Miss Smiths*
(of sisters)	(of sisters)

2.23. Case

Case indicates the relation of the noun to the other words in the sentence. There are two cases in Modern English, the **common case** and the **genitive case.**
The **common case** has a zero inflection: *girl, men*. The **genitive case** inflection is –'**s** (apostrophe **s**): *girl's, men's*.
The common case has a very general meaning which manifests itself through various syntactical relations of the noun phrase (subject, object, etc).

The genitive case, sometimes called **possessive**, usually denotes "possession", i.e. ownership or close association: *Mary's bag, the boy's arm, Dick's father, a soldiers' canteen.*

The noun in the genitive can also denote source or authorship. Such instances are known as the **genitive of origin**: *his wife's information, the uncle's decision.*

If the head noun is of verbal origin the noun in the genitive can be the doer of an action. It is the so-called **subjective genitive**: *my brother's arrival ← my brother arrived, Ann's sorrow ← Ann is sorry.* In other cases the noun in the genitive can point out the object of an action. It is the so-called **objective genitive**: *the murderer's arrest ← the arrest of the murderer, the boy's release ← the release of the boy.*

In all the above cases the genitive denotes a particular person or thing. It may be called a **specifying genitive** distinct from a **classifying genitive** whose meaning is descriptive. The **classifying genitive** refers to a whole class of similar objects: *a wife's duty, gents' clothes, a teachers' conference, a mile's distance.* The indefinite article is common here even if the head noun is plural: *a cat's eyes.*

2.24. The genitive inflection

The –**'s** inflection takes the forms [iz], [z], [s], following the rules for the -(**e)s** inflection of the plural[*]: *waitress's* ['weitrisiz], *girl's* ['gɑ:lz], *Nat's* [nxts].

There is no plural genitive ending in speech for nouns whose plurals are formed in the regular way. In writing, an apostrophe is put after the plural -**s**: *waitresses', girls'.* Such instances are called **zero genitives**.

For nouns with irregular plurals, the plural genitive is formed by the addition of -**'s** to the plural form: *women's, children's.*

The genitive of nouns whose singular ends in **s** or **x** may be regular in spelling and pronunciation: *James's* ['Geimziz], *Alex's* ['xleksiz].

Notes:

[a] Compounds take the genitive inflection at the end: e.g. *the babysitter's duties, a passer-by's glance.*

[b] The genitive of plural compounds is built after the following patterns: *Woman-haters' beliefs, man-eaters' behaviour, a menservants' strike, the editors-in-chief's conference, lookers-on's remarks.*

[c] The **zero** genitive occurs (i) occasionally with names ending in [z] or [s]: e.g. *Burns'* [bɑ:nz] *verses, Dickens'* ['dikinz] *novels, Keats'* [ki:ts] *poetry;* (ii) in set expressions of the form "*for ... sake*", as in "*for convenience'* ['kɑn'vi:njqns] *sake", "for goodness'* ['gudnis] *sake".*

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[*] For reading rules of the plural inflection, see 2.7.

2.25. Nouns used in the genitive

The genitive case is mainly used with proper and common nouns denoting human beings and animals: *Peter's answer, the worker's wages, the horse's track.*

The -'**s** inflection is also used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns:
- geographical names, denoting continents, countries, states, cities: *Europe's future, England's interests, London's water supply;*
- locative nouns, denoting regions, institutions, etc: *the world's recognition, the river's bank, the school's history;*
- temporal nouns and nouns denoting measure: *a day's work, a mile's walk*;
- nouns denoting means of transportation and their parts: *the ship's surgeon, the speedometer's needle;*
- nouns, denoting social, political and economic phenomena, and other nouns of special interest to human activity: *television's popularity, the Soviet hockey's fame, the book's true importance, a word's function.*

Some inanimate nouns are used with the –'**s** inflection in set expressions: *for appearance's sake, at one's wits' end, at arm's length, at a stone's throw, within a hair's breadth of something, to one's heart's content, at a foot's pace*, etc.

Note:

When we refer to material which is produced or made by a living animal '**s** is generally required: a bird's nest, cow's milk, lamb's wool. Where the source of a material is an animal that has been slaughtered, 's is not generally used: beef broth, cow hide, a ham sandwich, sheep skin.

2.26. The genitive and the "of"-phrase

When we put nouns together in a sentence, it is not easy to choose the right construction. There are three common patterns which are easy to confuse: N 's N, N of N, N N (*government's decision, the decision of the government, the government decision*).

The choice between the genitive case (*the youngest children's toys, the ship's name*) and the *of*-phrase (*the toys of the youngest children, the name of the ship)* is governed by certain factors.

Animate nouns, particularly nouns denoting persons, commonly inflect for the genitive. With proper names the Genitive is the rule: *Mary's dress*, but not *the dress of Mary*. An *of*-phrase with personal nouns becomes acceptable when they have modification: *the portrait of the old lady, the toys of the youngest children.*

The *of*-phrase is the usual construction with inanimate nouns (*the borders of the drive, the smell of roses*), but, as has been noted, a great many occur in the genitive case: *Italy's progress, the city's traffic problems, this week's events,* etc.

However, such inanimate nouns permit an *of*-phrase: *the progress of Italy, the traffic problems of the city, the events of this week*, etc. Although either is possible in a given context, one of them is generally preferred by native speakers for reasons of rhythm, emphasis, or implied relations between the nouns.

2.27. The genitive plus noun and noun plus noun structures

In many instances the noun in the genitive can be easily confused with the noun modifying another noun. Compare:

my father's house	a book case
the government's decision	an oil well
a child's bicycle	a garden chair

The main factor influencing the choice of the structure is the relationship between the first and the second nouns in the phrases. When the genitive is used the first word is usually rather like the subject of a sentence, and the second word is like a predicate or object:

my father's house (= my father has a house)
the government's decision (= the government decided)
a child's bicycle (= a child rides this kind of bicycle)

When we use the noun plus noun structure, the relationship is usually completely different. Generally, the second word is more like a subject, and the first is like an object or adverbial modifier:

a book case (= a case that holds books)
an oil well (= a well that produces oil)
a garden chair (= a chair in or for the garden)

There is another difference between the two structures. Compare these two sentences:

Please don't put the *dog's* food under the kitchen table, Lucy.
Dog food costs nearly as much as steak.

The genitive structure is used when the first noun is a particular individual. But in case of the noun plus noun structure the first noun usually refers to a whole class.

2.28. The group genitive

The –'**s** inflection may be added not only to a single noun but to a whole group of nouns. This group genitive is used with coordinate noun phrases: *Lucy and Dick's aunt, a mile and a half's distance, a month or so's vacation*, as well as with postmodified noun phrases: *the teacher of music's room, the Duke of York's theatre, someone else's report, Charles the Second's time, the shop across the road's sale.*

Your honour is more important than *somebody else's life*;
J.B.Priestley went on to *four and a half years' service* with *the
Duke of Wellington's Regiment*.

There are some idiomatic patterns with the group genitive:

It's *Mr. What's-his-name's* remark. *Old man what-do-you-call-
him's* house has been painted. He said it in *plenty of people's*
hearing.

Note:

The **–'s** inflection is added to each element of the coordinated phrase if the
thing(s) denoted by the headnoun is (are) not jointly owned: e.g. Jan's and
Nick's flats (= one is Jan's, and the other is Nick's); Shakespeare's and
Marlowe's plays(= some are Shakespeare's and some are Marlowe's).

2.29. The absolute genitive

The **absolute (independent) genitive** is found in such cases when the head
of a phrase is omitted: *at the butcher's, at St. Paul's*.

The absolute genitive is used:

(a) to avoid repetition of the head word: e.g. Suddenly a pair of eyes met
Carrie's in recognition.

(b) to attach prominence to the idea: e.g. *Lily's* was a happy marriage.

(c) to denote firms and institutions, hospitals, shops, restaurants and churches:
e.g. Donald was their son, who was now in the Sixth form at *St Bride's*; At
Rector's, Drouet had met Mr. G.W. Hurstwood, manager of *Fitzgerald and
Moy's*; The *baker's* was next; They were married at St.Paul's.

(d) to refer to people's houses when talking about the host-guest relationship:
e.g. Roger was down at *the Watsons'* last night.

The genitives with ellipsis marked by (c) and (d) may be called **local**.

2.30. The construction N$_1$ of N$_2$'s

An *of*-phrase can be combined with the genitive in a construction
traditionally called the "**double**" genitive (N$_1$ of N$_2$'s). It may have the meaning
of "one of many" (the so-called **partitive** genitive): Gingee used to wear *an old
coat of Ted's*.

A "double" genitive makes it possible for the speaker to use as
a premodifier such demonstratives as "this/these, that/those":

This visit of Muriel's drew them temporarily together;

And *that old failure of Stephen Condon's* had somehow linked itself in his
mind with his own.

In colloquial use a "double" genitive may express disapproval and irony:
e.g. That's *another big idea of Dad's*.

Notes:

[a] In the "double" genitive construction the noun with –'s must be both definite and personal:

an opera of *Verdi's;*   an opera of *my friend's*

but not:

*a sonata of *a violinist's;*   *a funnel of the *ship's*

[b] The definite article cannot begin a "double" genitive construction: *the trick of my children's. An *of*-phrase is used instead: e.g. And, to *the intense delight of Stanley*, one hand fell heavily on the hat.

[c] *Of*-phrases often occur along with the "double" genitives: e.g. Miss Handforth was Mr Demoyte's housekeeper, *an old enemy of Nan.*

2.31. Genitive governing another genitive

The relations rendered in Russian by a genitive governing another genitive (слова отца моего друга, дом Петиного дяди) are usually expressed in English by a phrase built after the pattern N_1 of N_2's N_3: *the words of my friend's father, the house of Pete's uncle*, though the structures N_2's N_3's N_1 are also possible:

Some of *Mrs. Franklin's family's friends* used to put up there; Billy went back to Belfast to work in his *uncle's grocer's shop* for a while.

2.32. Determiners

Determiners are words which appear in the article position (the article included). They comprise articles, the demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that**, possessive pronouns (in the conjoint form) and the indefinite pronouns **some, any, no, each, either, neither, much**; interrogative and conjunctive pronouns **what, which**.

2.33. The article

The article is a structural element of the phrase which specifies the noun. There are two articles in English: the definite article **the** and the indefinite article **a(n)**. The absence of the article before a noun (unless the required article is omitted for the sake of economy or some other reason) is meaningful and is also a means of specifying it.

When a common noun is specified by the **definite** article it has definite reference, i.e. the object or group of objects denoted by the noun is regarded as definite, distinct from other objects of the same class.

When a common noun is specified by the indefinite article or no article precedes the noun, it has indefinite reference, i.e. the object or group of objects

denoted by the noun is not regarded as definite, distinct from other objects of the same class.

Thus, with common nouns, the definite article is opposed to both the indefinite article and the absence of the article.

Proper nouns differ from common nouns in the type of reference. A proper noun, being the name of a person, animate or inanimate object considered to be unique, is understood to have unique reference, or at least unique reference in context. Therefore proper names usually do not need the article or any other determiner.

On the other hand, sometimes proper nouns act as common nouns and can take both the definite and the indefinite article.

Thus, with proper names, the absence of the article is opposed to its use.
It should be mentioned, however, that the definite article may also be used as part of a proper name (e.g. *the* Crimea)[*].

2.34 The indefinite article and the absence of the article with common nouns (indefinite reference)

The indefinite article goes back to the Old English numeral **ān** (Modern English **one**). Its original numerical meaning of oneness is clearly felt in such expressions as "Not *a* word was said", "*A* stitch in time saves nine", etc. Due to this numerical meaning the indefinite article is confined to countable nouns in the singular (or uncountables used as countables in the singular).

The indefinite article used with a countable noun in the singular indicates that the object denoted by the noun is one of a class without defining its place in the class. This function of the indefinite article may be called **classifying**.

He hung his coat on *a peg*; He was given *a prize*.

Nouns having indefinite reference are often modified by a descriptive attribute. A descriptive attribute describes the person or thing denoted by the noun by giving additional information about it. This information only narrows the class to which the object belongs:

> Pegotty had *a basket* of refreshments on her knee; She put on *a hat* and a heavy *coat* because it was still cold at night.

The function of the indefinite article with countable nouns can be **generic**, i.e. a common countable noun serves as a representative of a class.

> *A cat* is a small domestic animal.

With indefinite reference, countable nouns in the plural and uncountable nouns do not take the article. The absence of the article before a countable noun in the plural is parallel to the use of the indefinite article with a countable noun in the singular. Compare the following example sentences with those above:

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[*] The list of proper names using the definite article as their part is provided at the end of the section.

They put on *hats* and heavy *coats* because it was still cold in the night; *Cats* are small domestic animals.

The absence of the article with uncountable nouns usually has **generalizing** force. A number of uncountable abstract nouns are never used with the indefinite article. Here belong **advice, assistance, admiration, guidance, health, concern, fun, information, nature, news, luck, permission, progress, recognition, research, torture, weather.**

No news is good *news* (proverb); You should take legal *advice*: Apply for *information* to the administration; He is making *progress* in his maths; He stays indoors in wet *weather*.

The same rule applies also to such collective nouns as **linen, leafage, foliage, crockery, pottery**, etc, which are always used as uncountables.

Many nouns may be used both as countable and uncountable nouns. Compare:

Uncountables		Countables	
work	работа	**a work**	произведение
silence	тишина	**a silence**	пауза
decision	решительность	**a decision**	решение
kindness	доброта	**a kindness**	доброе дело

A number of uncountable abstract nouns become countable and can be used with the indefinite article when they are modified by a descriptive attribute which brings out a special aspect of the notion expressed by the noun.

His love gave him a wonderful *happiness*; What he said had a *hateful* truth in it; His staring at David now had a *desperate* concentration, almost a clinging.

This function of the indefinite article may be called **aspective.** The aspective function of the indefinite article is also evident when it is used with nouns denoting objects considered to be unique which usually require the definite article.

He had never seen *so red a moon*; It was a cold morning, a *grey sky* shifting in cold wind.

There are several semantic groups of nouns (abstract and concrete) which are regularly used both as countables and uncountables.

<u>Names of meals</u>

Used as uncountables, names of meals take no article.

It's time for *dinner*; They were at *lunch* when I called.

They become countable and are used with the indefinite article when they denote:

(a) a certain quantity or portion:

Have a good *breakfast*; Are you going to buy me a *dinner*?

(b) official meals (dinner-parties, banquets):

Shall we give *a dinner* for her?

Names of material
Used as uncountables they take no article:
> I like to drink *champagne* from magnums.

They are used as countables and take the indefinite article when they denote:

(a) a portion of food or drink:
> If you want to please the boy, buy him *an ice*; Make it two coffees. And *a salad* for me.

(b) a kind of the substance:
> This is *a very good butter*; It is *a very rare wine*.

(c) an object made of a certain material:
> The fever within her was like *a red-hot iron* pressing upon her breast; She then proceeded to fill *a glass* with water...

The nouns **school, college, hospital, court, church, prison, town, market, bed, table** used as abstract nouns indicating the state or activities associated with these places take no article:
> He left *school* to earn his living; He was taken to *hospital*; The prisoner was brought to *court* for trial; He is out of *town* just now; The boy was in *bed* by ten; They were at *table* when we called.

Used as concrete nouns indicating concrete objects, they are countable and may take the indefinite article:
> It was *a college* as he could see by the gateway; "Mine is not *a nice school*", he said suddenly; "Would you rather live in *a town* or in the country?"

Nouns denoting parts of the day used in a general abstract sense are uncountable and take no article. This is usually the case

(a) when they are used as predicatives
> It was *midnight*.

(b) when they are used as subjects to the verbs "break, be at hand, fall, gather, set in, come":
> *Day* was beginning to break; *Night* of extraordinary beauty fell; *Night* came slowly on.

(c) when they are modified by the adjectives "early, late, broad, high":
> I like ear̲ly̲ *morning* - especially in spring; It was lat̲e̲ *night* when Lan arrived; It was hig̲h̲ *noon*.

(d) when they are modified by the names of the days of the week and by the words "tomorrow" and "yesterday":
> He spoke to Lin on the telephone on Fr̲iday̲ *evening;* I shall see him to̲morrow̲ *morning*.

(e) when they are used in prepositional phrases with the prepositions "at, by, about, past, before, towards, till, until": Paul didn't come t̲il̲l *afternoon;* The post leaves a̲t̲ *midday*; We travelled b̲y̲ *day* and stayed at hotel every night.

Names of parts of the day are treated as countables and take the indefinite article when they are modified by a descriptive attribute /with the exception of the attributes mentioned in (c) /:

It was a wild stormy *night* on the West Coast of Scotland; She had a bad *night*; What a still, hot perfect *day*!; It was a rainy *evening*.

There are also cases when no article is used with nouns which are always treated only as countables.

(1) Nouns denoting rank, title, post used predicatively do not take the article.

A noun used as a predicative may be

  (a)   part of a compound nominal predicate:

He was *president* for two terms.

  (b)   objective predicative:

They chose him *chairman* of the society.

  (c)   subjective predicative:

He was chosen *chairman* of the society.

Nouns denoting rank, title, post also take no article when they are used in apposition[*]:

I've just seen *professor* Grant; Mr. Merwin, *president* of the club, will be in the chair.

(2) Nouns in direct address are always used without the article:

What's the trouble, *boy*?

(3) The nouns **man** and **woman** take no article when they are used generically:

Woman is not inferior to *man*.

(4) A considerable number of nouns of different character take no article when used in adverbial prepositional phrases: *by train, by bus, at sea, at hand, on deck, etc:*

Shall we walk or go *by bus*?; The examinations are *at hand*.

(5) No article is used in parallel phrases:

They walked *arm* in *arm/hand* in *hand*; They are *husband* and *wife*.

(6) Nouns indicating relationship, such as **father, mother, sister, aunt**, etc, take no article when they are used by the members of the family or intimate friends:

Is *Father* like him?

(7) No article is used when a noun is followed by a cardinal numeral:

Open your books at *page 15*.

2.35 The definite article with common nouns (definite reference)

Unlike the indefinite article which combines only with singular countables, the definite article may be used with any common noun in the singular and in

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[*] Note the following exceptions: the *Emperor* Claudius, the *Tsar* Ivan the Terrible.

the plural. It is used with common nouns to express definite reference. Its function may be called **individualizing**, since the definite article shows that the object or group of objects denoted by the noun is marked as a particular object or group, distinct from other objects of the same class.

A common noun has definite reference in the following cases:

(a) when it is mentioned for a second time (provided the noun is not the center of communication):

> The road plunged down, steep and straight, into *a* considerable *valley*. There, on the opposite slope, a little higher up *the valley*, stood Crome, his destination. (A. Huxley)

(b) when it has a limiting attribute, which singles out the object denoted by the noun from other objects of the same class. The limiting attribute may be expressed by a noun with a preposition, a participle phrase, a subordinate attributive clause:

> Her face had *the hardness* of a face on a coin; It was *the morning* appointed for Richard's departure; She is not *the girl* she was at all.

It may also be expressed by an adjective when contrast or choice is implied:

> Let us take *the* narrow *path*, (not *the* wide *one*).

Some adjectives and adjectivized participles are nearly always used as limiting attributes, e.g. *right, wrong, left, same, only, coming, following, present, former, latter, principal, central*:

> What's *the* right *time*?; In Great Britain traffic keeps to *the* left, not to the right, *side* on the road; He was *the* only *child* of Professor Brown. But: We took *a wrong turning*; She's *an only child* in the family.

(c) by reason of locality it can represent only one particular object or group of objects. In other words, when a given noun is used with reference to objects that surround the speaker or the people and things described by him:

> Please, pass me *the sugar* (i.e. the sugar which is on the table); She stood at *the window*; *The tree* swayed to and fro under the sky.

(d) when it denotes objects and notions considered to be unique: **the sun, the moon, the earth, the ground, the south, the north, the east, the west, the horizon**, etc:

> *The sun* sank below *the horizon*.

(e) when it denotes an institution shared by the community: **the radio, the telephone, the press**, etc:

> Then he heard the sound of *the phone* being dialed, and Richard's voice.

However, when the nouns *radio* and *telephone* have indefinite reference and denote concrete objects, the indefinite article is used.

> Somewhere *a radio* softly played.

The definite article may have a **generic** function. The definite article in this function shows that the noun is used generically, i.e. it represents a whole class. A certain class is contrasted here to other classes:

> *The verb* is a part of speech denoting an action; *The tiger* is a big cat-like animal.

The generic article is also found with collective nouns in the singular and plural expressing political and social notions: **the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the proletariat, the public, the peasants, the workers:**

> *The bourgeoisie* displaced the old feudal *nobility*; The true history of capitalist society can only be written by *the proletariat*; *The Tories* will not lift a finger to help *the workers*.

Note, however, that the definite article in the generic function is used with nouns in the plural only when the idea of collectivity is definitely emphasised. When separate representatives are meant, no article is used:

> *Italians* are often good singers.

The same generic function of the definite article is found with partially substantivized adjectives and participle I forms:

> Tenderness to *the young* was perhaps the most sacred article of his belief; *The rich* were my enemies, I felt; Geibel and his daughter were again among *the invited*: I had feared to find him among *the suffering* but he appeared to be one of the enjoying every minute of it.

Substantivized adjectives denoting names of some nationalities also belong here:

> *The English* and *the French* were in arms against each other.

2.36 The absence of the article with proper nouns (unique reference)

As was already mentioned proper nouns usually do not require any determiner because they are characterised by unique reference or at least unique reference in context. Generally no article is used

(a) with names of persons (in the singular):

> *Denis* woke up the next morning to find the sun shining, the sky serene.

(b) with names of continents, countries, states or provinces, cities, towns and villages:

> The indigenous population of *Africa* may roughly be divided into four groups, by race and language; Administratively *France* is highly centralised; When he had been in *Montana* for less than a month and things were going very poorly indeed, he stumbled on his great discovery; In the heart of *England*, about 112 miles north-west of *London*, is *Birmingham*, a city of over a million inhabitants; *Willow End* was a green and placid place hidden away among dim grey meadows.

(c) with names of lakes when they are preceded by the noun **lake**:

Lake Nyasa and *Lake Tanganyika* are in the African part of the Great Rift Valley.

(d) with names of peninsulas when the proper name is used alone:
Indo-China is sometimes called Further India.

(e) with names of seasons, months and the days of the week:
Spring went swiftly by and *summer* came; In regard to coming of a grandchild, Soames knew no more than in *October*; On *Sunday* Clifford wanted to go into the wood.

(f) with names of buildings and bridges:
Buckingham Palace, Westminster Abbey, Westminster Bridge; but: *the White House, the Tower, the Tower Bridge.*

(g) with names of streets, squares and parks:
Broadway, Wall Street, Fifth Avenue, Fleet Street, Piccadilly, Trafalgar Square, Central Park.

2.37. The indefinite article and the definite article with proper names (non-unique reference)

Sometimes proper names are treated as common nouns. In this case their reference is no longer unique; they may be used in the plural and take the article. The indefinite article is used

(a) with personal names to indicate that one member of the family is meant:
Of course he was a *Forsyte*!

(b) with a personal name (usually preceded by 'Mr, Mrs' or 'Miss') to denote 'a certain person named':
He made me write to *a Mr. Jackson*, of some theatre or other.

(c) with names of seasons, months and days when they have a descriptive attribute:
It was a bitter cold *winter*, with long, hard frosts and heavy gales; April advanced to May, a bright serene *May* it was. (Ch. Bronte); It was a sparkling, cold *Saturday* in March.

The definite article is used

(a) when a personal name in the plural indicates the whole family:
About *the Forsytes* mingling that day with the crowd of other guests, there was a more than ordinarily groomed look.

(b) when a proper name is modified by a limiting attribute:
The Lucia of seven years ago seemed to bloom out again in that pale face and wrinkled forehead; In *the spring* of the year 1881 he was visiting his old school-fellow; It was *the Saturday* before the August Bank Holiday; Had she not often heard Michael say that farming was more of a man's job than another in *the England* of today?

Both the definite article and the indefinite article may be used

(a) with personal names modified by a descriptive attribute (with the exception of such attributes as 'young, old, poor, dear, little').

The indefinite article is used when the name with an attribute is the center of communication in the sentence; otherwise the definite article is used:

> In the principal morning paper there were four pictures of MacGregor on the front page. One picture showed an <u>unshaven</u> *MacGregor* entering the room; *The* <u>startled</u> *Jolyon* set down his barley water.

When a personal name is modified by the adjectives 'old, young, poor, dear, little', no article is used:

> Little *John* sat down on the bottom step and nodded.

(b) when the name of a painter, sculptor, writer is used to denote his work. The article with such nouns is used in accordance with the general rules for common countable nouns:

> He went to his picture gallery and unhooked from the wall a little *Watteau*. (J. Galsworthy); Once in cleaning the closet she threw out all his books - the Apologie and the Phaedo of Plato and *the Thoreau* and *the Emerson* and all the leaflets and correspondence with Rosecrucian Brotherhood. (S. Fitzgerald)

(c) when a personal name is used to mean 'someone having characteristics of the person named'. Just as in the previous case, the choice of the article is based on the general rules of its usage with common countable nouns:

> 'I do not, I trust, disturb *an Ophelia',* said Poirot as he took his seat beside her. (A. Christie); Mozart was called *the Rafael* of music.

2.38 Traditional use of the definite article as part of a name

Traditionally, the definite article is used with the names of

(a) oceans, seas, rivers, channels, canals and lakes (in the latter case when the proper name is used alone): **the Pacific (ocean)**, **the Mediterranian** (sea), **the Volga, the English Channel, the Suez Canal, the Baikal,** etc. But: **lake Baikal**.

(b) mountain ranges and passes: **the Alps, the Rocky Mountains, the Pamirs, the Saint Gotthard Pass**, etc.

(c) some countries and territories: **the USSR, the CIS, the USA, the Netherlands, the Transvaal, the Caucasus, the Ruhr, the Riviera, the Tyrol, the Crimea, (the) Lebanon;**

(d) some towns and town districts: **the Hague, the Bronx, the City, the West End, the East End** (of London);

(e) some streets: **the Main Street (USA); the High Street, the Mall, the Strand, the Haymarket.** But: **Broad Street, Chancery Lane, Charing Cross; Fifth Avenue (USA);**

(f) historical events and epochs: **the Renaissance, the Middle Ages, the Revolution;**

(g) organisations and institutions: **the UNO, the London County Council, the Old Bailey, the Conservative party, the House of Commons, the British Parliament**. But: **Parliament** (Britain);

(h) newspapers: **the Daily Express, the New York Times, the Daily Mail, the Observer, the Sunday Times, the Guardian.** But: **Daily Mail, Chicago Tribune and foreign newspapers: Le Monde, Der Spiegel, Izvestia**;

(i) some magazines and journals: **the Spectator, the New Statesman**. But: **Newsweek, New Scientist, Punch, National Geographic, Language**;

(j) names of ships and boats: **the Titanic, the Queen Mary**;

(k) names of theatres, cinemas, concert halls: **the Old Vic, the Carnegie Hall, the Albert Hall, the Odeon**. But: **Drury Lane, Covent Garden**.

(l) names of monuments: **the Washington Monument, the Lincoln Monument;**

(m) hotels and restaurants: **the Grand** (hotel), **the Hilton, the Savoy**;

(n) museums, picture galleries, libraries: **the British Museum, the National Gallery, the Louvre, the Library of Congress;**

(o) clubs: **the Connoisseurs, the Remove**.

2.39 Demonstrative pronouns

	Singular	Plural
Near reference	THIS	THESE
Far reference	THAT	THOSE

THIS has 'near reference', i.e. it refers to something near to the speaker in terms of space or time:

Do you see *this* newspaper in my hand?; Everyone is so busy *these* days.

THAT has 'far reference', i.e. it refers to something remote from the speaker in terms of space or time:

Do you see *that* tower?; In *those* days life was enjoyable.

Sometimes demonstratives express emotional colouring (affection, contempt, disgust). **THIS/THESE** are often used to connote interest and familiarity in informal conversation:

Then I saw in the distance *this* lovely girl, and ... .

THAT/THOSE can be used to imply contempt, disgust and other types of emotional rejection:

He is one of *those* so called modern artists.

2.40 Possessive pronouns (conjoint forms)

There are two series of forms of possessive pronouns: conjoint and absolute. The **conjoint** forms (*my, your*, etc) are followed by a noun, the **absolute** forms (*mine, yours*, etc) can not be followed by a noun. Conjoint forms are used as determiners whereas absolute forms are used as substitutes (see 2.46 f).

Possessive pronouns have person, number and gender distinctions (gender applies only to the third person singular).

		Singular	Plural
1st pers		MY	OUR
2nd pers		YOUR (thy)	YOUR
3rd pers	(m)	HIS	THEIR
	(f)	HER	THEIR
	(n)	ITS	THEIR

As seen from the table the form of the second person singular is homonymous to the plural form. The bracketed form **thy** [ðai] is now felt as archaic and is used mainly in poetry and historical prose.

Unlike many other languages, including Russian, English uses possessives with nouns denoting parts of the body and personal belongings of the doer of the action:

He came in with *his* hair all ruffled and *his* face hot, and *his* hands in *his* trouser pockets, in the way he was repeatedly told not to. (H.Weils)

The definite article is, however, usual when the 'owner' is not the doer of the action expressed by the predicate. There are two main possibilities:

(a) In active constructions the definite article is used in prepositional phrases preceded by a non-prepositional object which denotes the 'owner'.

The <u>author</u> took the <u>actress</u> by *the hand* and led her across the stage to the footlights.

In this example **the** is used in the prepositional phrase 'by the hand', whereas the 'owner' is expressed by the non-prepositional object 'the actress'.

(b) In passive constructions the 'owner' is denoted by the grammatical subject. Just as in the previous case the definite article is used with a name making part of a prepositional phrase.

<u>He</u> was wounded in *the knee*.

In the second example the subject 'he' indicates the owner of the part of the body denoted by the noun 'knee'.

2.41 Indefinite pronouns used as determiners

Indefinite pronouns used as determiners include *some, any, every, each, either, neither, much, no.*

SOME and ANY

Some and **any** mean either 'a certain quantity' or 'a certain quality'. Used in the first meaning they combine with uncountable nouns and plural forms of countable nouns:

He gave you *some* money, didn't he?; Have you *any* sugar?; Are there *any* stamps in that drawer?; Please, buy me *some* stamps.

In the second meaning they may also be used with countable nouns in the singular:

Some man wants to speak to you; Take *any* book you like.

Some is mainly used in affirmative sentences. When used before numerals and the postdeterminer **few** it means 'about' or 'approximately':

It happened *some* <u>twenty</u> years ago; I waited *some* few minutes.

Sometimes, modifying predicatives, the stressed **some** acquires the meaning of 'very good' or 'extraordinary':

It's *'some* cake!; He's *'some* doctor!

Some can be used in interrogative sentences when the question is in fact an invitation or request:

Would you like *some* tea?

Some is also used in interrogative constructions when the answer 'Yes' is expected:

Didn't he give you *some* money?

When **any** means 'a certain quantity' it is mainly used in interrogative and negative sentences:

Have we got *any* tea?; He didn't ask me *any* questions.

Any is regularly used in affirmative sentences in adverbial clauses of condition:

If you have *any* letters, post them now.

Any is also used with such words having negative meaning as 'without, hardly, scarcely, seldom, fail, prevent', etc:

They understood each other <u>without</u> *any* words.

There is <u>hardly</u> *any* place in this house where we can talk alone.

In most cases **any**, like **some**, is unstressed, however when **any** has the meaning 'no matter which' it bears the stress:

You will find me at my desk at *'any* hour of the day.

NO

No combines with countable and uncountable nouns. It is used with verbs in the affirmative form to express negation. It is often an alternative to the negative form of the verb + **any** construction:

I have *no* apples. (= I haven't any apples)

When **no** modifies predicatives it sometimes acquires the meaning 'no good as ... ':

He is *no* pianist. (= He is no good as a pianist)

EVERY, EACH

They both mean 'all'; but unlike **all** they imply a number of persons or things considered individually and not as a group. The main differences between **every** and **each** are as follows:

(a) **every** has a generalizing meaning while **each** has an individualizing meaning:

> *Every* boy in the class passed the examination. (= All the boys);
> *Each* boy may have three tries.

(b) **each** refers to two or more persons whereas **every** is usually used with reference to more than two:

> Two boys entered. *Each* boy was carrying a suitcase; There were five boys and *every* boy was carrying a suitcase.

(c) **every** can function only as determiner whereas **each** can function as determiner and substitute.

EITHER, NEITHER, MUCH

Either means 'any one of two persons or things':

> Which of the two books will you take? –I'll take *either*, it does not matter which.

Either may also mean 'each of two':

> There was an armchair at *either* end of the long table.

Neither means 'not either', i.e. we can use **neither** with an affirmative verb form or **either** with a negative verb form:

> I can agree in *neither* case. (= I cannot agree in either case)

Neither is preferred at the beginning of a sentence:

> *Neither* statement is true.

Much means 'a large quantity of' and is used only with uncountable nouns. **Much** changes for degrees of comparison. They are **more** and **most**:

> There isn't *much* food in the house; Some *more* coffee, please; I don't have *much* news of him; Did you have *much* difficulty in finding the house?; *Most* work was done in his father's office.

Much in the positive form is mainly used in negative and interrogative sentences. In purely affirmative sentences **much** in the positive form is usually replaced by **a lot of, a great deal of, plenty of** and the like:

> I have *a lot of bread*, but I haven't much butter.

In affirmative sentences **much** is often used with such adverbs as **very, too, so:**

> You've given me too *much* sugar.

2.42 Predeterminers

These include the indefinite pronouns **all, both** and the noun **half. All, both** and **half** can occur before articles, possessives and demonstratives. The demonstrative **such** can also be used as a predeterminer before the indefinite article.

ALL, BOTH, HALF

All and **half** can be used with both countable and uncountable nouns:

All my friends were happy to hear the news; You've had *all* the fun;
Half of the plums are bad; He spoke for about *half* an hour.

Both occurs only with countables in the plural:

Both his younger brothers are in the army.

All, both and **half** have 'of'-constructions which are optional with nouns and obligatory with personal pronouns:

ALL my friends = **ALL** of my friends. But: **ALL** of them;
HALF his salary = **HALF** of his salary. But: **HALF** of it;
BOTH (the) students = **BOTH** of the students. But: **BOTH** of them.

All and b**oth** can also occur immediately after a noun or pronoun functioning as subject and after a pronoun functioning as object:

The students *all* like their new professor/They *all* like their new professor; The students *both* passed their exams; We *both* want to go; Take it *all*; Take them *both*.

When the predicate is compound or the verb form is analytical **all** and **both** can be placed within the predicate group:

The students were *all* working hard; They were *all* working hard; You must *both* work harder; They were *all* broken.

Half may be used in two different positions. It occurs both before the article and after it: **half an hour/a half hour**. However the pre-article position is much more common than its postposition to the article.

SUCH

Such means 'of the same kind or degree as' it occurs before the indefinite article with singular countable nouns, and without the article with plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns:

There was just *such* a case last year; All *such* possibilities must be considered; We had *such* awful weather.

Note:

In addition to the predeterminers mentioned above **many** may be used as predeterminer in the construction 'many Art_{ind} N': e.g. I've been here *many* a time.

2.43 Postdeterminers

Postdeterminers are words which follow determiners but precede adjectives in noun phrases. They fall into two groups: the indefinite pronouns **many, several, (a) few, (a) little** and numerals (cardinals and ordinals).

2.44 Indefinite pronouns used as postdeterminers

Many, several, few and **a few** co-occur with countable nouns in the plural while **little** and **a little** combine only with uncountable nouns:

> His *many* old friends came to support him; We are all busy at our *several* tasks; *A few* Icelandic poppies were blooming; It has caused me not *a little* anxiety.

MANY

Many is mainly used in interrogative and negative sentences:

> I haven't made *many* mistakes; Were there *many* students at the meeting?

In informal English **many** is usually replaced by **a lot of, lots of, plenty of**, etc, when the sentence is affirmative:

> There were such **a lot of** people in the shops.

However, when modified by **too, so, a great many** is quite common in affirmative constructions:

> I've got *a great many* things to do today.

Many is seldom preceded by determiners.

SEVERAL

When **several** means 'three or more' it is seldom preceded by a determiner:

> I've read it *several* times.

When it has the meaning 'separate', 'individual', it is normally preceded by a possessive pronoun:

> They went their *several* ways.

FEW, LITTLE / A FEW, A LITTLE

Few means 'not many', and **little** – 'not much; only a small amount'.

Both **few** and **little** have negative implication:

> There were *fewer* people today than yesterday; I have very *little* time for reading.

In contrast with **few** and **little**, **a few** and **a little** have positive implication. They mean 'some', though 'not many or much'.

> We are going away for *a few* days; *A little* care would have prevented the accident.

2.45 Numerals

Numerals fall into two classes: cardinals and ordinals.

Cardinal numerals denote number: e.g. **one, two, three**. The numeral **one** combines with the singular form of a countable noun, all the other cardinal numerals combine with the plural form.

The numerals **hundred, thousand** and **million** are usually preceded either by the indefinite article or by the numeral **one**. They are normally preceded by **one** when followed by other numerals: e.g. *one hundred and sixty five.*

Ordinal numerals indicate order: e.g. **first, fifth, ninth**. They co-occur with countable nouns in the singular unless the nouns are modified by cardinal numerals which follow ordinals. In the latter case the plural form of the noun may be required:

> January is the *first* month of the year; The *first* three questions are easy.

Ordinal numerals are usually associated with the definite article. However, when **second, third** mean 'one more' the indefinite article is used: e.g. English as *a second* language; *A second/third* cup of tea.

There are a number of postdeterminers which also indicate order though in a more general way than the ordinals. They are **last, next, other**.

> During the *last* few days; The *last* two persons to arrive; Mr. Green was the *next* person to arrive; The post office is on the *other* side of the street.

SUBSTITUTES (REPRESENTERS AND REPLACERS)
2.46 Representers

Many predeterminers, determiners and a number of postdeterminers can substitute for the noun phrase they themselves introduce. Thus the demonstrative **this/that** may serve as a substitute for the construction **this/that + N**, the indefinite pronoun **all** may **substitute** for the construction **all+N (or) all+of+N**. Such substitutes are called **representers**. **This/that, all, both, half, other, some, any, each, either, neither, whose, the next, the last**, ordinal and cardinal numerals are often used as representers:

> There is my <u>umbrella</u>, but *whose* is *this*? (whose = whose umbrella; this = this umbrella);
> This <u>car</u> is old but *that* is new. (that = that car);
> We lost most of the <u>games</u>, but not quite all. (all = all of them/the games);
> I ordered only one of the <u>books</u>, but now I think I'll take *both*. (both = both books);
> These <u>books</u> are heavy. You carry one *half*, and I'll carry the *other*. (half = half of them/half of the books; the other = the other half of them);
> "Have you got any new <u>magazines</u>?" "*Some*" (some = some magazines);
> "Which of these *pens* may I borrow?" "Oh, <u>any</u>." (any = any pen);
> Three <u>boys</u> applied for a scholarship. *Each* was able to present excellent references. (each = each boy);

Take both *maps - either* will show you all the local roads (either = either of the maps);

"Which *newspaper* do you want?" – "*Neither*" (neither = neither of the newspapers);

George is the first <u>boy</u> on the left. Dick is the *fourth,* (the fourth = the fourth boy on the left);

"Will you have another <u>cup</u> of tea?" – "No, thank you. I've had two", (two = two cups of tea).

There are a number of determiners which cannot function as representers, e.g. **every, no.**

The majority of representers are used anaphorically, i.e. they stand for words or constructions suggested by similar words or constructions, termed antecedents, in preceding clauses or sentences. All the above examples illustrate the anaphoric type of representation (the antecedents are underlined).

Yet some representers may also be used non-anaphorically, i.e. they have no antecedents in the linguistic context: e.g. What's *this*?

Note:

'That' ('those') regularly stands for a nominal construction when followed by an 'of'-phrase or an attributive clause: e.g. His temperament is *that* of a poet; The features were certainly *those* of a Forsyte.

There are certain restrictions imposed on using demonstratives as substitutes. 'This' and 'that' used in the singular have personal reference (i.e. refer to people) only in the subject position: e.g. <u>This</u> is John. <u>That</u> is Mary. In other syntactic positions their reference is non-personal: e.g. I bought this picture. I bought <u>this</u>; He is going to marry *this/that* girl. **But not**: *He is going to marry *this/that*.

As a substitute only 'those' may have personal reference. This kind of reference becomes possible when 'those' is modified by an attributive clause: He admired *those* who danced well. But not: *He admired *these* who danced well.

2.47 Replacers

Alongside of representers there are also substitutes of a different type which do not stand for the constructions which they themselves introduce. Such substitutes are called **replacers.** Here belong personal pronouns, **self**-pronouns, indefinite pronouns in **-one, -body, -thing**, absolute forms of possessive pronouns, the so-called prop-word **one**, and the indefinite pronoun **one**[*]. Some of them are used anaphorically /personal, possessive pronouns of the third person singular and plural, the prop-word **one**; yet the majority are non-

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[*] The pronouns 'what' and 'who' which also belong to the class of substitutes are discussed in 1.24, 1.25, 7.14 f.

anaphoric (personal, possessive and **self**-pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person singular and plural, indefinite pronouns in **-one, -body, -thing**, the indefinite pronou6/2/2008n **one**).

2.48 Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns have person, case, number and gender distinctions. The gender category is confined to the third person singular.

		Singular		Plural	
		Nom.	*Obj.*	*Nom.*	*Obj.*
1st pers.		I	me	we	us
2nd pers.		you (thou)	you(thee)	you	you
3rd pers.	(m)	he	him	they	them
	(f)	she	her	they	them
	(n)	it	it	they	them

As seen from the table above the case system of personal pronouns differs from that of nouns, the former includes the nominative and the objective case forms. It will be noted that in the 2nd person there is no distinction of case and number in present-day English. The bracketed forms **thou** and **thee** are felt now as archaic and are used mainly in poetry and historical prose.

The 1st person singular refers to the speaker whereas its plural counterpart refers to a group of people that includes the speaker. By tradition **we** is used instead of **I** in newspapers, scientific writing, etc. This usage is known as the editorial **we**.

> *We* are convinced that the Government has made a grave mistake in imposing this tax.

The 2nd person singular form refers to the listener (reader). The plural form refers to a group of people that includes the listener (the reader).

The 3rd person does not refer either to the speaker or the listener. The 3rd person singular of the masculine gender refers to males, its feminine gender form to females and the neuter gender form to inanimate objects or living beings, especially animals and babies, whose sex is immaterial in the context.

> If my son were made to do the laundry, *he*'d sure be surprised; My sister says *she* is going for a walk; She loved the picture because *it* was beautiful; Where is the cat? – *It*'s in the garden; She is expecting another baby and hopes *it* will be a boy.

When inanimate objects (ships, cars, aircraft, countries and the like) are referred to as **she** personification is at work:

> What a lovely ship! What is *she* called?; 'Our aim is to keep Italy out of the war until *she* is strong enough to come in on our side', said the colonel.

The choice of the nominative and objective case forms is made on the basis of syntactic function. The nominative case form is used in the subject position when the pronoun is the only subject to the predicate:

> *I*'d like to travel. - *You* never have? In formal official English this case form is also found in the predicative position: Who's *that*? – It's *I*.

In informal speech there is a growing tendency to use the objective case form as predicative (chiefly the 1st person):

> Who's that calling? – It's *me*.

But the nominative case form must be used if a predicative is followed by a clause in an emphatic construction:

> It is *I* who am wrong.

The objective case form usually functions as an object or adverbial modifier:

> Give *us* your address, Bicket; She told *me* what had happened, ... and she could honestly find in *him* little to blame.

The objective case form is also used

as second subject: e.g. Oh, you and *me*, we're cat and dog.

in apposition preceding the subject: e.g. *Me*, I'm just one of many.

in elliptical sentences: e.g. Who did that? - *Me*.

Notes:

[a] As substitutes personal pronouns have definite reference, i.e. they stand for an already identified noun phrase, beginning with a definite determiner like 'the' or 'that': e.g. There is a clock on the table. *It* is an alarm clock. The pronoun 'it' stands for the phrase 'the clock on the table'.

[b] However 'you' and 'they' can be used with indefinite reference: e.g. You can't smoke in the cinema; What a lot of questions *they* ask in this census form.

2.49 Self-pronouns

Self-pronouns have gender, number and personal distinctions. Their forms are as follows:

		Singular	**Plural**
1st pers.		myself	ourselves
2nd pers.		yourself	yourselves
3rd pers.	(m)	himself	themselves
	(f)	herself	themselves
	(n)	itself	themselves
		oneself (ind)	

Self-pronouns are used either as reflexive pronouns or as emphatic pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are **self**-pronouns functioning as predicatives, objects and adverbial modifiers whose reference is identical with that of the subject of the sentence:

> I'm not quite *myself* today; But he no longer occupied *himself* with the landscape; For a time his pen seemed to travel by *itself*; She excused *herself* and left the room; One shouldn't live for *oneself* alone.

Reflexive pronouns can also function as attributes (chiefly in an "of"-phrase).

> He looked at the photograph of *himself* and some fellow soldiers.

Sometimes there is a freedom of choice between reflexive and personal pronouns. This is usually the case in comparative constructions. Compare:

> { My brother is as tall as *myself*.
> { My brother is as tall as *I (me)*.

As substitutes reflexive pronouns serve to avoid repeating the words or constructions, functioning as subject, in other syntactic positions, since such repetition would often result in an ungrammatical construction or a complete distortion of meaning: e.g. The women busy themselves. **But not:** *The women busy the women.

Emphatic pronouns are **self**-pronouns used, as the term itself implies, for the sake of emphasis. They usually function as appositions to nouns or pronouns. They can either immediately follow their headword or occur at the end of the sentence:

> He *himself* says so; He says so *himself*.

Sometimes emphatic pronouns are used independently:

> My friend and *myself* would be so much obliged if you would tell us how you caught that trout up there.

2.50 Reciprocal pronouns

The **reciprocal pronouns** *each other* and *one another* are used to express mutual actions or relations:

> We see *each other* on the beach every day; They don't like *one another*.

When two persons are meant **each other** is commonly used, but when more than two are involved, **one another** is preferable. There is, however, a tendency in present-day English to use **each other** with reference to both two and more than two. Reciprocal pronouns have case distinctions. The common case forms are **each other, one another**, the genitives - **each other's, one another's.**

> They looked into *each other's* eyes laughing.

2.51 Compound pronouns in -one, -body, -thing

The pronouns **somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything, everybody, everyone, everything**, **nobody, no one, nothing** are **indefinite pronouns**. They are used as non-anaphoric replacers of nominal constructions in which **some, any, every** and **no** function as determiners.

He is *somebody* at the door. Cf: There is *some person* at the door.

Did you see *anything* interesting there? Cf: Did you see *any* interesting *things* there?

He saw *nothing* of interest there. Cf: He saw no interesting *things* there.

The pronouns under consideration have no category of number; some of them (the compounds in -**one** and -**body**) have case distinctions: they can be used in the common case and in the genitive case.

That's *anybody's* guest (= It is quite uncertain). Compounds in -**one** and -**body** have personal reference, those in -**thing** refer to inanimate objects.

As far as compounds beginning with **some-** and **any-** are concerned their choice is determined by the same factors as the choice of **some** and **any**.

2.52 The pronoun none

None may be regarded as an absolute form of **no**. It may have both personal and non-personal reference:

He met a number of people but *none* whom he knew; Is there any coal left? - No, *none* at all.

None differs from **nobody (no one)** and **nothing** in being used in answer to a **how-many**-question or a **how-much**-question:

I want some more coffee but *none* was left. (How much coffee was left?); Of all the girls he phoned *none* were at home. (How many girls were at home?)

2.53 Absolute forms of possessives

Alongside of conjoint forms functioning as determiners possessive pronouns have also absolute forms. They are as follows:

		Singular	**Plural**
1st pers.		mine	ours
2nd pers.		yours (thine)	yours
3rd pers.	(m)	his	theirs
	(f)	hers	theirs
	(n)		

As seen from the table there is no absolute form parallel to the conjoint form **its**. On the other hand, **his** is used both as an absolute and as a conjoint form.

Absolute forms stand for noun phrases which include possessives in the determiner function:

Is that book *yours*? (Cf: Is that your book?)

That's her hat, not *yours*. (Cf: That's her hat, not your hat.)

Absolute forms are often used in 'of'-phrases with partitive meaning: e.g. 'It is a book of mine' means 'It is one of my books'.

Sometimes, however, the partitive meaning is lost and the 'of + Poss$_{abc}$ construction acquires emotional force:

He hated that pride *of hers* and secretly dreaded it; 'This foolish wife *of mine* thinks I'm a great artist', said he.

2.54 One as substitute

Apart from the numeral **one** there are two other words homonymous with the numeral. They are the indefinite pronoun **one** and the so-called prop-word **one** or replacive **one**.

The indefinite pronoun **one** is a non-anaphoric replacer which has two case forms: the nominative case -**one** and the genitive case **one's**.

One doesn't like to have *one's* word doubted.

Used as an indefinite pronoun **one** stands for any person including the speaker or writer and is synonymous with the less formal **you**.

One cannot always find time for reading. Cf: You cannot always find time for reading.

The other substitute is the anaphoric replacer **one** which stands for nouns used in the singular or in the plural. It has number distinctions: **one :: ones**.

Your plan is a good *one* on paper; The older boys agreed but here and there among the little *ones* was the dubiety.

The anaphoric replacer **one** can be immediately preceded by the definite article and demonstratives in the singular, but when it co-occurs with other determiners there is usually an adjective between the replacer and the determiner:

I drew my chair nearer to *the one* on which Mary was sitting; He realized that like so many of his other grand designs, *this one*, too had failed; There is a right answer and *a* wrong *one*; These apples aren't ripe. Give me *some* ripe *ones*.

As a rule **one** does not co-occur with possessives and demonstratives when the latter are in the plural.

PART THREE
ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVAL PHRASES

3.1 Adjectival phrases

An adjectival phrase is a phrase with a single adjective, as in '(He is) *happy'* or with an adjective and one or more adjuncts, as in '(He is) *so very happy'*.

An adverb or adverbial expression that emphasises the meaning of an adjective is called an **intensifier**: *very, rather, somewhat, terribly*, etc. Normally an intensifier used with an adjective that precedes a noun comes just before the adjective: e.g. very difficult. The intensifier **enough** follows an adjective: e.g. difficult *enough.*

When the adjectival phrase modifies a noun the intensifiers **quite** and **rather** usually come before the indefinite article (e.g. quite a *difficult* decision, rather a *surprising* remark), though they may be also preceded by it (e.g. a quite *fundamental* disagreement, a rather *hard* man); but they always follow other noun determiners (e.g. *two* quite *difficult* decisions, *those* rather *surprising* remarks).

The intensifiers **too, so, a bit** are used before adjectives only when the latter function as predicatives: e.g. These shoes are too/so/a bit *large*.

Some intensifiers used before adjectives functioning as predicatives are typical only of informal style and do not occur in formal language.

I'm kind of *tired* today; That sounds sort of *strange*.

There are a number of intensifiers - certain noun phrases (most of them informal) and adverbs - which precede the comparative forms of adjectives: **much, far, a good bit/lot, a good deal/a great deal, lots, rather, somewhat, a little, a (little) bit:** e.g. much *larger*; far *more beautiful*, a good deal *better*, somewhat *more careful*.

The comparative may be also premodified by **no** and **not any**.

This house is no *bigger*/not any *bigger* than the other.

The inflectional superlative may be premodified by **very**: e.g. the very best. If **very** premodifies the superlative, a determiner is obligatory, as in 'She put on her very *best* dress'.

Comparatives and superlatives can also be postmodified by intensifying phrases, the most common of which is **by far**: He is *funnier/funniest* by far.

The superlative is also followed by **possible** and **imaginable**: e.g. the *largest* thing possible, the *most difficult* task imaginable.

Note:

Here is the most common order of adjectives in the English noun phrase, though the order of adjectives of size, shape, age, and colour can change.

opinion	size	quality/character/ shape	colour	parti- ciple	origin	material	type/ purpose	noun
nice	big	round	blue		Arab	glass	fruit	bowl

3.2 Characteristics of the adjective

The **adjective** is a word which describes a person or thing denoted by the noun. Semantically, adjectives fall into two classes: **qualitative** (*little, large, high, soft, warm*, etc) which denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc, that may vary in degree and **relative** which denote qualities of a substance indirectly, through their relation to materials (*silken, woolen, wooden*, etc), to place (*Italian, Asian*, etc), to time (*monthly, weekly*, etc).

The only grammatical category of adjectives which has survived into Modern English is that of comparison. There are three degrees of comparison - the **positive** (absolute), the **comparative**, the **superlative**. Degrees of comparison are found only with qualitative adjectives which denote qualities varying in intensity (*tall-taller-tallest*).

Syntactically, the adjective may function in the sentence as attribute (e.g. The reporter settled on the *nearest* chair) and predicative (e.g. The girl looked *unhappy*).

3.3 Comparison

The comparative and superlative degrees may be expressed synthetically (with the help of the suffixes **-er, -est**) and analytically (with the help of the auxiliaries **more, most**).

The suffixes **-er, -est** are added to one-syllable adjectives (1); most two-syllable adjectives ending in **-y, ow, -er, ure**, consonant **+ le**, where [1] is syllabic (2); disyllabics accented upon the last syllable (3); some widely used disyllabics (4).

(1) great-greater-greatest,   brave-braver-bravest;
(2) funny-funnier-funniest,   shallow-shallower-shallowest,
     mature-maturer-maturest,   tender-tenderer-tenderest,
     simple-simpler-simplest,   noble-nobler-noblest;
(3) polite-politer-politest,   precise-preciser-precisest;
(4) handsome-handsomer-handsomest,   common-commoner-commonest,
     pleasant-pleasanter-pleasantest,   quiet-quieter-quietest.

In case of the above mentioned disyllabics, English usage permits a choice between the two ways of comparison: e.g. *common - commoner/more common - commonest/most common, mature - maturer/more mature - maturest/most mature*.

3.4 Spelling rules

If the suffixes **-er, -est** are added to adjectives ending in **-y** preceded by a consonant, the **y** is replaced by **i**: *dry-drier-driest, easy-easier-easiest, happy-happier-happiest*. **But:** *shy-shyer-shyest, sly-slyer-slyest* (where the **y** belongs to the root of the word).

Adjectives ending in **e** drop this letter before **-er, -est**: *wise-wiser-wisest, concise-conciser-concisest.* Monosyllables which end in a single consonant preceded by a short vowel double this consonant before **-er, -est**: *big-bigger-biggest, fat-fatter-fattest.* **Note also**: *cruel-crueller-cruellest.*

3.5 Irregular forms of comparison

A few monosyllabic adjectives do not follow the rule given in 3.3. They are **good/well, bad, little, far**. Their comparatives and superlatives are suppletive, i.e. they are formed from different roots: **good/well - better -best; bad - worse - worst; little - less - least; far -farther/further - farthest/furthest.**

The adjectives OLD, LATE, NEAR, FAR have two sets of comparatives and superlatives: one of them is made up of regular forms and the other comprises forms with a vowel change.

old
{
  older, oldest (used with reference to age): the older generation

  elder, eldest (used with reference to seniority or restricted to family relations)
}

e.g. *elder* statesman - старейший и заслуженный государственный деятель
He is my *elder* in service. - Он старше меня по должности; my *elder* brother, the *eldest* son.

late
{
  later, latest (used with reference to time)

  latter, last (used with reference to order)
}

Used before nouns, *latter* means 'recent' (e.g. the *latter* day saints - современные святые) or 'belonging to the end of a period' (e.g. in the *latter* part of the year – в конце года).

Cf: the *latest* news/dances, a *later* version – позднейшая/более поздняя редакция; in the *last* analysis – в конечном счете, the *latter* part of the week/book – вторая половина недели, последняя часть книги.

As an archaism *latter* with the meaning 'final' is used in set phrases: the *latter* end = death, the *Latter* Day = Doomsday.

near
{
  nearer, nearest (used with reference to distance)

  -    next   (used with reference to order)
}

Cf: Where's the *nearest* post-office?
The *next* train leaves at 5.10 *next* Monday, *next* week.

far
{
  farther, farthest (used with reference to distance)

  further, furthest (used with reference to time and distance).
}

Either **farther-farthest** or **further-furthest** can be used with reference to distance, though **farther-farthest** is preferred as attribute in that sense in traditional grammar: e.g. The statue stands at the *farther* end of the garden.

Further as attribute is preferred in the sense of 'another or something that will follow': e.g. a *further* example, (after) a *further* search, *further* details, (without) *further* delay, (until) *further* notice.

Note:

A double comparative with 'lesser' is used in the following phrases: 'the lesser of the evils' -меньшее из зол; 'the lesser breaches of the law' - мелкие нарушения закона; 'the Lesser Bear' - Малая Медведица; 'the Lesser Asia' - Малая Азия.

Note also peculiar uses of degrees of comparison: on the *near* bank/side – на этом берегу, по эту сторону; in the (very) *near* future – в (самом) ближайшем будущем; on *near(er)/close(r)* examination, consideration – при ближайшем рассмотрении; in one's *late(r)* years – в конце жизни; a *later* train – один из следующих поездов; *further* instructions – дальнейшие указания; *farther/further* end – дальний конец; the *further* side of the street – другая сторона улицы, on the *farther* bank – на том / дальнем берегу.

3.6 Analytical forms of comparison

All disyllabic adjectives other than those enumerated above and adjectives with three or more syllables form the comparative and superlative analytically: *famous - more famous - most famous, interesting - more interesting - most interesting.*

While longer adjectives, such as *comfortable, expensive* are not compared with **-er, -est**, any adjective can optionally be compared with **more** and **most** when emphasis is not on the comparison but on the idea expressed by the adjective itself: e.g. Little by little, the farmer became *more rich*.

Notes:

[a] In compound adjectives the first element forms the comparative and superlative synthetically if the two elements retain their individual meaning: e.g. deep-rooted, deeper-rooted, deepest-rooted; well-known, better-known, best-known. Analytical forms are also used: e.g. more deep-rooted, most deep-rooted; more well-known, most well-known.

[b] Like superlative in form but different in function is the so-called 'elative', which stands for a very high degree of a quality: e.g. It's a most extraordinary thing (= it's extremely extraordinary and that it is more extraordinary than all others). In such a case the adverb 'most' is unstressed or medium-stressed, whereas in the analytical superlative of an adjective the auxiliary 'most' and the adjective have even stress.

3.7 Constructions with comparison

(1) Comparison of equal is expressed by **as ... as** - for positive comparison and **not as ... as** or **not so ... as** - for negative comparison.

> A boy of 16 is often <u>as</u> *tall* <u>as</u> his father; A grape is <u>not so (as)</u> *big* <u>as</u> an orange.

(2) Comparison of two unequal persons or things is expressed by the comparative with **than**.

> A mountain is *higher* <u>than</u> a hill.

To show that one exceeds the other several times two constructions are used:

(a) **twice/three**, etc/**several times as** Adj $_{posit}$ **as** ...

> His friends are <u>twice as</u> *young* <u>as</u> he is.

(b) **twice/three**, etc/**several times the** Adj$_{super1}$ (than) ...

> A guinea a visit -it was <u>three times</u> *the largest* he had ever earned!

(3) To show parallel increase or decrease, we can use comparatives with **the** (**the Adj$_{comp}$ ... the Adj$_{comp}$**), where the correlative **the** is a survival of the old instrumental case of the demonstrative (cf. in Russian 'чем ... тем ...').

> <u>The</u> *bigger* the house is, <u>the</u> *more expensive* it will be.

Notes:

[a] When 'than' or 'as' is followed by a 3rd person pronoun, we usually repeat the verb (e.g. We are *taller than they are*; I am not *as clever as he is*). When 'than' or 'as' is followed by a 1st or 2nd person pronoun, it is common to omit the verb (e.g. He is *better educated than I*; I am not *as young as you*).

[b] A survival of the old instrumental case of the demonstrative is also found in the following phrases: *the Adj*$_{comp}$ (e.g. If you don't withdraw and apologize, it will be *the worse* for you); *all the Adj*$_{comp}$ (e.g. Now it will be *all the easier* to deceive him - Теперь будет еще легче обмануть его); *so/very much the Adj* (e.g. It's *so much the worse* for you - Тем хуже для тебя); no/(none the) *Adj*$_{comp}$ (e.g. She was no worse for it - Ей от этого хуже не стало; He was *none the worse* for these experiences - Эти переживания никак на нем не отразились).

3.8 Adjectives and adverbs

Certain items that function as adjectives are also used to define in some way the process denoted by the verb; this is a typical use of adverbs (e.g. He spoke *loud* and *clear*). These adverbs with adjective form are mostly connected with time, position and direction.

Adjective	Adverb
a *late* dinner	I've been working *late.*
a *direct* hit	We flew *direct* to London.
a *short* distance	The arrow fell *short* of the target.
a *high* wall	Don't aim too *high.*

There is a group of -ly-adjectives, which are homonymous with corresponding adverbs: *friendly, kindly, lively*, etc.

Deadly: *deadly* poison; the seven *deadly* sins; The play was *deadly*;

beastly: What *beastly* weather!

cowardly: *cowardly* behaviour; a *cowardly* lie;

stately: *stately* bearing, a *stately* bow; the *stately* homes of England.

In some cases adverbs have the same forms as adjectives; in other cases two different adverbs are derived from the same adjective. Adverbs which have the same form as adjectives:

Close, dead, fast, fine, long, low, pretty, short, straight, wide, wrong.

Common adverbs from the same base, with different meanings:

direct (=without stopping)
  We flew direct from la Guardia to Houston.

directly (=immediately/very soon)
  Don't go. I'll be with you directly.

late (=not on time/not early)
  The plane arrived late due to bad weather.

lately (=recently)
  She's been rather ill lately.

high (=to a great height)
  to lifted it high over his head

highly (=extremely)
  Arsenic is highly toxic.

hard (=with a lot of effort/severely)
  He braked hard when he saw the cat.

hardly (=scarcely, almost not)
  We hardly know our neighbours.

right (=direction/correctly)
  Turn right at the crossroads.
  Try to do it right this time!

rightly (=correctly in my opinion)
  The tribunal rightly contemned the war criminals.

free (=without paying)
  We got into the concert free!

freely (=without limitation or control)
  Sheep roam freely over the hills.

deep (=to a great depth/distance)
  We explored deep into the jungle.

deeply (=thoroughly)
  I'm deeply ashamed of my behaviour.

3.9 Adjective and participle

Some adjectives have the same form as participles, e.g. His views were very *surprising*; The man seemed very *offended*.

These adjectives can also be attributes, e.g. his surprising views, the *offended* man.

Often the difference between the adjective and the participle is not obvious, and lies in the verbal force retained by the latter. It is clear that an '-ing' form is a present participle and not an adjective when a direct object is present.

You are *surprising* me.

Similarly, the verbal force is indicated for the past participle when a 'by'-phrase containing a personal agent is present.

The man was *offended* by the policeman.

For both '-ed' and '-ing' forms, modification by the adverb **very** clearly indicates that the forms are adjectives.

His views were very *alarming*; The man was very *offended*.

3.10 Statives

There is a subclass of adjectives beginning with **a** which denote a passing state of a person or thing: *alive, asleep, atremble, afire, aflame, afloat*, etc.

The **a**-adjectives, or the so-called statives, take no degrees of comparison. Syntactically, they are characterized by a predominantly predicative use. They occur after the verb **be** and other link verbs as **seem, feel, keep**, etc. The patient was *afraid*; He soon fell *asleep*; She kept *aloof*.

Some statives occasionally function as attributes: e.g. The house *ablaze* is next door to mine. In this function they are normally modified: e.g. the half-*asleep* children; a somewhat *afraid* soldier; a very ashamed girl.

Common statives are: **ablaze, afloat, afraid, aghast, astir, alike, alive, alone, aloof, ashamed, asleep, adrift, awake, aware.**

3.11 Substantivized adjectives

Some items can be both adjectives and nouns:

a *criminal* code - уголовный кодекс   a *criminal* - преступник

the *native* population - местное население   a *native* - туземец
rich people - богатые люди   the *rich* - богатые

The relationship between such adjectives and the corresponding nouns is that of conversion.

When the adjective is converted into a noun, it becomes **substantivized.** Substantivized adjectives lose all or part of the characteristics of the adjective and take all or part of the characteristics of the noun.

There are two kinds of substantivized adjectives: **fully (wholly)** substantivized and **partially** substantivized adjectives.

Fully substantivized adjectives acquire some or all paradigmatic characteristics of the noun: they inflect for the plural and the genitive, and take definite and indefinite articles or no articles in case they have abstract reference. They are adjectives denoting:

(1) classes of people: **an aboriginal, a progressive a white**, etc;
(2) nationalities: **a Greek, a Czech**, **an American** etc;
(3) periodicals: **a daily, a weekly, a monthly**, etc;
(4) shades of colour: **a red, a blue, a blond**, etc;
(5) abstract qualities, materials or colour, which has abstract reference: **good, bitter, yellow,** etc.

    1) She had never seen *a native* who was better for breaking with his tribal laws and beliefs; It was so cold that *the blacks* went shivering in their thin clothes.
    2) He had his arm on the *American's* shoulder.
    3) He peered at old copies of financial *periodicals*.
    4) His eyes were a very light *grey*.
    5) It'll do you *good;* A pint of *bitter*, please; *Green* does not match *blue*.

To the group of fully substantivized belong some participles II whose singular and plural forms are homonymous.

"I appear for *the accused* "... *the deceased's* finger-prints ought to be on it somewhere"; Margaret and her husband looked - as if they had been *the accused*."

Partially substantivized adjectives have only some characteristics of the noun: they are determined by the definite article. They are plural in meaning and take a plural verb. To this subdivision belong adjectives denoting groups of people (*the rich, the blind, the dead*, etc) and nationality words ending in [S] (*the British, the Spanish, the Irish*, etc) and [tS] (*the French, the Dutch, the Scotch,* etc).

They wanted him to rise from *the dead*; *The English* have been called 'a nation of shopkeepers'.

Notes:

[a] Partially substantivized adjectives of the first type are sometimes used not to refer to a nation or group of people as a whole but to some part of it: *The Irish* (who live) in America retain sentimental links with Ireland; *The British* have control of the bridge. If we want to denote a single person belonging to the group it is necessary to add a noun: e.g. an Irishman, or use a noun derivative: e.g. a Britisher.

[b] In the vast majority of cases if the reference is made to a particular group of people the adjective is supplied with a noun. Cf.: *The young* are usually intolerant (a general statement); *The young men* were fishing (particular people).

PART FOUR
FINITE VERB PHRASE

4.1

There are two kinds of verb phrases: finite and non-finite. Finite verb phrases are distinguished by containing a finite verb as their first (or only) component. The finite verb is the member of the phrase which shows person, number, tense, mood, aspect, and voice. Non-finite verbs have no person, number, primary tense (present, past and future), and mood distinctions. Nevertheless, they are capable of indicating aspect, voice, and secondary tenses (perfect and non-perfect). Compare:

Finite VP

He { studies/studied/will study
is/was/will be studying
has studied/had studied/
will have studied } English

Non-finite VP
Studying English, he learnt a lot about the British.

Studying English ⎤
⎟ is useful.
To study English ⎦

Finite verbs occur as the predicate of sentences. There is usually person and number agreement between the subject and the finite verb. Compared with other European languages, English has very few person and number inflections. With all English verbs except **be**, agreement is confined to a contrast between the 3rd person singular and all other forms of the present tense.

1st	I, we	run-ø
2nd	you, you	run-ø
3rd	he, she, it	run-s
	they	run-ø

Verb phrases can be subdivided into two major types: those having a verbal adjunct and those having a non-verbal adjunct. To the first group belong the following phrases:

V_i to V : hope to restore (it)
V_t to V : begin to understand
V_t p V_{ing} : insist on going (there)
V_i V_{ing} : sit smiling

Verb phrases with a non-verbal adjunct can comprise two or three members. Accordingly, double (1) and triple (2) phrases are distinguished.

(1)	V_i / V_t p N:	write in pencil
	V_i N:	become a sailor; die a beggar
	V_t N / Pr:	write a letter
	V_i p N / Pr:	look at the picture
	V_i A:	come angry; stand silent
	V_i / V_t Adv:	walk slowly
(2)	V_t Pr N:	give him a book
	V_t p Pr N:	explain to them the rule
	V_t (p) Pr (to)V:	see him run
	V_t Pr p N:	regards it as a threat

4.2 Characteristics of the verb

The verb is a notional part of speech which denotes an action (*run, write*) or a state conceived as process (*dream, worry*).

The verb has person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood distinctions. There are two kinds of verb forms: **finite** and **non-finite**. The **finite forms** have person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood distinctions. The **non-finite forms** of the verb are the infinitive (*to write*), the present participle (*writing*), the past participle (*written*), and the gerund (*writing*). Finite verbs occur as the predicate of the sentence: e.g. Henry *has* my address. There is usually person

and number agreement between the subject and the finite verb, which is particularly clear with the verb **be**:

I *am*/you *are*/he *is* against *it*.

Modal verbs count as finite verbs, although they do not inflect for number and person in the present tense: I/you/he *must* do it.

Non-finite forms cannot be used as predicates. They can be only part of a predicate[*]: e.g. One way out of it was never *to use* the instrument; I wanted *to meet* you; He dreads *losing* you.

4.3 Classifications of verbs

I. Morphological classification

Many English verbs have four principal forms: the stem (coinciding with the present indefinite except the 3rd person singular), the past tense, the present participle, and the past participle.

Regular verbs have the same **-ed** inflection added to the stem for both the past tense and past participle. The majority of English verbs belong to this regular class. All new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt this pattern: e.g. publicize (=make publicity), publicized, publicized; gazump (=cheat), gazumped, gazumped.

Irregular verbs are those whose past tense and past participle cannot be formed according to a rule. There are in English 250 irregular verbs which can be subdivided into consonantal, vocalic and unchangeable.

Consonantal verbs have a **-t** inflection (*dwell - dwelt - dwelt*). Some of them have also variation in their base vowel (*think - thought - thought, feel - felt - felt*). Along with irregular forms such verbs as *burn, learn, dwell* have regular forms: *burned, learned, dwelled*.

Vocalic verbs have variation in the root vowel (*sing-sang-sung; win-won-won*).

Vowel or consonant change may be accompanied by affixation: *speak - spoke - spoken; sell - sold - sold*.

Unchangeable verbs have the past tense and past participle the same as the stem: *put - put - put; let - let - let*.

Among irregular verbs there are two **suppletive** verbs whose forms are "supplied" from different stems: **be** has eight different forms (*be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been*) and **go** has **went** for the past tense and **gone** for the past participle.

Modal verbs (or modals) are called "defective" in that some of their forms are missing.

4.4 Semantic classification

Semantically, verbs can be grouped into **dynamic** and **static** verbs. **Dynamic** (action) verbs refer to activity and can therefore be used in the continuous form. They include **walk, run, read, write, work, play, look, listen,** etc.

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[*] For other functions of non-finite forms, see 5.1 f.

Static verbs refer to states and do not normally occur in the continuous form. They include **be, have** (in the sense of "hold" or "possess"), **contain, consist, know, believe, prefer, suppose, see, hear,** etc.

The majority of English verbs are dynamic and even those which are static are often given a dynamic use in present-day English:

> I *was seeing* and *hearing* it done; I'*ve been meaning* to have a word with you.

4.5 Lexico-grammatical classification

According to their function in the phrase, which is closely connected with their meaning, all verbs are divided into **notional**, **auxiliary** and **semi-auxiliary.**

Notional verbs have a full lexical meaning of their own and can be used in a sentence as simple verbal predicate or notional part of a compound verbal predicate (*say, sleep, cry*, etc):

> She *told* me all about herself; Perhaps we could *do* something to make it easy.

Auxiliary verbs have no lexical meaning of their own. They are used as part of analytical forms (perfect, continuous, future forms, etc). They have a pure structural function in the verb phrase. Here belong such verbs as **be, do, shall, will, have.**

> It *would* be lovely; You *did*n't come here for all this.

Semi-auxiliary verbs can be considered under two headings: link verbs and modal verbs.* To **links** belong such verbs as **be, become, remain, turn**, etc, which denote a state and function as the first part of a compound nominal predicate.

> She *felt* sorry for the baby; The milk *turned* sour.

Polysemantic verbs may function as notional verbs as well as auxiliary and semi-auxiliary:

> I *got* your telegram (notional); She *got* accepted by the Royal College (auxiliary); It *got* cool toward evening (semi-auxiliary: link).

4.6 Syntactical classification

Syntactically, verbs can be divided into subjective and objective. A **subjective** verb denotes an action associated only with its subject. Here belong such verbs as *stand, sleep, laugh, think, rise*, etc:

> She *sat* down again opposite David; That *happens*.

An **objective** verb denotes an action associated not only with its subject but also with an object. Objective verbs can be **transitive**, i.e. they take a direct object:

> He wants her to marry *him*.

---

* For modal verbs, see 4.40 f.

Verbs which do not take a direct object are called **intransitive**. Here belong all subjective verbs and those objective verbs whose object is not direct. The latter may be illustrated by the examples below:

> We've been *talking* about you; She *looked* for a place to hang the picture.

Many verbs can be used both as subjective and as objective verbs. Compare: John is going to *marry* Jane (objective); Harry didn't *marry* until he was fifty (subjective).

Note:

Verbs may form combinations with postpositions (e.g. take off, get up, find out). These are called phrasal verbs. Some phrasal verbs retain the individual meanings of the verb and the postposition (e.g. sit down), whereas for other phrasal verbs the meaning of the combination cannot be built up from the meanings of the components (e.g. give in = surrender, turn up = appear).

4.7 Person and number

In the verb system of modern English there are two numbers - singular and plural, and three persons - first, second, and third. With most verbs, there is no contrast between number and person forms except between the 3rd person singular present and all other persons:

> I/you/they *sing* :: He (she, it) *sings*.

Person distinctions may be preserved in the future tense:

I/we *shall* write.	I/we *should* write.
He/she/it/they *will* write.	He/she/they <u>would</u> write.

4.8 Tense

Tense is a grammatical category of the verb indicating the time of an action. The main divisions of time - present, past and future, are represented in English by the **primary** tenses: simple present, simple past and simple future. They are also called **absolute** tenses.

Besides the primary tenses there are the so-called **secondary** tenses in English: perfect forms. They do not merely indicate that the action refers to the present, past, or future, but show that the action is related to some other action (or point of time) in the present, past, or future. Therefore the perfect forms are **relative** tenses.

Primary tenses

4.9 Simple present

The simple **present tense** of every verb except **be** has two forms. One, which is homonymous with the stem, is used for all persons except the 3rd

person singular. Whenever the verb is 3rd person singular, the **-s** inflection[*] is added to the stem.

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{I, we} \\ \text{You} \\ \text{They} \end{array}\right\} \text{stand still} \qquad \left.\begin{array}{l} \text{He} \\ \text{She} \\ \text{It} \end{array}\right\} \text{stands still}$$

Apart from the verb **be** which has three forms (**am, is, are**), there are only three exceptions to this rule: the 3rd person singular of **have** is **has** [hxz]; the 3rd person singular of **say** and **do** is regular in spelling (**says**, **does**), but irregular in pronunciation [sez], [dAz].

The present tense relates events or describes conditions in the present. It has several uses:

(i) It is used to express an actual present time action:
> He *works* hard; I *admire* her; The paper *sells* well.

(ii) It is used to express a characteristic, repeated, or habitual action:
> She *visits* us regularly; They (often) *meet* at the club.

(iii) It is used to express a universal truth:
> The news *travels* fast; Two and two *makes* four.

The simple present can also be used with future time reference:

(i) It is occasionally used when there is a future time indicator in the sentence and the action is seen as absolutely certain. It is often the case with verbs of motion, arrival, or departure:
> We *leave* tomorrow morning; The performance *begins* at eight.

The use of the simple present to express scheduled or confidently expected actions is typical of formal style.

(ii) It is used in clauses of time, condition and concession introduced by **if, unless, when, whatever**, etc:
> If you ask him, he will help you; I'll wait till he *comes*; Whatever *happens*, they will send me a word.

(iii) It is used in object clauses after the verbs **see, take care, make sure** and the like:
> See that she *goes* to the clinic regularly and be sure she *gets* enough to eat.

(iv) It is used in some special questions:
> What *do* we do next?; Where *do* we go, now?; When *do* we start?

Note:

The simple present can occasionally be used with past time reference:

[a] with the "communication" verbs "tell, hear, learn, write, etc" to express the persistence in the present of the effect of a past communication: e.g. Mike *tells* (=has told) me that you've been to Paris; Much admired, I *hear* (=heard);

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[*] The "-s" inflection of verbs is the same in pronunciation and spelling as that used for the plural of nouns.

[b] in vivid narrative, when it is termed the "historic present": e.g. ... last week we went into Rennes to do some shopping. A couple of French boys picked us up in a cafe. Students. They were all right. So they *chat* us up. Di *says* we're staying on our vacation with a friend of her family's. Then they *want* to drive out one day and see us. (J. Fowles);

[c] in stage directions, when it is termed the "dramatic present": e.g. The men slowly *come* to attention, except Charles, who, after a pause, *moves* to his bed and *sits* on it. One by one the other boys, except Pip, also sit on their beds in defiance.

4. 10 Simple past

Most verbs in English are regular and form their past tense by the addition of an ending that is spelled **-ed** or just **-d** if the stem is spelled with a final **-e.** This spelling represents three different sounds, depending on the final sound in the stem.

If the stem ends in [t] or [d], the ending is [Id]: hate -hated ['heitId]; load - loaded ['loudId]. If the stem ends in a voiced consonant (other than [d]) or a vowel, the ending is [d]: love - loved ['lAvd]; call - called [kLld]; bow - bowed [baud]. If the stem ends in a voiceless consonant (other than [t]) the ending is [t]: ask - asked [Rskt]; kiss - kissed [kist];wash -washed [wOSt].

In writing the following spelling rules should be observed:

verbs ending in **-e** take the letter **d** for the past: *chase - chased, tremble - trembled*; (2) when the stem ends in a consonant followed by **y**, the **y** changes to **i** before **-ed** is added: *cry - cried, terrify - terrified*; (3) a final **i** is always doubled: *quarrel - quarrelled, control - controlled*; (4) a final consonant is doubled if it is preceded by a short stressed vowel or if a verb ends in a stressed **-er/-ur**: *nod - nodded, stop -stopped, prefer - preferred, occur - occurred*. But if the preceding vowel is long or unstressed, the final consonant remains single: *limit - limited, develop - developed, transform - transformed, offer - offered*.

The past tense of irregular verbs cannot be formed according to a rule but must be learnt[*].

The past tense relates events or describes conditions in the past, i.e. no longer present for the speaker. It has several uses:

(i) It is used to express a single occurrence (event). The idea of "no longer present" is often marked by indicators of past time (**yesterday, last summer, a few years ago**):

They *saw* it only once; I *visited* him yesterday.

(ii) It is used to express habitual or repeated occurrences. It is found with the time indicators **regularly, always**, and the like.

She *visited* them regularly; We met several times each week.

[*] For forms of irregular verbs, see 4.3

(iii) The past tense can be called a **narrative tense** since it is widely used in narration (i.e. in fiction, news items, historical documents, etc), especially to express a succession of past actions.

> He *turned* and *looked* at her then; Jazz *crooned* distantly, *stopped, struck up* again.

Note:

[a] Distinct from the simple present the simple past does not imply habitual activity without a suitable adverb; "used to" or (less commonly) "would" may be needed to bring out this sense: e.g. John *used to* smoke much; While she ironed or washed the kitchen floor, he *would read* aloud to her.

[b] The past tense is commonly used instead of the present in very polite conversational formulas. It relates to the attitudes of the speaker rather than time: e.g. *Did* you *want* to see me now?

4.11 Simple future

The simple future tense has two analytical forms: **shall** + infinitive, **will** + infinitive. The auxiliary **shall** was used with a first person subject (singular and plural), whereas **will** normally occurred with the second and third person subjects. In present-day English **will** (or its contracted form '**ll**) can be used in all persons. But it can be replaced, optionally, by **shall** with a first person subject.

$$
\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{I} \\ \\ \text{We} \end{array} \right\} \text{ will/shall be on time.} \quad \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{You} \\ \text{He, she,} \\ \text{it, they} \end{array} \right\} \text{ will be on time.}
$$

The future tense relates events or describes conditions in the future[*], i.e. at the time following the moment of speech:

> We'*ll go* there as soon as possible and *search* the place; You *will come* with Gwen next week, *won't* you?

Note:

There are several other ways of expressing future in English. The most important future constructions are: be about + 'to'-infinitive (e.g. I feel something terrible *is about to happen*); be on the point/verge of (e.g. He *is on the point of* death). "Be about + 'to'- infinitive" signifies an arrangement for the future (especially an official arrangement), while the other constructions emphasise the nearness of a future event.

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[*] For the simple present used to indicate future actions, see 4.9; for the present continuous used to indicate future actions, see 4.20

4.12 Future-in-the-past

A future as seen from the past can be expressed by **would** + infinitive, or optional **should** + infinitive with a first person subject, in indirect speech (1), or in the continuous context of a narrative (2):

No, Signorina Annabella, he didn't say he *would be coming* soon. He said he *would be* here, only that. He said we *should* all *come* at seven.

It was nearly nine o'clock. She *would have to* change and feed the baby at ten.

4.13 Secondary tenses

Secondary tenses are actually perfect forms. They consist of the auxiliary verb **have** in its predicative form and the past participle of the notional verb

I, we	have (had, will/shall have) arrived.
You	
They	have (had, will have) arrived.
He, she, it	has (had, will have) arrived.

The basic meaning of the perfect is **current relevance**, i.e. it mentions a past or future event only because the importance of that event is felt in the present or at some past or future moment:

You have taken your chance (and there is no other).

You had taken your chance (and there was no other).

You will have taken your chance (and there will be no other).

The doll has been broken. The child is crying bitterly.

The doll had been broken. The child was crying bitterly.

The doll will have been broken. The child will be crying bitterly.

There are a number of other meanings that go with the perfect forms, such as precedence (priority), accomplishment (completion), and some other meanings.

Note:

Perfect forms of verbs of motion are sometimes found with the auxiliary 'be' which is a survival of old English: e.g. The blossoming time of their hope *was come*; But will you think of it after I *am gone*? (= after I die). In informal English 'be gone' is used to explain a situation (especially when someone or something disappeared) rather than describe what has happened. 'Gone' in this usage functions almost adjectively: e.g. My purse *is gone*. Someone has taken it; When I turned round you *were gone*.

4.14 Present perfect

The present perfect mentions a past event whose importance or effects are still continuing to be felt or will be felt in the future.

I *have taken* an aspirin. I'm better now; He's sleeping late, he*'s been* up all night; You know, I'll hate what I*'ve done* sometimes.

Since the present perfect includes the moment of speech or a period leading up to the present time, the following time indicators can be used with it: **today, this week, lately, already, always, ever, never, yet, so far,** and the like.

> The postman *has* already *been*. (The postman has been already.)
> I'*ve* always *been* on the old side. (= I've always felt old.)
> Up to now we *have been* lucky.

The present perfect can name a future action completed before a definite moment in the future in temporal and conditional clauses.

> I don't feel I can ring him up at home until I'*ve met* his mother; The idea will slip through you if you *haven't made* a study of the first and second sections of the book.

Note:

[a] There is some tendency, especially in American English, to use the past simple informally instead of the present perfect to refer to the recent indefinite past: e.g. I *saw* it already (= I have already seen it); *Did* you eat yet? (= Have you eaten yet?).

[b] The present is used with verbs of communication and the verbs 'understand' and 'forget', where more strictly the present perfect would be appropriate:

Я слышал, что Вы сменили работу.	I *hear* you've changed your job.
Мне сказали, что Вы сменили работу.	They *tell* me you've changed your job.
Понял.	(Now) I *understand.*
Я забыл название книги.	I *forget* the title of the book (a certain fact).
Я забыл, где он живет.	I *forget* where he lives (= his address).

But compare: I'*ve forgotten* to ring her up (a certain action).

4.15 Present perfect or simple past

Either the present perfect or simple past could occur with the time indicators **today, this morning, this week** and the like.

I { have seen / saw } him today/this morning.

The present perfect is acceptable if the time indicators include the moment of speech. But if the day has passed or it is morning no longer the simple past is used.

We often find sentences, with no time indicator, in which the use of the present perfect or simple past depends on whether the event refers to a period begun in the past and stretching up to the present or to a period now past.

'Have you had a good time?' would be a reasonable question to ask at the end of the party, while

'Did you have a good time?' would be the right question to ask the day after.

We normally use the past tense after **since**: e.g. You've changed since I *saw* you last. The past tense shows when the change started, or in what period it has taken place. The perfect form is acceptable but not as common as the past tense after **since**. It is used to emphasise the parallel nature of the action; e.g. My hair has got whiter since I *have been* here.

A simple present or present perfect tense can occur in sentences containing **ever**. The difference in meaning can be illustrated by the following examples:

> Do you ever *ride* a motor bike? (i.e. Are you in the habit of riding it?)
> *Have* you ever *ridden* a motor bike? (i.e. Did it ever happen in your life?)

The simple past is used in the following cases, where more strictly the present perfect would seem to be appropriate:

Что Вы сказали?	What *did* you *say*?
Я не слышал Вашего вопроса.	I *didn't hear* your question.
Где Вы купили книгу?	Where *did* you *buy* the book?

4.16 Past perfect

Its meaning is quite similar to that of the present perfect, except that the point of interest is some moment in the past, rather than 'now'. The past perfect names the events whose effects or results were still important at some past moment.

> He *had* already *drafted* the introduction, he knew what he was going to say.

Like the simple past, the past perfect is **a narrative** tense. It marks a step back in the narration, relating past events that occurred before other events in the past.

> Darkness *had fallen*... when, half an hour later, the engine panted into Blaenelly.

The past perfect can be used in temporal and conditional clauses to express completion of a future action viewed from the past.

> ... the next morning Uncle Gavin came for me before I *had finished* breakfast; But Mor decided that it was better to wait a little while until the situation *had become* clearer ...

The idea of "before past" is often marked by the following time indicators: **already, always, ever, never, before, once, up to then**, etc, and also by such indicators of exact time as **a year ago, an hour before, last night, then**, etc.

4.17 Past perfect or past indefinite

In some contexts the past perfect and the simple past are interchangeable:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{After} \\ \text{When} \end{array} \right\} \text{they} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{left} \\ \text{had left} \end{array} \right\} \text{the room, he smiled at me.}$$

When describing one event following another in the past, we can show their relation by using the past perfect for the earlier event, or else we can use the past tense for both, and rely on the conjunctions (**after, when**) to show which event took place earlier.

A past or past perfect can occur in sentences containing **ever**. In case of a past tense the action is confined within a certain period of time.

Did you ever *meet* Jake at university?

When used with the past perfect **ever** means 'at any time up to now'.

She asked me if I *had* ever *been* in trouble with the people.

4.18 Future perfect

It is an extremely rare tense. The future perfect relates future events that will occur before other events in the future.

Tomorrow Jean and Ken *will have been married* twenty years.

You'll sleep, and when you wake these fancies *will have gone*.

The future perfect is sometimes associated with the modal meaning of 'prediction', i.e. 'it is (highly) probable'.

The guests *will have arrived* by now; You *will* all *have heard* the news last night (i.e. I assume you heard it).

4.19 Aspect

The category of aspect is made up of the **common** and **continuous** (progressive) aspects. It concerns the manner in which the action is experienced or regarded: as a mere occurrence (fact) or activity in progress.

Common aspect   She *sings* beautifully (a fact)
Continuous aspect   She *is singing* beautifully (activity in progress)

4.20 Continuous aspect

The continuous forms consist of the auxiliary verb **be** in its predicative form and the present participle of the notional verb.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{I am (was, shall/will be)} \\ \text{We, you, they are (were, will be)} \\ \text{He, she, it is (was, will be)} \end{array} \right\} \text{moving.}$$

The continuous aspect indicates **temporariness,** i.e. limited duration of the action.

'Is she *sleeping*?' Kate whispered; You *were sleeping* when I left; He'*ll be closing* in ten minutes.

Since the continuous forms express an activity going on at a definite moment or period of time they can be used with adverbs and adverbial phrases indicating that moment or period of time:

(right) now	this week (month, etc)	then
then at the moment	today	still
at 5 o'clock	soon	next, etc

There are a number of other meanings or overtones that go with the present, past and future continuous, such as incompletion, vividness of description, emotional colouring and emphasis, etc. Compare:

I *go* there often.	**Characteristic activity.**
I'*m going* there often.	**Vivid description** of an activity characteristic of a period.
She always *came* late.	**Habitual activity**. It allows an objective overtone.
She was always *coming* late.	**Emphatic description** of a habitual activity reinforced by an obligatory adverbial ('always, constantly, for ever'). It imparts a subjective overtone and is informal.
When *will* you *come*?	**Present intentions** (volitional interpretation - insistence -is possible).
When *will* you be *coming*?	A **'future - as - a - matter - of – course'**. It does not suggest intention and is therefore more polite.

As pointed out in 1.4, the continuous occurs only with dynamic verbs (or more accurately, with verbs in dynamic use). Dynamic verbs include (a) activity verbs: **ask, call, drink, listen, read, say, work**, etc; (b) process verbs: **change, grow**, etc; (c) verbs of bodily sensation: **ache, feel, hurt**, etc; (d) momentary verbs: **hit, jump, nod**, etc and others.

(a) I'*m learning* more; (b) The weather *is changing* for the worse; (c) My back *is hurting*; (d) When I looked at him he *was nodding*.

The verbs which are called static verbs do not normally admit of the continuous (*He was knowing the answer). Static verbs include (a) verbs of sensory perception and judgement: **believe, consider, expect, fear, hate, know, like, prefer**, etc; (b) relation verbs: **be, belong, contain, deserve, have, matter, mean, own, resemble, require**, etc; and others.

Although static verbs may be labelled as 'non-progressive', there are special circumstances in which you hear them used in the continuous. In many circumstances, one may say that the static verb has been changed into a dynamic verb (or it has been given a dynamic use) as it refers to an active form of behaviour.

I *was seeing* and *hearing* it done; I *wasn't being* an objective, doctor;
What can I get you? - Whatever you'*re having*.

In the same way, **think, imagine, remember**, and the like can sometimes be used as 'mental activity' verbs.

I'*m thinking* about what you said.

If a static verb has several meanings it can be made dynamic by some of them, thus it may take the continuous. Compare:

⎧ I *consider* this his best work (A judgement).
⎨ I *am considering* buying one of his pictures (i.e. I am in the process of making a decision).
⎩

⎧ I saw him at the railway station (i.e. I perceived him there by the eye).
⎨ I *was seeing* her *off* (= I was going with her to the railway station).
⎩

Notes:

[a] Another exceptional case is the use of the continuous with 'hope, want', etc to express greater tentativeness and tact: e.g. *Were* you *wanting* to see me?; We *are hoping* you will support us.

[b] The present and past continuous sometimes signify a fixed arrangement for the future: e.g. The plane *is taking off* at 5.20; I *was meeting* him the next day.

[c] The future continuous is freely used with the modal meaning of prediction, i.e. for imagining what people are doing right now: e.g. My parents *will* probably *be getting up* about now and *making breakfast* (i.e. I assume ...).

4.21 Perfect forms of the continuous aspect

Perfect forms of the continuous aspect are analytical forms which are made with present, past and future perfect forms of the auxiliary verb **be** and a present participle of the notional verb.

I, we	have (had, shall/will have) been	⎫
You, they	have (had, will have) been	⎬ moving.
He, she, it	has (had, will have) been	⎭

4.22 Present perfect continuous

The present perfect continuous is used with dynamic verbs, when the speaker is emphasising the idea of activity in progress in the present period (i.e. which started in the past and has continued up to the present).

It *has been raining*, but it has stopped now.

With some verbs the present perfect continuous may suggest an action continuing into the present.

I'*ve been waiting* for an hour.

The present perfect continuous with verbs which do not generally take the continuous describes an action as if it were in progress and imparts an emotionally coloured tone.

> What *has been happening*?; I've *been meaning* to say something to you about that, but I haven't known now.

4.23 Present perfect or present perfect continuous

The present perfect continuous suggests not only that the activity is temporary (i.e. of limited duration), but that it need not be complete. Compare:

> I *have been mending* the car this morning (but the job may not be finished).
> I *have mended* the car this morning (the job is finished).
> I *have been learning* German since we last met and made some progress in it.
> I *have learnt* all the regular verbs since we last met (and now I know them all).

The present perfect continuous is used especially for more temporary actions and situations; when one talks about more permanent situations, the present perfect is preferred. Compare:

> I've *been living* in Sally's flat for the last month.
> My parents *have lived* in Bristol all their lives.
> I *haven't been working* very well recently.
> He *hasn't worked* for years.

Either form would be acceptable when we talk about actions that have been repeated in a period up to the present.

It { rained / been raining } every day this week.

There may be only a slight difference in meaning between the following utterances:

> I've *lived* in France for two years (and I'm still there).
> I've *been living* in France for two years (It says what one has been doing during this period).

Note:

> English speakers themselves do not always discriminate clearly between the two verb forms in the last contrastive pair of sentences. The most common way of talking about it is "I've been living in France for two years" since the speaker looks at his living in this country as something continuous. Notice that "I'm living in France for two years" is only acceptable if it is intended to mean "I am going to live in France for that period".

4.24 Past perfect continuous

The past perfect continuous is used with action verbs, when the idea of activity in progress in the past period is conveyed.

I *had been working* too hard and found I needed a rest.

The past perfect continuous usually lacks emotional colouring though verbs which do not generally take the continuous acquire in the past perfect continuous some emphasis.

She knew he *had been hoping* for it ardently.

4.25 Future perfect continuous

The future perfect continuous hardly ever occurs in English owing to the fact that it is seldom required by the situation. When used in speech it acquires some shade of modality equal in its meaning to 'may + infinitive' and expresses not a future but a past time process.

> That's how she'*ll have been passing* her time this morning (The conversation took place at dinner time).
>
> "Are you drunk, woman?" he roared at her. - "She'*ll have been taking* a little bit at the bottle to keep her strength up," tittered Grandma Brodie maliciously.

4.26 Sequence of tenses

In a continuous text, it is usually considered desirable to retain the same tense, present or past, for each step in the narrative, description or argument. This involves one or the other of two combinations:

Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect and one of the Future Tenses, as in

> We *live* in Maple Street. They are building a swimming pool near our house. We *have been* here for ten years and *will* probably *stay* here for the rest of our lives.

Past Indefinite, Past Continuous, Past Perfect and Future-in-the-Past:

> We *lived* in Maple Street. They were building houses all around us then. We *had been* there for ten years and *imagined* we *would stay* there for the rest of our lives.

However, any combination of tenses is possible if each tense is used appropriately to express the speaker's exact meaning. Thus:

> I *don't know* what to think, Gloria. Your last letter, cold, without a word of affection or even a decent account of what you've *been doing,* came two weeks ago.

To report what someone has stated, one can either use quotation marks (direct speech) or a subordinate clause which can be called a **reported** clause (indirect speech). To introduce direct and indirect speech a reporting verb is used which is usually a verb of saying.

> "I should be with you by seven," she said.

"Sure you won't mind the empty house? I hate arriving at empty houses, myself." I said no, I liked an empty house.

In narrative, the reporting verb is usually in the past tense. In this case, certain changes are normally made in converting from direct speech. The change of tense of the verb follows the rules of the **sequence of tenses.**

The sequence of tenses is the principle in accordance with which the tense in a subordinate clause 'follows' or is adjusted to that of the main clause; thus, in general, when the main clause has a simple present, present perfect, or future, the subordinate clause has a present tense (primary sequence); when the main clause has a simple past or past perfect, the subordinate clause has a past (primary sequence).

Direct speech		Indirect speech
(1) present	⟶	past
(2) past	⟶	past perfect
(3) present perfect	⟶	past perfect
(4) future	⟶	future-in-the-past

(1) "They *can* sleep in this room". She suggested that they could sleep in that room.

(2) "I *moved* here two years ago". He explained that he had moved there two years before.

(3) "Our team *has won*". They claimed that their team *had won*.

(4) "I *will ring* you tomorrow". She promised that she *would ring* him the next day.

Occasionally, however, the tense is not adjusted.

Note:

The rules of tense sequence are observed in clauses of second, third, etc. grade of subordination. Yet the choice of the tense is determined here by the tense of the clause to which it is subordinated: e.g. Awkwardly, with kindness, he asked me about my studies. He said that Ann *had told* him how I *was working*.

4.27 Exceptions

There are three exceptions to the rules of tense sequence.

Past perfect verbs in direct speech are not changed in indirect speech:

'I had left before they arrived.' He said (that) he *had left* before they (had) arrived.'

Modal verbs which have only one form **must, need, ought, should** do not normally change. But **must** can also be reported as **had to**:

'You *must* go.' ⟶ She said that they $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{must} \\ \text{had to} \end{array}\right\}$ go.

'You need courage.'	⟶	He asserted that I *need* courage.
'Bob ought to know her.'	⟶	Dick confirmed that Bob *ought* to know her.
'You *should* be more careful.'	⟶	I told him he *should* be more careful.

When the idea expressed in the reported statement can also be applied to situations which still exist in the present, there is no need to change the tense:

'The earth *goes* round the sun.'	⟶	Galileo proved that the earth *goes* round the sun.
'Force only *invites* force.'	⟶	He replied that force only *invites* force.
I'*m* only 18.	⟶	She told me the other day that she'*s* only 18.

However, past tenses are also possible in these cases and the following conversation would sound quite natural.

'How old are you?' – 'I beg your pardon?' – 'I asked how old you *were*.'

'Where's Anthony?' – 'The Japanese servant told me he *was* at some inn. Having dinner, I suppose.'

In sentences like these, English speakers often use present tenses if they feel that they are reporting facts; past tenses are preferred if the speaker is not sure of the truth of what he reports. Compare:

She told me she'*s getting married* next June. (And I believed her.)

She told me she *was getting married* next June. (It may be true, it may not.)

Note:

[a] 'Indirect' (reported) speech as is used here includes unspoken mental activity when the reporting verbs 'think, believe, feel', etc. are used: e.g. But she had thought she *had closed* the door; Jennie had realized that she *had won*.

[b] Frequently, there is a change from 'this/these' to 'that/those', from 'here' to 'there', from 'now' to 'then', and etc., but there are no exact rules for changing these words: one uses whatever expressions will make the meaning clear in the situation.

[c] Notice that only 'I thought you *were* a gentleman' (And now I see you are not.) is acceptable if it is intended to mean that the thinking was untruthful.

4.28 Voice

Voice is a grammatical category which shows in what relation the subject is placed to the action expressed by the predicate verb. There are two voice forms

in English: **active** and **passive forms** (**sees :: is seen**). The passive voice form is analytical. It comprises the auxiliary verb **be** followed by participle II of the notional verb.

ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
writes	is written
is writing	is being written
wrote	was written
was writing	was being written
will write	will be written
has written	has been written
has been writing	
had written	had been written
had been writing	
will have written	will have been written
will have been writing	
would write	would be written
would be writing	
would have written	would have been written

The active voice form indicates that the subject of the sentence denotes the doer of the action expressed by the predicate:

We *have* already *discussed* it.

The passive voice form shows that the subject of the sentence is affected by the action expressed by the predicate verb. The doer of the action, if mentioned, is expressed by a noun (or pronoun) preceded by the preposition **by**.

It has already *been discussed* (by us).

The possibility of using a given verb in the passive voice correlates with the division of verbs into subjective and objective.

Subjective verbs do not require an object and are associated only with the subject: **come, go, fall**, etc.

Objective verbs require one or two objects: **see, laugh (at), give**, etc. The majority of objective verbs can be used in the passive voice form.

There are the following main correspondences between the subject of the passive construction and the object of the active construction.

The subject of the passive construction corresponds to the non-prepositional object of the active construction. The object mentioned is sole object in the given construction.

Many people have been arrested for giving out leaflets.

Cf.: They have arrested many people.

The subject of the passive construction corresponds to one of the two non-prepositional objects of the active construction. There are two main variants:

a) the subject corresponds to the direct object of the active construction:

The house was shown to me. Cf.: They showed me *the house*; *A pair of sandals* was bought for Johny (by mother). Cf.: Mother bought Johny *a pair of sandals*.

As seen from the examples above, the indirect object of the active construction often becomes prepositional in the passive construction (mainly with **to** and **for**).

There are a number of verbs in English which take two direct objects. Here belong such verbs as **ask, answer, envy, forgive**.

As a rule it is the object denoting a person that functions as subject in constructions with these verbs.

I was asked a question. Cf.: He asked me a question;
He was answered nothing. Cf.: They answered *him* nothing.

The verb **forgive** admits of two variants: *You* will not be forgiven your rudeness; *Your rudeness* will not be forgiven. Cf.: They will not forgive *you your rudeness*.

b) the subject corresponds to the indirect object of the active construction:

He was awarded the prize. Cf.: They awarded him the prize.
He was given a book. Cf.: They gave him a book.

The subject of the passive construction corresponds to the prepositional object of the active construction. This correspondence is common when the active construction contains only one object:

He needed to feel that he was listened to. Cf.: He needed to feel that they listened to *him*.

If, however, the prepositional object is preceded by a non-prepositional object it is the latter which usually functions as subject in the passive construction:

The problem was explained to me. Cf.: He explained *the problem* to me.

In a number of set expressions containing a non-prepositional object and a prepositional object either of the objects may become the subject of the passive construction:

He was not taken notice of; *No notice* was taken of him. Cf.: They took *no notice of him*; *Great care* was taken of his books; *His books* were taken great care of. Cf.: They took *great care of his books*.

The subject of the passive construction corresponds to the complex object of the active construction. Accordingly the subject of the passive construction is also complex. Its first part precedes the predicate whereas the second part follows it:

He was heard *to mention* it. Cf.: They heard *him mention* it;
He was seen *walking* across the field. Cf.: They saw *him walking* across the field.

In the four types of correspondences between the subject of the passive construction and the object of the active described above the object was not expressed by a clause. If the predicate verb of the active construction takes

a subordinate clause as object the subject of the passive construction is expressed by the so-called anticipatory **it**:

It was agreed that each member would invite a guest. Cf.: They agreed that *each member would invite a guest*.

It should be mentioned that a number of objective verbs do not have a passive. Here belong **resemble, suit, possess** and the like. They do not have a passive because they do not express actions affecting objects.

In a number of cases a verb can be used in the passive form in one meaning but cannot be used in the passive form in another meaning. For instance, **hold** and **have** cannot be used in the passive when they mean "contain" and "possess" respectively:

The house *held* six flats; *He* has an interesting book.

Yet the same verbs can be used in the passive when they denote actions:

The meeting *was held* at ten o'clock; Dinner can *be had* at any reasonable time.

4.29 Choice of the passive

The passive is generally used in the following instances:

When the doer of the action is unknown or cannot be easily stated:

The city *is* well *supplied* with water.

When one takes a greater interest in the thing done than in the doer of the action:

The deputation then made its way to Downing Street where a petition carrying 40,000 signatures *was handed in*.

When the doer of the action is not mentioned for some special reason (tact or delicacy of feeling): You *have been told* so many times not to touch these things.

The mentioning of the 1st person is avoided in scientific writing:

This book of reading *is compiled* to meet the needs of students taking a course in English grammar.

Note:

In informal style, 'get' is often combined with participle II to make a vivid expression with passive meaning that emphasises the action involved: e.g. Be careful so that you won't *get hurt*.

In a few cases, mostly with personal pronouns, the indirect object may occur after a passive voice form without a preposition: e.g. That lesson was taught *him* when he was quite young.

4.30 Mood

Mood is a grammatical category of the verb which expresses **modality**, i.e. relation of the action denoted by the predicate to reality from the speaker's point of view.

Finite verbs have three moods: the **indicative**, the **imperative** and the **subjunctive**. Non-finite verbs have no mood distinctions.

4.31 The indicative mood

Verbs in the **indicative** mood are inflected for three primary tenses (present, past, future), three secondary tenses (present perfect, past perfect, future perfect), two aspects (common and continuous) and two voices (active and passive).

The indicative mood has a **factual** meaning. It represents an action as a fact or an event which is in close relation with reality.

> The sun *rises* in the east (a fact); I shall not go to the country, if it *rains* (a real condition).

The indicative mood forms do not necessarily express actions which are true to fact or actually take place in reality. In some cases the issue of truth is only assumed by the speaker.

> "I'*ve seen* to it," he said, but everyone knew it was not true.

4.32 The imperative mood

The **imperative** mood has practically one form, the stem of the verb, without endings for tense or number.

> *Stop*; *Read on*; *Look* it *up* in a dictionary.

The auxiliary **do not (don't)** is used to form the negative.

> *Don't be* late, please.

In the imperative there is no tense distinction, and only very rarely the continuous or 'get' + participle II forms occur.

> *Be preparing* the dinner when he comes in; *Get washed*.

The imperative mood represents an action as a command or request. It is a direct expression of the speaker's will.

The pronoun **you** is understood but not normally used. To specify the people who have to obey the command a second or third person subject can be put in front of the verb in the imperative (note that **you** is stressed in this case):

> *You take* this tray, and *you take* that one; *Jack* and *Susan, stand* over there; *Somebody open* the door.

Elsewhere, a command with **you** has a tone of impatience.

> *You mind* your own business; *You be* quiet.

Another form of impatient command begins with **will**: e.g. *Will* you *be* quiet! Although this has the grammatical form of a question, its falling intonation gives it the force of a command.

Note:

> Commands sound abrupt unless toned down by markers of politeness such as 'please': e.g. Please eat up your dinner; Shut the door, please. Even this only achieves a minimum degree of tentativeness; a more tactful

form of request can only be arrived at if one changes the command into a question or a statement: e.g. Will you shut the door, please?; I wonder if you would kindly shut the door; I wonder whether you would mind shutting the door.

The tags 'why don't you' and 'will you' (after a negative command) can tone down a command: e.g. Come in, why don't you?; Don't be late, will you (?). But after a positive command, 'will you' has rising intonation, and usually expresses impatience: e.g. Sit down, will you (?).

4.33 The subjunctive mood

What we understand by the subjunctive mood includes two entirely different kinds of forms, synthetical and analytical, united by the same grammatical meaning of irreality.

The synthetical forms of the subjunctive mood are partly survivals of the old simple subjunctive. They are called **subjunctive I** (e.g. We demand he *come* on time) and **subjunctive II** (e.g. I wish he *came* on time). The new analytical forms with the auxiliaries **should** and **would** have replaced the former simple subjunctive. They are known as the **suppositional** mood (e.g. I demand he *should come* on time) and the **conditional** mood (e.g. If he knew he *would come* in time).

Unlike the indicative which is a fact mood (e.g. I'm glad that John *has agreed* - a fact), the subjunctive may be called a thought mood (e.g. I wish John *had agreed* - a thought). The subjunctive presents an action as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desirable. It does not reflect an actual reality but shows events formed in the mind of the speaker as supposition, desire, volition, etc.: I *would* do it, if *could* (The fact is that the speaker cannot do it); If he *were* here! (But he is not here).

4.34 Subjunctive I

Subjunctive I has only one form which coincides with the stem of the verb; this means there is no regular indicative agreement between the subject and predicate verb in the third person singular present, and the present and past are indistinguishable.

Ann insists (insisted, will insist) { I, we / You / He, she, it, they } *keep* regular hours.

The negative is formed by putting **not** before the stem. The auxiliary **do** is never used.

The teacher recommends that the student *not miss* any classes.

Subjunctive I presents an action as problematic and desirable, but not contrary to fact.

Subjunctive I is normally used in 'that'-clauses when the main clause contains an expression of recommendation, resolution, demand, and so on (e.g. *we suggest/ require/ order*, etc.; *it is urgent/ important, advisable/ strange/ doubtful*, etc.; *the order/ request/ plan*, etc. **is**).

> The committee arranged that the visit *be extended* (object clause); It is requested that no one *smoke* in the hall (subject clause); The rule is that the students *have* at least one workbook between two (predicative clause); No one will accept your suggestion that we *work* extra hours (appositive attributive clause).

Occasionally, subjunctive I is used in conditional (1) and concessive (2) clauses which express a 'real' condition, i.e. a condition which leaves unresolved the question of the fulfilment or non-fulfilment of the action.

(1) If a political solution *be found* the economic climate will improve.

(2) Whatever *be* the reasons for it, we cannot tolerate disloyalty.

Subjunctive I is common in American English: e.g. She repeated her request that he *join* them that evening (M. Wilson); ... so necessary was it to her love that she *attract* the attention of her distant child (Th.Wilder).

Until quite recently in British English subjunctive I was chiefly found in formal style: e.g. It is essential that this fact *be remembered* (Ch. Dickens); I propose that the Board *withdraw* (J. Galsworthy), whereas in less formal contexts it was replaced by the suppositional mood or infinitive.

In present-day British English the use of subjunctive I is growing wider. It is gaining ground in informal style: e.g. "I suggest we *wait* a while" (I. Murdoch).

Subjunctive I is also found in certain set expressions which are all formal and rather elevated or archaic; e.g.

Success *attend* you!	Да сопутствует Вам успех!
Long *live* the Queen!	Да здравствует Королева!
So *be* it.	Пусть так и будет.
Come what will/may, ...	Будь, что будет, ...
Be this/that as it may, ...	Как бы то ни было, …
Heaven *forbid* that ...	Боже упаси, чтобы ...
Suffice it to say that ...	Достаточно сказать, что ...
Far *be* it from me to criticize, but ...	Я далек от того, чтобы критиковать, но ...
The powers that *be* ...	Власти предержащие…
If need *be*...	В случае необходимости…

Note:

> Subjunctive I is used in certain imprecations: e.g. *Damn* (it)! «Леший побери!»; *Confound* it! (=God destroy it!) «Проклятье!»; Manners *be hanged*! «Долой всякие церемонии!»

In modern English there is a tendency to replace subjunctive I by the indicative: e.g. It is essential that nuclear weapons *be banned*. ⟶It is essential that nuclear weapons *are banned*. This substitution is avoided, however, in cases when a difference in meaning may arise. Cf.: I insist that he *take* the medicine «Я настаиваю, чтобы он принял лекарство» and I insist that he *takes* the medicine «Я утверждаю, что он принимает лекарство».

4.35 The suppositional mood

The **suppositional mood** has only one form, '**should** + infinitive' in all persons.

It is (was) odd

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I, we} \\ \text{You} \\ \text{He, she, it} \\ \text{they} \end{array} \right\}$$

should go there.

Certain patterns admit of a perfect infinitive which denotes priority.

It is impossible that they *should have said* it; I am sorry she *should have liked* it; They feared that something *should have happened* to him.

The suppositional mood expresses a problematic action, a sort of supposition made by the speaker, in some cases a sense of obligation, i.e. the idea that something must be done, or is important. This happens after **volitional verbs** like **command, order, insist, request, suggest, recommend** (e.g. He insisted that the contract *should be read* aloud) and after emotive adjectives like **important, essential, necessary, eager, anxious** (e.g. We're anxious that everything *should go* smoothly).

The suppositional mood is also used in subordinate clauses in sentences which express personal reactions to events, for instance, with words like **natural, interesting, amazing, sorry, it is a shame** (in these cases **should** is more common with a perfect infinitive, it is the so-called past suppositional).

I was shocked that she *shouldn't have invited* her sister.

The suppositional mood occurs in different types of subordinate clauses:
subject clauses which are often postponed by an introductory **it**.

That such a chance *should have taken* place was incredible;
It's dreadful that he *should have been killed*;

predicative clauses

The order is that the students *should be dismissed*;

object clauses

I was anxious that she *should do* less;

appositive clauses

There's no reason why they *shouldn't make a good living* here;
The idea that he *should see* the play made her happy;

clauses of purpose

I shall do it so that she *should not worry;*

clauses of cause

> I had got the car out early in case I *should get lost* on the way;

clauses of result

> I didn't see why I should pay out so many guineas per week so that Antonia *should question* Palmer about his childhood;

clauses of 'real' condition

> *Should* the economic climate *improve*, consider the expansion (=If the economic climate *should improve*, consider the expansion.)

The suppositional occasionally occurs in simple sentences with the structure of a conditional clause.

> And supposing that he *should not* speak to her nor she to him. Impossible! Ridiculous! Terrible! (= And if he should not speak ...)

Note:

Clauses of purpose and object clauses are occasionally introduced by the now archaic and very formal conjunction 'lest' (= in order that ... not ...). In this case 'should + infinitive' is used in the affirmative as 'lest' has a negative meaning: e.g. He hid the letter lest his father *should read* it; She feared lest she *should be blamed*.

The suppositional which occurs in conditional clauses is slightly formal or literary and suggests tentative conditions. It is rendered in Russian by случайно, если окажется, все же, когда-нибудь, если вам случится. The construction which has subject-predicate inversion without a conjunction "Should the economic climate improve, ..." is rather literary in tone, and can always be replaced by an 'if'-construction.

The suppositional can usually be replaced by the indicative without much difference of meaning. Cf.: I am surprised that he *should feel* lonely (= he feels); He recommended that the title of the article *should be changed* (= the title was changed).

4.36 The conditional mood

The **conditional** mood has two analytical forms: **should** + infinitive; **would** + infinitive. The auxiliary **should** was normally used with a first person subject (singular and plural), whereas **would** generally occurred with second and third person subjects. In present-day English **would** (or its contracted form **'d**) can be used in all persons. But it can be replaced, optionally, by **should** with a first person subject.

But for John
- I, we / you : would/should go
- he, she, it, they : would go

The infinitive can be non-perfect and perfect. The forms **would/should** + non-perfect infinitive indicate contemporary unreality, i.e. unreal meaning in the present or future. They are called the **present conditional**.

> In your place, he *would* take it now; I *wouldn't say* this unless I were pretty sure.

Past unreality, i.e. unreal meaning in the past, is indicated by the forms **would/should** + perfect infinitive which are called the **past conditional**.

> Otherwise, he *would have sold* his tape-recorder last year; It *would* then *have been* possible to deceive you, though whether they *would have done* so I don't know.

The conditional mood expresses contingent actions, i.e. actions dependent on a certain unreal condition.

> "He *would smoke* too much if I didn't stop him;"
> "Bledyard *would have done* it for nothing," said Nan.

The unreal condition can be **explicit** (expressed) or **implicit** (implied). Explicit conditions are expressed by conditional and concessive clauses or by a prepositional phrase **but for** ... used in the sense of 'negative condition': If it were not for Vesta she *would have sought* some regular outside employment; If I had not appeared there *would have* been a quarrel; Had the circumstances been different the government *would have acted* swiftly; I *should fail* in the subject even though I passed all the tests; But for the classes she *would stay* in bed (= If it were not for the classes ... ; If there were no classes ...).

Implicit conditions are understood from a context.

> I'*d be glad* to see you again (if you dropped in);
> He *would let* me know (if he were aware of it);
> She is having classes or/otherwise we *should meet* her in the common room (= If she had no classes we should meet her in the common room);
> What *would* I ever do without you? (= What would I do if you were not here?)

The conditional mood is chiefly used in main clauses of complex sentences with unreal conditional clauses (1) and in simple sentences with an unreal condition implied (2).

> (1) It *would have been* so much better if you had stayed;
> (2) You *wouldn't believe* it.

Note:

> Occasionally, the conditional mood is used in subordinate clauses. Being implied an unreal condition in such cases can be developed into a conditional clause subordinated to the clause containing the conditional mood: e.g. You know as well as I do that any such talk *would be* insincere (... that any such talk would be insincere if it took place).

The auxiliaries 'would' and 'should' can be replaced by modals: e.g. If wishes were horses beggars *might* ride; If I saw her I *could not tell* her the truth - and neither *could* I *bear* to lie to her face-to-face.

4.37 Subjunctive II

The conditional mood used in main clauses is frequently combined with subjunctive II in subordinate clauses.

conditional   s. II

I *shouldn't worry* if I *were* you; The plan was to rob the safe, and if we

s.II   s.II   conditional

were seen - whoever *saw* us *would have to go*.

Subjunctive II present has the forms homonymous with the past indicative.

I wish (wished, will wished)	I, we you he, she, it they	stopped crying.

Subjunctive II present of the verb **be** is **were** which occurs even with a 1st or 3rd person singular subject.

It is (was) as if	I, we you he, she, it they	_were_ of help.

In less formal style of present-day English the ordinary past tense **was** can replace **were** with 1st and 3rd person singular subjects.

He spoke to me as if I *was* deaf; It's time science *was brought* into the front line.

Note that the form of subjunctive II present is only identical with the past tense. It has nothing to do with past time. Its reference is to present or future time. Subjunctive II present indicates contemporary unreality, i.e. unreal meaning in the present or future.

If we *had* enough money, I would buy a radio today/tomorrow.

Past time when combined with unreality is expressed by **subjunctive II past** which is homonymous with the past perfect of the verb.

I wish (wished, will wish)	I, we you he, she, it, they	*had stopped* crying.

Subjunctive II past indicates past unreality/. i.e. unreal meaning in the past.

Subjunctive II is hypothetical in meaning. It is used to talk about events which are not certain to happen - which one hopes will happen, or imagines might happen, or wants to happen.

> Perhaps you'd tell me if we *had dinner* together tonight; If against the operation and she *died*, how face her mother and the doctor afterwards?; I wish those three old women *would clear out*.

Subjunctive II is found in subordinate clauses of different types:

object clauses

> after the verb **wish**
>> I wish you *hadn't stopped* your German;
>
> after verbs of judgement expressing negative or doubtful meaning when followed by the subordinators **if** or **whether**
>> Then I wondered if I *were going* mad;
>
> in formal style after the connectors **SUPPOSE** and **IMAGINE**
>> Suppose he *wrote* you, would you answer?
>
> after the expressions **would rather** and **would sooner**, the latter being informal
>> I'd rather/sooner you *kept* quiet about this;

predicative clauses

> She looked as if she *had been* up all night;

clauses of manner and comparison

> You speak of it as if it *were* a work of art;

clauses of unreal condition

> I should be mad with rage if I *were* you;

clauses of concession

> However much advice you *gave* him he would do exactly what he wants.

Subjunctive II occurs after the impersonal expressions **it is/was as if, it seems/seemed (as if)** and **it is (high) time**:

> It is as if they *had talked* in detail for a long time; It seemed he *knew* the way; It's time the day *was* over.

Subjunctive II is occasionally used in simple sentences which have the structure of a conditional clause. They open with intensified equivalents of **if: if only; oh. if; oh, that,** typically used to express a wish, especially in exclamations.

> If only the work *would* go right (subjunctive II of the verb 'will' used for emphasis); Oh, that I *could* be with you again!

Note:

Only 'were' is acceptable in 'as it were' (= so to speak): e.g. Jim Radcliffe became our idol, *as it were,* the man we all wanted to be; 'were' is usual in 'if I *were* you'.

In object clauses after the verb 'wish' referring to the present or future, subjunctive II of the verb 'will' is used to express regret or annoyance. Note, that it can be used if the subjects of the clauses are different: e.g. I wish she *would* come. "Хоть бы она пришла!"; I wish you *would* stop it. "Да перестань же ты наконец".

In conditional clauses to express hypothetical future the construction 'were to + infinitive' is used: e.g. Supposing he *were to destroy* everything in order to be with her, would it turn out in the end to be a disaster? This construction is slightly formal or literary and suggests tentative conditions.

"Were" and "had" could begin an unreal conditional clause in formal and somewhat literary style: e.g. *Were* the circumstances different we should invite him to the conference; *Had* he been able to vote the outcome would have been a tie. This construction is more common with 'had', but in either of the cases it can be replaced by an 'if'-clause.

For a hypothetical circumstance we use the verb 'wish' which expresses regret rather than wish. "I wish he went" means "I am sorry he doesn't go" and it is translated into Russian as "Жаль, что он не идет".

The construction 'It is not/was not/will not be as if/as though smb did/had done smth' is emphatic: e.g. It's not as if I *were* twenty. "Ведь мне не двадцать лет"; It won't be as if you *were* a party to it. "Ведь ты же не будешь соучастником".

4.38 Tenses of the subjunctive

The suppositional and conditional moods as well as subjunctive II have two tenses: present and past.

The present forms of the subjunctive are used to talk about events which refer to the moment of speech or follow it.

> It is/was/will be natural that he *should work* hard; They have agreed/agreed that she *should meet* them after lunch; If they *could* just see me now!; You feel/felt/ will feel as if you *were* ill after the injection; In her place, I'*d* strongly *disapprove* of you; It would be months before he was fit for work, if, indeed, he *were* ever fit for work again.

The past forms are used to talk about events which are prior to the moment of speech.

> It is/was natural that he *should have worked* hard last year; He is/was/will be surprised that her look *should have reassured* him; If they *could have seen* me yesterday; You feel/felt/will feel as if you *had been* ill (and were recovering your strength); Twenty years ago I *would have* strongly *disapproved* of you; If he *had been fit* for work, his family *would have been kept* in bread.

In the majority of conditional sentences events described by subjunctive II and conditional have the same time reference: present (1), future (2) or past (3).

> If I had time I *should go* on a short holiday right now;
>
> If I *were invited* again, I'*d join* them in a few minutes;
>
> If I *had dropped* the idea at the start everything *would have been* different.

But tenses of the conditional mood in the main clause and subjunctive II in the subordinate clause need not be necessarily parallel. Any combination of forms is possible to express the speaker's exact meaning. We can divide all these cases into two groups: neutral (basic) and mixed.

The neutral group comprises sentences with the same tense in either of the clauses.

> I *wouldn't scold* him (now) if he *worked* properly (every day);
>
> I *wouldn't have scolded* him (yesterday) if he *had worked* properly (then).

The mixed group comprises sentences with any other combination of tenses.

> I *wouldn't scold* him (now) if he *had worked* properly (yesterday);
>
> I *wouldn't have scolded* him yesterday if he *worked* properly (every day).

All these sentences are rendered in Russian as "Я бы его не ругала, если бы он работал как следует". In Russian only the time indicators and the context can make the time reference clear.

In converting direct to indirect speech there is no adjustment of the subjunctive forms in the reported clause.

> 'Even if our document on economic policy was perfect, it *would be* not good enough for the Special Congress to adopt it', said the Trade Union leader. The Trade Union leader asserted that even if their document on economic policy was perfect, it *would be* not good enough for the Special Congress to adopt it.

The present indicative and the subjunctive can be used interchangeably in clauses subordinated to those with the conditional and subjunctive II.

> I *shouldn't think* that you have a good chance.
>
> I *shouldn't think* that he had a good chance.

> If you only *knew* how wrong you are!
>
> If you only *knew* how wrong you were!

Subjunctive Mood Patterns

Type of subclause	Main clause		Conjunction	Subordinate clause	Mood
subject clause introduced by the anticipatory 'it'	it is/was	necessary urgent requested arranged a pity	that	smb should do smth smb do smth smb should do smth smb should have done smth	suppositional suppositional/ subjunctive I
Predicative clause	smb/smth	looks (ed) seems (ed) is (was)	as if/ as though	smb did smth smb had done smth	subjunctive II
	the order request plan suggestion	is/was	that	smb should do smth smb do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
Object clause	Smb	suggests (ed) insists (ed) arranges (ed)	that	smb should do smth smb do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
	Smb	wishes (ed)	that	smb did smth smb had done smth smb would do smth	subjunctive II
	Smb	fears (ed) is/was afraid	that / lest	smb should do smth smb should have done smth	suppositional

Clause of unreal condition	Smb	would do smth	if	smb did smth smb had done smth	subjunctive II
Clause of real condition	Smb	will do smth	if	smb should do/do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
Clause of purpose	Smb	does smth will do smth did smth	so that/ lest	smb should do smth smb do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
Clause of comparison	Smb	does smth will do smth did smth	as if / as though	smb did smth smb had done smth	subjunctive II
Clause of cause	Smb	fears to do smth	lest	smb should do / do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
Clause of concession	Smb	will do smth	whatever / however	smb should do / do smth smb did smth smb had done smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I subjunctive II
Clause of result	Smb	does smth	so that	smb should do/ do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I
Appositive clause	The	order suggestion plan	that	smb should do smth smb do smth	suppositional/ subjunctive I

4.39 Modals used as auxiliaries

We have considered above only those instances in which subjunctive forms proper are used; but in many patterns we may have a subjunctive equivalent formed with **could** or **might**.

The auxiliary **would** in the conditional mood form of the main clause can be replaced by the subjunctive mood form of the modals **can** and **may**:

> If you parked your car there, we *could* (=would) keep an eye on it; But for John, we *could* have lost the match; You'd better put your overcoat on, or you *might* catch a cold; With his office training he *might* find a job with us.

As is seen, **could** and **might** are used here for hypothetical possibility. In some cases, they are interchangeable:

> If someone were to make a mistake, the whole plan *could/might be ruined.*

May/can + infinitive are used to express problematic actions similarly to the suppositional mood. They are found in clauses of purpose (1) and in object clauses after expressions of fear in the main clause (2).

> I'll give his telephone number, so that you *may/can* call him when you arrive; He gave me his telephone number, so that I *might/could* call him when I arrived;
> I'm afraid that the house *may/can* catch fire; She worried that she *might/could* disturb them.

4.40 Modal verbs

M o d a l   v e r b s are a class of semi-auxiliary verbs that combine with the infinitive of a notional verb to make a verb phrase with a wide variety of meanings.

Modal verbs are eight in number.

$$\begin{Bmatrix} can \\ could \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} may \\ might \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} will \\ would \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} shall \\ should \end{Bmatrix} \quad must \quad need \quad dare \quad ought$$

Some modals exist in one form only. CAN, MAY, WILL, SHALL, WILL have three forms: the present and the past indicative, and the subjunctive, the latter being homonymous with the past tense forms.

The modals express various moods and attitudes towards a possible state or action, such as possibility, probability, obligation, necessity, and the like.

The modals are traditionally called defective in that:

(a) they have no inflection –S in the 3rd person singular;

(b) they lack non-finite and analytical forms (the future forms, the perfect forms, the passive forms, the aspect forms);

(c) they are not used in the imperative mood;

(d) all of them except OUGHT, are followed by the infinitive without the particle TO;

(e) all of them form the negative and the interrogative forms without the auxiliary DO.

The verbs NEED and DARE used as modals are confined to negative and interrogative sentences.

4.41 Can

The modal **can** is used to express:

Physical or intellectual ability; in this meaning it is used only with the indefinite infinitive in all kinds of sentences.

Can you lift this box?; He *can* swim under water; No one *could* tell the answer to this question; She *could* read when she was four.

Possibility due to circumstances; in this meaning it is also used with the indefinite infinitive.

We *can* sit at home and watch football matches in comfort, thanks to television; Lightning *can* be dangerous; Nobody *could* help me.

The subjunctive form **could** + indefinite infinitive is used with a present or future time reference when there is an idea of condition.

He *could do* it if he wanted to; *Could* you *get* another job (if you left this one)?

The subjunctive form could + perfect infinitive is used for possibility in the past when

the possibility was unrealized:

I *could have come* earlier if you'd told me; I *could have danced* all night.

we don't know whether the possibility was realized or not:

The money has disappeared: Who *could have taken* it?; Keith *could have gone off* with some friends.

Doubt, uncertainty; in these meanings **can/could** is found in interrogative and negative sentences.

Can/could it be true? (Неужели это правда?); It *can't/couldn't* be true. (Не может быть, чтобы это было так).

Note that the subjunctive **could** expresses a greater doubt.

Either **can/can't** or **could/couldn't** can be used when the deduction is made in the present.

> Who brought the piano upstairs? – Perhaps it was Tom. – He *can't/couldn't have done* it by himself; *Can/Could* you *have left* your purse on the bus?

However, only **could/couldn't** must be used when the deduction is made in the past or when the event mentioned is disconnected from the present:

> We were silent ... *Could* I *have dropped* my wallet in the shop?; A man answered the phone. I suppose it was her husband. – No, it *couldn't have been* her husband. He's been from London for months.

Depending on the time reference, **can/could** is used with different forms of the infinitive. Thus, if reference is made to the present, the indefinite (non-continuous) infinitive is found with verbs that cannot take the continuous form. With verbs that can take the continuous, the continuous infinitive is used.

> *Can/Could* she *be telling* lies?; He *can't/couldn't be cheating* in the exam.

can + perfect infinitive is used to refer the action to the past.

> *Can* he *have said* it? (Неужели он сказал это?); He *can't have said* it. (Не может быть, чтобы он сказал это. = Он не мог сказать этого.)

Request, offer, permission, prohibition; **can/could** is followed by the indefinite infinitive in all kinds of sentences.
> *Can* I have the butter, please?; You *can* go now; Mum says we *can't* swim today.

Both, **can** I? and **could** I? are used for requests; **could** being more tentative. Compare:
> *Can* I speak to Ivan?; *Could* I speak to Ivan?

Could you is used for a polite request as an alternative to **would you**?
> *Could* you/*Would* you open the window?

Couldn't you? is also possible as a request which is less tentative and more persuasive.
> *Couldn't* you possibly come another day?

Can/could with all persons in the affirmative expresses the idea of having permission.

It's not fair. Joey *can* stay up till ten and I have to go to bed at nine;
The children asked whether they *could* go for a swim.

Can't/couldn't expresses prohibition.

You *can't* travel first-class ticket (=You are not allowed); The junior clerks *couldn't* use the front door (=weren't allowed to).

Note:

[a] In cases where ability will exist only under certain conditions or within more or less definite temporal limit 'shall/will be able to' is normally used: e.g. By the time he finishes his course, he'*ll be able to* speak German well. (But not: *He can speak...); If I have a good sleep. I'*ll be able* to work out the problem. (But not: ...*I can work out the problem). With a present or past time reference 'can' and 'be able to' are interchangeable, though 'be able to' is slightly formal. Cf.: Sorry, I *can't* do it; I'm sorry I'm nearly not *able to* do it. And another nuance: quite often 'be able to' has the sense of 'be in a position to do smth': e.g. I *wasn't able to ring* you. I was at the meeting till 5 o'clock.

[b] To express strong doubt about an action not taking place (неужели кто-то не делал/не сделал что-то) one can use the expression *to fail to do smth* or verbs with the negative prefix *dis-* and *mis-*: e.g. He *cannot have failed to visit* then; *Can* she *misunderstand* them?

4.42 May

The modal **may** is used to express:

Possibility due to circumstances; in this meaning **may/might** is generally used in affirmative sentences and is followed by the indefinite infinitive.

From here you *may* go to London by bus or by car, but you can't go by train; He said we *might* go by bus there.

The subjunctive form **might** + perfect infinitive shows that the action was not performed due to certain circumstances (**might** here is equivalent to **would** in the conditional mood pattern).

He *might/would have* come if he had a car.

Supposition implying uncertainty; in this meaning it occurs in affirmative and negative sentences with all forms of the infinitive. It is an alternative to **perhaps** or **maybe**.

May/might + indefinite or continuous infinitive expresses uncertainty about present or future actions.

The two parties *may/might* reach agreement today/tomorrow; She *might* still come; He *may/might* be waiting for you.

Though used interchangeably, **may** and **might** occasionally express different degrees of likelihood, the subjunctive form **might** emphasising the idea of uncertainty.

However, only **might** is to be used with a past time reference. Compare:

He said, 'I *may/might* be late tonight'; He said that he *might* be late that night.

May/might is not used in interrogative sentences in the meaning of supposition. Instead we use such expressions as 'Do you think ...?' or 'Is he likely ... ?': e.g. *Do you think* she knows we're here? (But not: *May she know ...?); *Are we likely* to meet any snakes? (But not: *May we meet any snakes?).

May/might + perfect/perfect continuous infinitive is used in speculations about past actions.

She *may/might have come*. (=It is possible that she came.);

I think she *may/might have been waiting* for us since morning.

Permission, request; in these meanings **may** is found in affirmative and interrogative sentences. In negative answers to questions **May I**? it is usually replaced by **can't** (the form **may not** is too formal).

Candidates *may not* take a book in the examination room;

Mary said that I *might* borrow her biro; *May* we smoke here? - Yes, you *may*. (No, you *can't*.).

A mild request or reproach in affirmative sentences. The subjunctive **might** is common here.

You *may* tell me what he said; You really *might do* something for them; You *might* have helped me.

4.43 Can and may compared

Both verbs can be used to express possibility due to circumstances. However, they are not interchangeable in this meaning for the following reasons:

Can is used to express a real possibility whereas the degree of possibility expressed by **may** is much smaller.

Don't dream of what *may* be, work for what *can* be; A fool *may* ask more questions than a wise man *can* answer.

In this meaning the use of **may** is restricted to affirmative sentences whereas **can** is found in all kinds of sentences.

He *may/can* meet them there; He *can't* meet them there.

Their time reference is also different. **May** refers only to the present or future; **can/could** may refer to the past as well.

She *may/can* find the book at the library; She *may/can* find the book at the library tomorrow; She *could* find the book at the library yesterday.

In the meaning of supposition the degree of doubt expressed by **may** and **can** is different. Compare:

He *may not* be right. = It is possible that he is right;

He *can't* be right. = It is impossible that he is right.

Both verbs can be used to express permission. The difference between them is rather that of style than of meaning, **may** being more formal than **can** which is commonly used in colloquial English. Besides, **may** in negative sentences expressing prohibition is not much used. Compare:

- *Can* we go home now?   - *May* I leave the classroom?

- Yes, you can/No, you *can't*.   - Yes, you *may*./No, you *can't*.

Note:

When we give permission we use 'can' and 'may', but not 'could' and 'might'. (The latter suggest respect, and so they are more natural in asking for permission than in getting it.) E.g. *Could* I use your phone? - Yes, of course you *can*; *Might* I trouble you for a light? – You *may* indeed.

4.44 Must

The modal **must** is used to express:

Necessity, strong obligation; in this meaning it is followed by the indefinite infinitive referring the action to the present or future, or to no particular time.

It is getting late. I *must* go; *Must* I clean all the rooms?; We *must* make an early start tomorrow; Candidates *must* attempt all the questions.

The verb **must** in the meaning of necessity is found in affirmative and interrogative sentences; when used with a negative it has the meaning of prohibition: e.g. You *mustn't* move any of the papers on my desk.

Generally, when **must** is used, the obligation comes from the speaker: e.g. I want to do well in my exams so I *must* work hard (the speaker's own decision). If we talk about or report an obligation that comes from 'outside' (a regulation, or an order from somebody else, for example) **must** is possible, but **have to** is more common.

Farmers *have to*/*must* work hard (obligation imposed by force of circumstance); I *must* stay at home: my essay *has to* be finished by tomorrow; I *have to* cook the dinner. It's my job.

Must has no past tense. Past necessity is expressed by **had to**, i.e. the past of 'We *must* all keep together', in direct speech, would be: 'We all *had to* keep together', though in indirect speech **must** can remain to refer the action to the present time even if the reporting verb is in the past.

He reminded us (that) we { must all / = all had to } keep together.

In questions and negatives, the modal verb **need**, especially in British English, is a replacement for **must**; and, in informal style, **have (got) to** and a regular verb **need** can be used instead: *Need* you work so hard?; *Have* you *got to* work so hard?; We *needn't/don't have to/don't need* to hurry.

Deduction, i.e. a supposition implying a very high degree of probability, almost conviction (because it is logically necessary). When used in this meaning the verb **must** is synonymous with the modal words **evidently, obviously, certainly, surely**, or the phrases **most likely, most probably** and the like. Its meaning corresponds to the Russian modal phrase должно быть.

Must is only used in this way in affirmative sentences. In questions and negatives, we use **can** and **can't** instead.

That *can't* be the postman - it's only 7 o'clock; What do you think this letter *can* mean?

In this meaning **must** may be followed by different forms of the infinitive. If the reference is made to the present, the continuous infinitive is generally used.

You *must be joking*!; Oh, there's the boy. He *must be* still *waiting* for you.

However, with verbs which are not normally used in the continuous, the indefinite infinitive is used.

There's the doorbell. It *must be* Roger; Mary *must have* some problem: she keeps crying; You *must consider* me ungrateful.

Must is used with the perfect infinitive for deductions about the past.

It *must have been* yesterday; We went to Kent. - That *must have been* nice.

Must in the meaning of supposition is not used with reference to the future. In this case it is replaced by its synonyms: e.g. *Are* you *likely* to be out late tonight?; He will *probably* come tomorrow.

To express supposition of negative character some other lexical means are used instead of **must** in the negative.

He *must have failed* to carry out the task; He *must have misunderstood* you; They *must be unaware* of that; She *must have never guessed* the truth; *No one must have told* him about it.

In a number of set-phrases the modal meaning of **must** is weakened.

I *must be going*; I *must be off*; You *must come and see* me some time; You *must come and stay* with us for the week-end (conversation formulas of invitation); I *must tell* you that ...; I *must say* ... (formulas used in speech-making).

Note:

[a] Official instructions often have 'must': e.g. An employee *must* fill in the form.

[b] 'Must' sometimes occurs in questions expecting a negative answer: e.g. *Must* you leave already? (='surely you don't have to').

[c] In American English, 'have to' is an ordinary verb (used with 'do' in questions and negatives) which in fact has replaced 'must'. This is also becoming common in British English. E.g. Do you *have to* do that? = *Must* you do that?

[d] The modal expression 'be to' is used to express necessity based on a previously arranged plan (e.g. I *am to be* there at four). The same verb serves to report orders or prohibitions (e.g. Tell her she *is (not) to* stand here). It can occasionally be used to give orders: parents often tell children to do things in this way (e.g. You *are to* do your homework before you watch television). 'Be to' + passive infinitive is common in notices and instructions (e.g. These tablets *are to* be kept out of the reach of children).

4.45 May and must compared

Both verbs are used to express supposition but they are not interchangeable in this meaning.

May denotes supposition implying uncertainty whereas **must** expresses supposition implying strong probability.

> He *may be* a student of our college. His face seems familiar; He *must be* one of the students I examined the other day.

Both verbs are used to express prohibition in negative sentences. Note that the use of **may not** is rather rare; and **must not** is more emphatic.

> Visitors *may not/must not* feed the animals.

In negative answers to questions asking for permission **mustn't** or **can't** are generally used.

May I put the television on?
{
No, you *mustn't*.
No, you *can' t*.
}

4.46 Ought

The modal **ought** shows:
Duty or obligation
> You really *ought* to tell her; You *ought* to have done that earlier.

What is advisable, desirable or right
> There *ought* to be more buses during the rush hours; You *ought* (='I advise you') to see that new film.

Probability
> Henry *ought* to be here soon – he left home at six;
> That *ought* to be enough fish for three people.

Unlike other modals **ought** is followed by the infinitive with **to.**

You *ought to see* a dentist; He *ought not to have agreed*.

In negative sentences, **not** comes before **to**.

He *ought not to* go./He *oughtn't to* go.

Ought can be followed by a perfect infinitive to talk about the past.

I'm sorry – I *ought to have phoned* to tell you I was coming; He *ought to have been* a lawyer; She *ought to have arrived* at her office by now.

In echo construction, **ought (not) to** is used to replace an entire predicate.

Ought we not to go? - Yes, we *ought* to.

4.47 Shall and should

The modal **shall** expresses:

Obligation and compulsion. In this meaning it is used with the 2nd and 3rd person subjects, but at present this use is restricted to formal style, and it often sounds rather old-fashioned.

You <u>shall</u> have an answer by tomorrow; We propose that each member of the club <u>shall</u> be asked to.

Offers, suggestions, and requests for instructions and advice. In this meaning **shall** is used with the 1st and 3rd person subjects.

Shall I carry your bag?; *Shall* we go out for lunch?; What *shall* we do?; *Shall* he call you up or will you call back?

The modal **shall** is used only with the indefinite infinitive. In reported speech the past tense form **should** is used.

I asked if I *should* call for you; I asked the man whether the boy *should* wait.

The subjunctive form of the modal verb **shall** is **should**. The subjunctive **should** expresses:

Probability

It *should* be fun; The film *should* be ending soon; *Should* there be any difficulty in getting tickets?

Offers, suggestions, and requests for instructions and advice

Should I help you with your washing-up?; What do you think I *should* do?

Duty, obligation and similar ideas

People *should* drive more carefully; You really *should* ring Aunt Mary.

Should + perfect infinitive shows that a desirable action was not carried out. It has the additional meaning of reproach or regret.

He *should have rung* her himself; You *shouldn't have mentioned* his name in her presence.

It corresponds to the Russian Вам не следовало.

Why should …? and **How should** …? contain the so-called emotional **should**. They express inability to understand mingled with reproach, irritation or anger.

> Why *should* it get colder when you go up a mountain? You are getting nearer the sun; Why *should* I help him?; What's Susan's phone number? – How *should* I know?

4.48 Must, should and ought compared

All the three verbs are used to express obligation; **must**, however, sounds more forceful and peremptory. **Ought** and **should** express an obligation which may not be fulfilled. Compare:

> You *must* be back by 2 o'clock and do some cleaning. (It is your duty); I *ought* to phone my parents tonight ("but probably I won't have time"); All students *should* submit their work by a given date ("... but some of them don't!")

In most cases, both **should** and **ought** can be used with more or less the same meaning. There is, however, a very slight difference. When we use **should**, we give our own subjective opinion; **ought** has a rather more objective force, and is used when we are talking about laws, duties and regulations. Compare:

> You *ought to/should* go and see Mary some time; People *ought* to vote even if they don't agree with any of the candidates.

Both **should** and **ought** express obligation, advisability, desirability and are used when **must** would sound too peremptory. Compare:

You *must* do it at once.   Вы должны/обязаны сделать это немедленно.
You *should* do it at once.
You *ought* to do it at once.   Вам следует/нужно сделать это немедленно.

The modals ought and should expressing probability can be regarded as weaker equivalents of must (='certainty'). Compare:

> Our guests *must* be home by now. (I am certain.)

Our guests { ought to / should } be home by now.   (They probably are, but I'm not certain.)

Should is more frequent than **ought. Must**, however, seems to be in more frequent use than the other two verbs.

Note:

[a] 'Ought' and 'should' are not always interchangeable. In a sentence like 'We *ought* to go and see Mary tomorrow, but I don't think we will'

'should' doesn't sound right. It would be strange to give oneself advice and say that one was not going to follow it.

[b] 'Ought' (not) to' is avoided in tag questions, since it sounds strange and formal. Many speakers therefore replace 'ought' by 'should' in question tags: e.g. We ought to wait for Harry, *shouldn't* we?

4.49 Will and would

The modal **will** is used to express:

Willingness, consent, an offer or a promise

Let him do what he *will;* Come when you *will*; If you *will* come this way, the manager will see you now; A good dictionary is, of course, indispensable to anyone who *would* know words and their use; I would be grateful if you *would* give me a little help.

Won't and **wouldn't** express the negative of willingness, i.e. refusal.

He *won't/wouldn't* take any (= He refuses/declines to take notice.   any notice.)
They *wouldn't* listen to me.   (= They refused ...)

Used in questions making request in conditional ('if') clauses **will/would** is often equivalent to **please**:

Will you come in?; Pass that box, if you *would*.

There is hardly any difference between the use of **will** and **would** here; the subjunctive **would** makes the request still more **polite.**

Insistence or inevitability. Used in this meaning *will/would* is always stressed.

He *'will* have his own way (i.e. He insists on this); Accidents *'will* happen (i.e. They are to be expected from time to time); I told you shouldn't but you *'would* do it.

Habitual and characteristic actions

He *will* sit there hour after hour looking at the traffic go by; The plane *will* seat 500; The door *won't* shut; He *would* visit her every Sunday.

Probability or likelihood

This *will* be the book you're looking for; She *will* be about forty; You *wouldn't* know her; It *would* be about six when he got here.

The modality expressed here may be rendered in Russian by вероятно, должно быть.

4.50 Need

Need is used to express necessity.

The grammar of the verb **need** is inconsistent. It can occur (1) as a modal, behaving just like **must**, and (2) as a regular verb, behaving just like **mind**.

Need I bring this report to you at once?; He *needn't* worry; You *needn't have come*. The deal is off.

She *needs* support; He *needed* no second invitation; I *didn't need* to be told twice.

As a modal verb, **need** has only one form. It is followed by the infinitive without **to**. **Need**, as a modal, is restricted to interrogative and negative sentences.

Need you go yet? - No, I *needn't*.

In negative sentences, **need** expresses absence of necessity. The negative is not always associated with the verb, but may be found elsewhere in the sentence.

We *needn't* wait any longer; *Nobody need* ever know; I *need hardly* say that I agree with you.

Need + perfect infinitive indicates that although something may have occurred or been done in the past, it was or may have been unnecessary.

Need it *have happened*?; We *needn't have hurried*.

In reported speech **need** remains unchanged.

I told him he *needn't* come to the office on Saturday.

Note:

The regular verb 'need' is much more common than the modal 'need'. The use of 'need' as a modal verb is mainly confined to its negative form "needn't". Question forms like 'Need we?' and 'Need he?' sometimes sound unnatural in conversation. Cf.: *Do* we *need* to stay this evening?:: *Need* we stay this evening?

4.51 Dare

Like **need**, **dare** can be constructed (1) as a modal (with a bare infinitive and without the inflected forms) or (2) as a regular verb (with a 'to'-infinitive, an -s inflection and past forms).

(1) *Dare* you question my honesty?; I *dare not* disobey the general's order.

(2) Do I *dare* to ask her?; I shall be surprised if he *dares* to tell them a lie; He actually *dared* to ask me for another loan.

Dare means 'be brave enough, venture to do something'. As a modal, **dare** occurs in negative and interrogative sentences. I *daren't* point out his mistake; *Dare* he tell them what he knows?

Dare is a modal, with past reference, in 'I never dare ask him'. In reported speech **dare** remains unchanged. I told him he *dare not* delay any longer.

Note:

[a] 'Dare', as a modal, is always quite formal. In informal style, other expressions are used instead.

[b] 'Dare' sometimes occurs in the past or with the auxiliary 'do/did' but without 'to' of the following infinitive, indicating that the speakers are somewhat unsure of its grammar (e.g. She *dared* not wait; Do we *dare* take a risk?).

PART FIVE
NON-FINITE VERB PHRASE

5.1

Non-finite forms of the verb, or **verbals**, are three in number: **the infinitive**, **the gerund** and **the participle**.

The non-finite verb phrase can consist of a non-finite verb alone (1) but usually it is much longer than a single word (2).

(1) *To smoke* may be dangerous; *Sighing*, she went upstairs; *Defeated* he hurriedly left the room; Your hair needs *cutting*.

(2) *To smoke like that* must be dangerous; *Wishing to encourage him*, they praised Tom; Most of the people *invited to the party* didn't turn up; They followed the route of the *recently departed* party; *Being invited to come here* is a great honour.

If we consider combinability of verbals, we find that, like finite verbs, they can be followed by nouns and noun substitutes. Adverbials[*] can follow or precede the non-finite form.

Like nouns, gerunds can be preceded by prepositions, possessive pronouns, and nouns in the genitive case.

I object *to having* loud music play while I eat;

It's not much use *my buying* salmon if you don't like fish.

Morphologically, verbals do not show person, number, tense (present, past and future) or mood, which accounts for the term 'non-finite'. But like finite forms, they have relative tense (perfect and non-perfect), voice (active and passive) and aspect (common and continuous) distinctions.

A tense form of a verbal is called relative because it represents an action of a verbal either as simultaneous to prior to an action of a finite form of the verb.

Distinct from finite forms, verbals are never predicates in the sentence. Like nouns, some verbals function as subjects (1), objects (2) and predicatives (3).

(1) *To err* is human, *to forgive* divine; *Beating* a child will do more harm than good.

(2) He had promised *to join* her before the summer; I hate *writing* letters.

(3) Her dream was *to become* an actress; One of my bad habits is *biting* my nails.

Verbals resemble adjectives in that they can be used attributively.

I've got letters *to write*: It is a mixture *consisting* of oil and vinegar;

Most of the people *invited* to the reception were old friends.

And lastly they can be used as adverbial modifiers.

My mother is getting too old *to travel*: *Being* a man of ingenuity, he repaired the machine; *Exhausted* by the long journey he soon fell asleep; You should check the oil before *starting* the car.

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[*] Adverbials are units functioning as adverbial modifiers.

The infinitive

The i n f i n i t i v e (indefinite active) coincides with the stem of the verb, although it is often preceded by the infinitive marker **to (to come).** Apart from a **'to'-infinitive**, there exists a b a r e infinitive, i.e. an infinitive without the particle **to (come).** The infinitive combines verb and noun characteristics.

5.2 Verb characteristics

The infinitive is most verbal of all the non-finite forms of the verb.

(1) Besides the secondary (relative) tense and voice common to the gerund and participle I the infinitive has aspect distinctions.

Voice	Active		Passive	
Aspect / Tense	Non-continuous	Continuous	Non-continuous	Continuous
Non-perfect	to ask	to be asking	to be asked	-
Perfect	to have asked	to have been asking	to have been asked	-

A non-continuous (indefinite) infinitive expresses an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, so it may refer to the present, past and future.

> I am glad *to see* you; I was glad *to see* you; I will be glad *to see* you.

Like the continuous aspect forms of finite verbs, the continuous infinitives are used for temporary actions in progress.

> It's nice *to be sitting* here with you; I noticed that he seemed *to be smoking* a lot.

A perfect infinitive shows an action prior to that expressed by a finite verb.

> I appear *to have made a small mistake*: She said she was sorry *to have missed* you; We're leaving at six o'clock, and hope *to have done* most of the journey by lunchtime.

A perfect continuous infinitive expresses an action going on before the time indicated by a finite verb.

> He seems/seemed *to have been sitting* there all day.

The passive infinitive is found in

> The boy was nowhere *to be seen*; You are *to be congratulated*; Jack's work leaves much *to be desired*.

Sometimes active and passive infinitive can be used with similar meanings, particularly after **be**.

> There are six letters *to write/to be written* today.

Perfect passive infinitives exist: e.g. Nothing seems *to have been forgotten.* Continuous passive infinitives are possible, but are not normally used.

> *I'd like *to be being massaged* right now.

(2) The infinitives may take a direct object.
   I was very pleased *to see you* yesterday.

(3) The infinitive may be modified by an adverb.
   I had *to repeat* my words *louder*, so that she could hear me.

(4) The infinitive may have a subject of its own, which differs from the subject of the finite verb. If the infinitive has a different subject, it is expressed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case just before the infinitive. Together with the infinitive they make up a predicative construction.[*]
   She didn't want *Allan/him to go*.

After certain adjectives and nouns, the subject of the infinitive is often introduced by the preposition **for**.
   It's essential *for the classrooms to have* plenty of light; Have you heard about the plan *for Jack to stand* for the Liberals in the General Election?

(5) The infinitive may function as the second part of a compound verbal predicate, both modal (1) and aspective (2).
   (1) He *may come* tomorrow; I want *to go* away this weekend.
   (2) They *began to believe* his story; They *have grown to respect* him immensely.
   This is the most typical function of the infinitive.

5.3 Noun characteristics

As was shown in 5.1, the infinitive in present-day English is a non-finite verb form which at the same time preserves certain nominal features.
The infinitive has the following syntactical functions common with the noun:
(1) subject
   To live in a world without fear is the goal of progressive mankind.

In older English, an infinitive subject could easily be put at the beginning of a sentence, like any other subject. In modern English, it is common to begin the sentence with **it** which is called introductory, or anticipatory, and to put the infinitive later.
   It's easy *to make mistakes*.

(2) predicative. To live in London in autumn is *to know* what fog means.

(3) object. The objective infinitive is used after verbs expressing order, request, permission etc such as **to order**, **to ask**, **to allow**, **to help**, **to persuade**, **to advise**. The subjective infinitive is used after verbs of mental perception and emotions: **to forget**, **to remember**, **to prefer**, etc.
   We persuaded him *to try* again. Last year John taught his little niece *to swim*. We'd prefer *to remain* silent;

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[*] For predicative constructions, see 6.6 ff.

In sentences where the object is expressed by an infinitive we sometimes use an anticipatory **it** as a formal object.

Normally, this only happens after such verbs as **find, consider, think, make** when there is an adjective connected with the object.

> He found it difficult *to explain* what he meant; His last words made it possible *to grasp* the whole idea.

(4) attribute (always in postposition to the word it qualifies)

> She was conscious of her power *to influence* Hugh.

The infinitive can qualify a noun, an indefinite pronoun and a numeral.

> Is there any milk *to put* on cornflakes?; There is nothing *to comfort* her; He was the first *to recover* himself.

When the infinitive is used as an attribute it often has modal force and corresponds to the Russian надо, можно, следует.

> This is not the way *to achieve* your aim (i.e. in which you can achieve your aim); There is plenty of work *to do* (i.e. which must be done).

In all these cases the infinitive may be said to replace an attributive clause making the sentence as compact as possible.

5.4 Syntactical functions

In the sentence, the infinitive may be a subject, a predicative, an object, an attribute (for the examples, see 5.3), part of a compound verbal predicate (for the examples, see 5.2) and an adverbial modifier of purpose, result, attending circumstances**,** and comparison.

As an adverbial modifier the infinitive can express:

(i) purpose

> Old Jolyon sat down at the table *to eat* his dinner.

The idea of the purpose may be emphasised by the conjunctions **in order** or **so that** placed before the infinitive.

(ii) result

> (a) I am too tired **to see**, or **hear**, or **feel** anything;
>
> She was young enough to be his daughter.

In cases like these, the adverbs **too** and **enough** correlate with the infinitive. **Too** usually precedes an adjective or adverb in this structure.

> He is <u>too</u> old *to work;* It's <u>too</u> late for the shops *to be* open.

Enough normally follows an adjective, adverb, noun or verb (the structure with a noun is not frequent in modern English).

> Would you be kind enough *to open* a window?; It's late enough *to stop* work; Roy was realist <u>enough</u> *to disagree;* He knew <u>enough</u> *to do* the job.

> (b) He went to Africa *to die* there; I woke one morning *to find* myself famous. (G. Byron)

Here the infinitive shows the result of the action expressed by the predicate; it is the so-called continuative infinitive. It should be translated into Russian as: Он отправился в Африку и умер там; Я проснулся ... и обнаружил, что я знаменит. A continuative infinitive may be used with **only** to express disappointment.

> She hurried to the house <u>only</u> *to find* it empty;
> He picked himself up <u>only</u> *to fall* again heavily.

(iii) attending circumstances

> A seven-year-old boy stood in the open kitchen doorway *to watch* the sky above the ridge (= ... stood ... watching …).

(iv) comparison

> She looked at him <u>as if</u> *to make sure* whether he was in earnest; He opened his lips <u>as though</u> *to say* something.

In cases like these, the infinitive is always preceded by the conjunctions **as if** and **as though**.

Note:

[a] In cases of the attributive usage of the infinitive, its meaning may be passive: e.g. Give me the names of the people *to contact* (= to be contacted). In some structures, both passive and active infinitives are possible with a similar meaning (e.g. There's work *to do/to be done*). A passive infinitive is mainly used after 'there is'.

[b] Care should be taken not to confuse an infinitive of purpose with that of result. Cf.: He looked around *to see* if someone was waiting for him (= so as to see ...); He looked *to see* them coming up (= He looked around and saw ...).

5.5 The split infinitive

A 'split infinitive' is a structure in which **to** and the rest of the infinitive are separated by an adverb or emphatic particle**.**

> He began *to* <u>slowly</u> *get up* off the floor; I wish *to* <u>highly</u> *recommend* him; They were seen *to* <u>just touch</u> each other's hands; I'd like *to* <u>really</u> *understand* her.

Split infinitive structures are quite common in English, especially in an informal style.

5.6. The bare infinitive

The infinitive without **to** is called a bare infinitive. It is used in several different cases.

(1) A bare infinitive follows the modals **can, may, must, shall**, **will** and also **need** and **dare** when they are used as modals. It is also used after the modal expressions **would rather** and **had better**.

> I <u>must</u> *go* now; How <u>dare</u> you *call* me a liar?; I'<u>d rather</u> go alone; You'<u>d better</u> *see* what she wants.

(2) Certain verbs are followed by an object and the infinitive without **to**. They are: **let, make, see, hear, feel, watch, notice, help** (in an informal style), and (in a few constructions) with **have** and **know**.

> She <u>lets</u> her children *stay up* very late; I <u>made</u> them *give* me the money back; I <u>didn't</u> see you *come* in; I <u>heard</u> her *say* she was fed up; Could you <u>help</u> me *unload* the car?; I <u>won't have</u> you *leave* without your breakfast; I've never <u>known</u> him *(to) pay* for a drink (perfect forms of 'know' only).

(3) **Why (not)** + bare infinitive can be used to introduce questions, suggestions and advice.

> <u>Why</u> *stand up* if you can sit down?; Why not *take* a holiday?

(4) When two infinitives are joined by **and**, or **except**, **but** or **than**, the second infinitive is often used without **to**.

> I'd like *to lie down* <u>and</u> *go* to sleep; Do you want *to have* lunch now or *wait* till later?; We had nothing *to do* <u>except</u> *(to) look* at the posters outside the cinemas; I'll do anything <u>but</u> *work* on a farm; It's easier *to persuade* people <u>than</u> *(to) force* them.

Rather than is usually followed by an infinitive without **to**.

> <u>Rather than</u> *wait* any more, I decided to go home by taxi.

(5) Infinitives, used as predicatives which explain the exact meaning of **do,** can be without **to.**

> All I <u>did</u> was *(to) give* him a little push.

5.7 Substitutes for 'to'-infinitive

Instead of repeating the whole of an infinitive expression, we can simply use the infinitive marker **to**.

> He was asked *to come* on time, but he didn't care to (i.e. ... he didn't care *to come* on time); I don't dance now, but I used *to* a lot; Are you and Gillian getting married? - We hope *to*.

With some verbs, such as **want** and **ask**, the whole of the infinitive including **to**, can be omitted in informal English.

> You can borrow my pen, if you <u>want</u> (*to*); Somebody ought to help you. Shall I <u>ask</u> Peter (*to*)?

Sometimes the particle **to** can be dropped after adjectives and nouns: I think he should get a job, but I can't force him if he's not <u>ready</u> (*to*); He'll never leave home: he hasn't the <u>courage</u> (*to*).

The gerund

T h e   g e r u n d , like the infinitive, is a non-finite form of the verb which has verb and noun characteristics.

5.8 Verb characteristics

(1)   The gerund has secondary tense and voice distinctions.

Tense \ Voice	Active	Passive
Non-perfect Perfect	asking having asked	being asked having been asked

The tense distinctions of the gerund are relative, i.e. a non-perfect gerund denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb while a perfect gerund denotes an action prior to that of the finite verb. Compare:

I'm surprised at { his doing it so quickly. / his having done it so quickly. }   Меня удивило то, { как быстро он это делает. / как быстро он это сделал. }

In spoken English there is a tendency to avoid a perfect gerund even logically suitable after the verbs **remember, excuse, thank, forgive**, etc. (1) and after the prepositions **on, after, without** (2):

1) I remember *meeting* her at a party; Thank you for *asking* me to come.
2) On *arriving* at the hotel I was given a message; Without *being seen* by any of the servants, the man entered the room.

The voice distinctions of the gerund realize themselves through its active and passive forms, the latter are found with transitive verbs only.

I hate *lying*: I won't stand *being lied* to; The dish showed no signs of *having been touched.*

It should be noted that the passive gerund is not much used. The gerund always occurs in the active form with a passive meaning after the verbs **need, want, require, deserve** and also after the adjective **worth**.

The car needs *repairing*: We saw all the plays that are worth *seeing*.

(2)   The gerund of a transitive verb takes a direct object.
Have you considered *getting* a job abroad?
(3)   The gerund may be modified by an adverbial.
He's always talking about *moving* to the country?; Do you mind sitting here?
(4)   The gerund can function as the second part of a compound verbal predicate.

(i) as part a compound verbal aspective predicate, the gerund is associated with such verbs as **begin, start, go on, give up, leave off** and the like.

It kept on *raining*; We finished *working* at noon.

(ii) As part of a compound modal predicate, the gerund is associated with verbs having modal meaning such as **intend, try, attempt, mind** and-the modal expressions **can't help** and **won't stand.** Several verbs in this pattern are commonly used only in the negative or interrogative.

'Do you mind *waiting*?: I can't help *feeling* sorry about that.

5.9 Noun characteristics

Noun characteristics of the gerund are more obvious than those of the infinitive.

(1) The gerund is used after all prepositions including **to**.

Thank you for *calling*; We learn by *listening*; Get on with your work without *talking*; Think, instead of *writing*; He is fond of *skating*; I look forward to *hearing* from you.

(2) The possessive pronouns **my, your** and the like, and the genitives like **John's**, can be used as determiners to gerunds.

They object to his *doing* that; I'm annoyed at Mike's *forgetting* to pay.

(3) The nominal characteristics of the gerund are also expressed in its syntactical functions which are the following:

(i) subject

Talking only of oneself is a sign of bad manners; There *being* an index to this book is a great advantage.

The gerund as subject may also stand in apposition to the anticipatory **it** and may sometimes be used as the real subject after the construction **there is**:

It's foolish *arguing* about trifles; There is no *pleasing* some people.

(ii) object not only after verbs but also after nouns derived from verbs (**hope, intention**, etc.) and nouns with a modal charge (**necessity, possibility**, etc.) and the adjectives **busy worth** and **like.**

I really appreciate *having* time to relax; Is there any objection to *seeing* her?; She felt like *crying*.

(iii) predicative

What he likes best is *playing practical jokes*.

(iv) attribute

(a) Acting as a noun, the gerund can be used attributively in the pattern N + N (Cf. : **flower girl**):

a *bathing* costume; *working* clothes; *motoring* holidays

(b) Gerunds introduced by prepositions (mostly by **of)** are commonly used as postpositive attributes of noun:

Everybody must possess the art of *being* a good neighbour.

        I had no difficulty <u>in</u> *finding* your house.
  (c) The gerund can also function as apposition
        He was absorbed in his hobby, *collecting* stamps.
(v) adverbial modifier of
  (a) time (after the prepositions **after, before, on, in, at**);
        Before crossing the road stop and look both ways.
  (b) condition
        You can't make an omelette <u>without</u> *breaking* eggs.
  (c) manner
        We got the job finished <u>by</u> *working* sixteen hours a day.
  (d) cause (after the prepositions **for, owing to, through**)
        <u>Through</u> *being* careless, he met with an accident.
  (e) purpose
        The hall was used <u>for</u> *dancing*.
  (f) concession (after the preposition **in spite of**)
        <u>In spite of</u> *being* tired, he continued working.
  (g) attending circumstances
        She walked quickly <u>without</u> *looking* back.

5.10 Gerund and verbal noun compared

    The gerund has developed from the verbal noun. In present-day English these two forms coexist and should not be confused.
    The main points of difference between the gerund and the verbal noun in '-ing' are the following:
  (1) Like any other noun, the verbal noun can be determined by an article and demonstrative pronoun.
        Father gave me a good *beating*; I hate all *this* useless *arguing*.
  (2) The verbal noun has both singular and plural forms while the gerund, like any other verbal, lacks number distinctions.
        Our *likings* are regulated by our circumstances (verbal noun); Excuse my *interrupting* you again (gerund).
  (3) The gerund of a transitive verb takes a direct object whereas the verbal noun cannot be followed by a non-prepositional object.
        He was against *giving* me *an interview* (gerund); They discussed *the designing of a new factory* (verbal noun).
  (4) The verbal noun may be followed by an attribute (with the preposition **of**) which is impossible in case of the gerund:
        the *teachings* <u>of Islam</u>; a new *meaning* <u>of the word</u> (verbal nouns)
  (5) The gerund, like any other verb, can be modified by an adverb, whereas the verbal noun can be modified by an **adjective.** Compare:
        The child was tired of *sitting* <u>still</u> (gerund); He is a man of <u>wide</u> *reading* (verbal noun).

5.11 Gerund and Infinitive compared

(1) Verbs followed by the gerund only: **appreciate, avoid, consider, delay, leave off, keep on, mention, detest, dislike, escape, enjoy, excuse, finish, forgive, give up, mind, miss, pardon, practise, put off, recollect, deny, postpone, suggest, fancy, anticipate.**

Verbs followed by the infinitive only: **afford, agree, arrange, ask, choose, decide, demand, expect, hope, learn, manage, offer, pretend, promise, refuse, threaten, want, wish, swear, consent, neglect, propose**.

(2) Very often the speaker has an open choice to use the infinitive or the gerund.

{ Rather than *answer* immediately read the questions first.
{ Rather than *answering* immediately read the questions first.

(3) Infinitive or gerund? Either acceptable.

There is usually felt to be an aspectual difference that influences the choice between the gerund and the infinitive. The gerund generally implies 'fulfilment' and the infinitive 'potentiality'. Compare:

{ He started *speaking* and kept on for more than an hour.
{ He started *to speak* but stopped because she objected.

The gerund is more general in meaning; the infinitive suggests special occasion (or series of occasions), i.e. it is used to make a specific statement.

{ I hate *telling* lies (the act of lying in general).
{ I hate *to tell* you this, but ... (this particular thing that I must now tell you).
{ I prefer *staying* quietly at home to going to the cinema (in general).

Come and see a film tonight. – No, thanks. I prefer *to stay* at home (on this occasion).

Some verbs can have either the infinitive or the gerund without change of meaning. They include **can't bear, begin, cease**, etc.

They { began / couldn't bear / ceased } { to play / = playing } hockey.

However, only the infinitive is normal

(i) if the verbs **begin, start, continue** are followed by a verb of knowing or understanding.

I began *to understand*.

(ii) in the construction **would you like/love/hate/prefer**

Would you like *to come* with me?

(4) infinitive or gerund? either is possible, but with different meaning

(a) **remember, forget**

Remember/forget + **gerund** = remember/forget what one has done, or what has happened.

I don't remember *posting* the letter (= can't recall);

I'll never forget *taking* my first exam.

Remember/forget + infinitive = remember/forget what one has to **do.**

I must <u>remember</u> *to post* the letter (=must not forget);

I <u>forgot</u> *to come* to the exam yesterday (=didn't remember).

(b) **try**

Try + gerund = make an experiment; do something to see what will happen

<u>Try</u> *putting* some more vinegar - that might make it taste better.

Try + infinitive = make an effort; attempt to do something difficult

I once <u>tried</u> *to learn* Japanese.

(c) **stop**

Stop + gerund = stop what one is doing

I really must <u>stop</u> *smoking*.

Stop + infinitive = make a break or pause in order to do something

Every half hour I <u>stop</u> work *to smoke* a cigarette.

(d) **go on**

Go on + gerund = continue what one has been doing

How long do you intend <u>to go on</u> *playing* those records?

Go on + infinitive = change; move on to something new

He welcomed the new students and then <u>went on</u> *to explain* the college regulations.

(e) **regret**

Regret + gerund = be sorry for what has happened

I don't <u>regret</u> *telling* her what I thought.

Regret + infinitive = be sorry for what one is going to say

I <u>regret</u> *to inform* you that we are unable to offer you employment.

Note:

With the verbs 'love, hate, prefer' the infinitive is more common when we refer to one particular occasion: e.g. I <u>hate</u> *to mention* it, but you owe me some money.

5.12 The participle

The p a r t i c i p l e is a non-finite form which has certain verbal features and syntactical functions of adjectival and adverbial character. There are two participles in modern English: p a r t i c i p l e I and p a r t i c i p l e II. They are also called the p r e s e n t p a r t i c i p l e and the p a s t p a r t i c i p l e though they differ in voice rather than in tense.

Participle I has an active meaning (e.g. a *falling* star, a hawk *circling* slowly in the sky overhead). The past participle has a passive meaning if it is derived from a transitive verb (e.g. a *broken* chair = one that has been broken; the method *used* = one that has been used) or an active, past meaning if it is

derived from an intransitive verb (e.g. an *escaped* prisoner = one who has escaped, a *faded* flower = one that has faded).

Participle I is an '**-ing**' form which can be non-perfect (*writing, standing*) or perfect (*having written, having stood*) and in objective verbs - active (writing, having written) and passive (*being written, having been written*).

Participle II is unchangeable, i.e. it has only one form. The past participles of regular verbs end in **-ed**, just like the past tenses (*laughed, elected*). Most irregular verbs have, like regular verbs, identical forms of the past tense and participle II (*met, cut*), but there may be considerable variation (*spoken, come*). Participles are widely used in analytical verb forms: continuous, perfect, passive.

5.13 Verb characteristics

(1) Participle I has tense forms: non-perfect (**asking**) and perfect (**having asked**). The tenses of participle I are relative, i.e. they show whether the action denoted by the participle is simultaneous (1) or prior (2) to that of the finite verb.
> 1)*Living* in the country, we had few amusements.
> 2)*Having failed* to qualify as a doctor, I took up teaching.

(2) Voice distinctions are limited to participle I of transitive verbs: active **asking** :: passive **being asked.**
> Anybody *touching* that wire will get an electric shock;
> Did you see the boy *being questioned* by the police?

A passive action is denoted by passive forms of participle I, both non-perfect (**being asked**) and perfect (**having been asked**).
> *Being forced* to listen to our arguments he finally gave his consent;
> The matter *having been settled* so amicably, I felt quite satisfied with the results.

(3) The participle may be modified by an adverbial modifier.
> Who's the fat man *sitting in the corner*?;
> *Deeply shocked*, I could not utter a word.

(4) The participle may have an object; in case of transitive verbs, it has a direct object.
> *Using a sharp axe*, he broke down the door; *Rejected by all his friends*, he decided to leave the town.

(5) Participle I non-perfect of verbs of motion such as **run, jump, dance**, etc., following the verbs **come** and **go** with their lexical meanings greatly weakened, serves to impart perfective meaning to the action denoted by the participle.
> The boy c̲a̲m̲e̲ *running* to meet us (подбежал); The dog c̲a̲m̲e̲ *jumping* to its master (подскочила); She w̲e̲n̲t̲ *running* out of the room (выбежала).

Notes:

[a] With some verbs of sense perception and motion, such as 'see, hear, come, arrive, enter, turn' a non-prefect form of participle I is used when the action of a non-finite verb is prior to that of a finite verb (e.g. *Hearing* the bell, she went to the door.)

[b] There are cases in which 'come' approaches an auxiliary and together with participle I makes up an equivalent of a continuous form (e.g. The fog came *pouring* in at every chink and keyhole).

5.14 Adjective characteristics

Like an adjective, a participle may function in the sentence as
(1) attribute (prepositive and postpositive)

He looked at the *falling* rain; There's a woman *crying* her eyes out over there; A *broken* child's toy lies on the floor; The only car yet *repaired* by that mechanic is mine.

An attribute expressed by participle II may be detached; in this case it often has an additional adverbial meaning: *Painted* white, the house looks bigger.
(2) predicative

The streets were *deserted*.

The use of participle I as predicative is rare in modern English.

The roar of the engines was *deafening*.

Notes:

[a] Russian equivalents of participles used as attributes:

(i) читающий
     который читает   } reading;

      читавший
     который читал   } (then) reading;

      прочитавший
     который прочитал раньше   } who has (had) read

(ii) применяющиеся
     применяемые
     которые применяются   } (usually) used

      применявшиеся
     которые применялись   } used (before)

      примененные
     которые были применены   } (then) used

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{применяемые}\\\text{которые применяются}\end{array}\right\}\ \text{being used}$$

But: которые будут применяться - to be used

[b] Participle I perfect (active and passive) is not used attributively. Participle I in its attributive function cannot express priority, therefore the Russian past participle active of the perfective aspect is rendered by an attributive clause with a finite verb in English (e.g. конференция, состоявшаяся в Париже - the conference that took place in Paris).

5.15 Adverbial characteristics

Like adverbs, participles can be adverbial modifiers. In this function participles are commonly introduced by the conjunctions **while, when, if, as if, though**, etc.

As an adverbial modifier, the participle can express

(i) time

The stranger, *having discarded* his jacket, moved quickly towards me; Once *published,* the book caused a stir; *Asked* if it would include food, he responded in the negative.

(ii) condition

Used economically, one tin will last for at least six weeks; If *urged* by our friends, we'll stay.

(iii) cause

Not *knowing* what to do, I telephoned the police; *Exhausted* by the journey, he soon fell asleep.

(iv) manner and attending circumstances

She did not see me as if *blinded* by her misery; He waited *growing* more and more impatient; He lay *watched* by the three bearded physicians.

(v) concession

Her spirit, though *crushed,* was not broken.

5.16 Participle I and gerund compared

The paradigm of participle I shows that its grammatical forms are homonymous with those of the gerund which gave rise to a general term '-ing' forms applied to them. The distinction between participle I and the gerund is made on the basis of meaning and function.

Participle I expresses an action as characterizing a person or thing (like an adjective) or as modifying another action (like an adverb).

The gerund expresses an action in its most general sense, actually naming it, and looks more like a noun.

When it is used in combination with **be** to express a continuous aspect, the '-ing' form has a verbal function and is traditionally called a participle. It is a participle in commonly-used constructions like 'Let's go *swimming'*. 'Come *dancing* with us.'

It can also function as a noun phrase, in which case it is traditionally called a gerund, as in 'I like *swimming'*.

Depending on their syntactical function, homonymous '-ing' forms may be identified as participles (1) or gerunds (2).

1) *Standing* here all day, I see some very strange people. (Adverbial modifier of time)
2) *Standing* here all day makes me very tired. (Subject)

Note:

The Russian construction «не + деепричастие» corresponds to "not + participle I" if it is used as an adverbial modifier of cause, and to "without + a gerund" in case it is in the function of an adverbial modifier of attending circumstances or manner. Cf. But the major listens <u>without interrupting</u>, smiling, nodding, apparently delighted to learn this trivia (L. Sanders); Sister had sent her there obviously <u>not knowing</u> <u>of my presence</u> (R. Gordon). When the Russian construction in question functions as an adverbial modifier of condition, "without + a gerund" and "and "not + participle I" are used synonymously in English. But the latter is typical of only literary English, whereas the prepositional gerund is common in literary style as well as in spoken English, e.g.: She never did a thing <u>not asking somebody's advice</u>. (J. Baldwin); Never a minute passes <u>without his thinking</u> of her; You know some women can't see the telephone <u>without</u> <u>taking the receiver off.</u>

5.17 Participles and adjectives

There are many adjectives that have the same form as the present participle: *interesting, charming, entertaining*, etc. (1) and the past participle: *conceited, confused, excited* etc. (2).

1) His views on politics were rather *surprising*.
2) He seems quite *satisfied* with his new job.

Unlike participles, adjectives can be modified by such intensifiers as **very, quite**, etc. However, the difference between the adjective and the participle is not always obvious. We can therefore have ambiguous sentences like 'They are relieved', where we cannot tell whether *relieved* is a participle or an adjective. The ambiguity may disappear with more context.[*]

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[*] For more information on homonymous adjectives and participles, see 3.10.

PART SIX
SENTENCE PATTERNS

6.1

The s e n t e n c e is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which expresses a complete thought. A sentence is a means of giving information and a means of expressing modality, i.e. the speaker's attitude to information and the reality it deals with. A sentence is marked by intonation, and, if written, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop[*].

The centre of a sentence is the predication formed by the subject-predicate structure of a sentence. The subject-predicate structure of a sentence has certain morphological characteristics: the predicate is always expressed by a finite form of the verb; it agrees with the subject in person and number e.g. (I *like* John and John *likes* me).

There are structures which resemble sentences (e.g. *Her aunt having left the room,* I declared my passionate love for Celia; We locked the door and went home, *the job finished*). Distinct from sentences, they are called predicative constructions. They do not serve as units of speech because their verbal element is expressed by a non-finite form which cannot agree with the nominal element in grammatical forms, nor can it express any modality. Therefore predicative constructions cannot be used independently; they are always included in the structure of a sentence (e.g. The boy stood aside *for me to go by*; There is a danger of *a fire being started; George yawning*, the conversation dropped.).

Sentences are built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in the language. Here are the most frequently used patterns for all English sentences.
> (1) S + P (simple verbal)
>   John came.
> (2) S + P + 0
>   John saw Bill.
> (3) S + P + C
>   John is young; John is a teacher.
> (4) S (structural) + P + S (notional)
>   There is evidence; It is easy to learn knitting.

There are also minor patterns which comprise interrogative (e.g. Are you sure?; Who did you invite?, etc), imperative (e.g. Brush your teeth), and exclamatory (e.g. What a day!) sentences. Though this is by no means an exhaustive list, it comprises the basic sentence structures of English. All other sentences could be regarded as derived from these by either addition, e.g. of adverbs - 'John came quickly' or by expansion: Instead of 'John' we could have

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[*] For classification of sentences, see 1.2 ff.

'the boy', 'the little boy', 'the silly little boy' and even 'the silly little boy on the other side of the room'.

Analysing sentences by structural type, we arrive at three classes: simple, compound and complex. A simple sentence contains one subject-predicate group.

> John has visited New York.

But a sentence can be expanded so that it contains more than one subject-predicate group which makes up a clause. A composite sentence comprising clauses of equal rank is treated as a compound sentence. Clauses of a compound sentence are linked by coordination.

> Most of us were in the hall, the doors had been closed and latecomers had to wait outside.

A composite sentence comprising a clause which is a constituent of the other clause is treated as a complex sentence. Clauses of a complex sentence are linked by subordination.

> Everyone could see that he was frightened.

6.2 Utterances that are less than grammatical sentences

Connected speech contains many single words and phrases that are less than a full sentence, formally speaking, but are nonetheless quite Intelligible and normal in the flow of conversation. Some sentence fragments have conversational meaning: e.g. *Thanks; Pardon*? (= What did you say?). Others merely signal attention, sympathy, surprise: e.g. Oh; *I see; Heavens*! etc. Still others, called sign posts, help us to speak and the listeners to understand. They commonly begin a sentence: e.g. **however; on the other hand; all the same; actually**, etc. Some fragments play for time in a conversation, filling in a pause until the speaker is ready to continue: e.g. **well; er; you know**; etc. They are called conversational fillers. Such utterances have no grammatical connection with the sentence in which they stand and, therefore, they are treated as independent elements.

Independent elements are: words of affirmation and negation **yes** and **no** (1), interjections (2), direct address (3), modal words and phrases (4), conversational formulas of the type **Good morning, How do you do, Thanks** (5).

> (1) Did you know about it? - *Yes*, (I did).
> (2) *Well* ... let's walk up there then.
> (3) Here is a letter for you, *dear*.
> (4) *Surely* you know it.
> (5) *Sorry*. I was only being flippant.

Words of affirmation and negation, direct address and conversational formulas are s e n t e n c e w o r d s . Interjections and modal words may be used as sentence words and as p a r e n t h e s e s , i.e. comments by the speaker on the sentence as a whole.

6.3 Parentheses

Apart from the principal and secondary parts of the sentence, there are also the so-called p a r e n t h e t i c a l   p a r t s of the sentence (or parentheses), i.e. words and word-groups which are not grammatically dependent on any other part of the sentence. They refer to the whole of the sentence, specifying the modality of the utterance or connecting the utterance with the preceding one.

> *Oh*, that's you again!; What a day, *eh*?; *Possibly* you have heard of the tragic end of his life; *Maybe, after all,* there is something in that wild idea of his.

Parentheses may be expressed by interjections, modal words and phrases, adverbs which to a certain extent serve as connectors (**firstly, finally, thus, anyway, therefore**, etc.) and infinitival and participial phrases (**to be sure, to begin with, generally speaking, strictly speaking**, etc), which are linking signals found in connected speech.

A parenthesis may realize itself through a clause which is called a p a r e n t h e t i c a l clause. Parenthetical clauses are also known as comment clauses because they do not add to the information in a sentence but comment on its truth, the manner of saying it, or the attitude of the speaker. In written English they are usually marked off from the other clause by commas. Parenthetical clauses can freely occur in front-, mid- and end positions in the sentence.

> *What's more*, we lost all our belongings; Sleep, *it seemed*, deliberately refused to come; He's a pacifist *you see*.

Comment clauses are of varied types, as these examples show. The most frequent type may be illustrated by the following clauses: 'you know, I think', etc. These are closely parallel to main clauses introducing object clauses. Compare:

> *I see* that these Joneses have a new pet.
> The Joneses have a new pet, *I see*.

6.4 Sentences with homogeneous parts

Two or more parts of the sentence used in the same function and connected by coordination are called homogeneous parts of the sentence. They make the structure of the sentence complicated.

The homogeneous parts may be connected syndetically (by connectors) or asyndetically (without any connectors).

> Neither *he* nor *I* went; The sky was *clear*, *remote*, and *empty*.

The following coordinators connect the homogeneous parts of the sentence:

(1) copulative: **and, not only ... but (also), neither ... nor**

Bob and *I* have had some trouble at school lately.

(2) disjunctive: **or, either ... or**

Either *the Mayor* or *his deputy* is bound to come.

(3) adversative: **but, yet, still**

He wrote to them *politely* but *firmly*.

Occasionally homogeneous members are joined by connectors used as coordinators, most of which are related to comparative forms: **as well as, as much as, rather than, more than.**

Dick, as much as *his brothers,* was responsible for the loss
(=Dick, with his brother ...).

The homogeneous parts of the sentence may be coordinated subjects (1), predicates (2), predicatives (3), objects (4), attributes (5) and adverbial modifiers (6).

(1) Not only *the money,* but *three valuable paintings* were stolen.
(2) He was rather *pitied* than *disliked*.
(3) It's *strange,* yet *true*.
(4) She complained neither *to Mary* nor *to Peter*.
(5) His *clear* and *peaceful* delivery impressed the audience.
(6) You can wash it *manually* or *by using a machine*.

6.5 Verbless clauses

There are other means of making the structure of a simple sentence complicated and in this way expressing a link between two ideas. A broad 'general purpose' linking function is fulfilled by verbless clauses.

V e r b l e s s   c l a u s e s are clauses which contain no verb element, and often no subject either. They are regarded as clauses because they function in the ways which make them equivalent to finite clauses.

We shall continue our policy, *whatever your objections* (may be); If (you are) *in doubt,* ask me.

Since the verbless clause is basically an elliptical verbal clause, the variations of its structure are somewhat limited. The following, however, are among possible combinations.

(1) Dozens of tourists visit our city, *many of them children* (=many of the tourists are children).
(2) The oranges, *when* (they are) *ripe,* are picked and sorted.
(3) *(Al)though* (he was) *a lawyer by training,* he became a great soldier.
(4) We shall start at six, *if* (it is) *necessary*.

The verbless clause in (1) has the structure S + C; the verbless clause in (2) has the structure S + Adv. The subject, when omitted, can be equivalent to the subject of the main clause (3) or it can be treated as recoverable from the context (4).

To verbless clauses we may also refer the so-called d e p e n d e d a p p e n d i x . It consists of the conjunction **than** and a noun, pronoun or phrase following an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree (1) and the conjunction **as** and an adjective, noun, pronoun or adverb following the adverb **as** (2).

(1) I've been waiting longer *than you:* He knows better *than to deceive me*.

(2) She is not as experienced *as I*; This peach is as sweet *as that one.*

Sentences with verbless clauses are intermediate between simple and composite sentences. To intermediate types of sentences we also refer sentences containing predicative constructions with verbals.

6.6 Predicative constructions

Many verbs are followed by a verbal, indicating that the subject of the finite verb is also the subject of the verbal.

He brought a book *to read*; I insist on *inviting* them.

But a verbal may have a subject of its own, different from the subject of the finite verb.

He brought a book *for his brother to read:* I insist on *her inviting* them.

A verbal and its subject make up a construction. The relations between the members of a construction with a verbal are those o f p r e d i c a t i o n , where a verbal asserts or negates something about its subject. Distinct from the relation between the subject of the sentence and the finite verb, which is called p r i m a r y p r e d i c a t i o n , the relation described above is called s e c o n d a r y p r e d i c a t i o n , with the subject of the verbal being a s e c o n d a r y s u b j e c t and the verbal a s e c o n d a r y p r e d i c a t e .

Verbal constructions function as complex sentence members (a complex subject, a complex predicative, etc). The sentence with a predicative construction may be treated either as a condensed simple sentence or a transition from simple to composite, called a semi-composite sentence.

6.7 Infinitival predicative constructions

(1) The objective-with-the-infinitive
This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case followed by an infinitive.

I like *him to tell* me stories; Did you feel *the earth move*?

In the sentence this construction has the function of a c o m p l e x o b j e c t and, therefore, can also be called an o b j e c t i v e i n f i n i t i v a l construction.

The objective infinitival construction is used after a number of characteristic verbs:

(a) verbs of sense perception: **see, hear, feel, watch, notice,** etc. A bare infinitive occurs after them.

    I <u>felt</u> *the insect crawl* up my arm; Let's <u>watch</u> *the boys dive.*

(b) verbs of intellectual activity: **believe, think, expect, know, find, consider**, etc.

    We <u>expect</u> *the experiments to be a success;* I <u>understood</u> *you to say* he was not a gentleman.

(c) the verbs **get, make, have**. A bare infinitive occurs after them.

    I <u>made</u> *the visitor wait*; He <u>had</u> *the children sing* the song again.

(d) verbs of feeling and intention: **like, hate, want, mean, prefer, order**, etc.

    She didn't <u>want</u> *me to go;* They <u>forced</u> *Donald to reveal* the hiding place.

In the objective infinitival construction a 'to' -infinitive or a bare infinitive active indefinite is generally used. In some cases, however, a continuous infinitive (1) or a passive infinitive (2) may occur.

    1) I suppose *him to be reading* for an exam.
    2) I ordered *the papers to be delivered* to my new address.

(2) **The nominative-with-the-infinitive**

This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case followed by any of the six forms of the infinitive. The nominative-with-the-infinitive construction is considered to be the subject of the sentence and is, therefore, also called a s u b j e c t i v e   i n f i n i t i v a l construction.

The subjective infinitival construction is used with a passive form of the following verbs:

(a) verbs of sense perception: **hear, see, notice**, etc.

    She was seen *to leave* the house.

(b) verbs of saying: **say, report**, etc.

    The medicine is said *to be very effective.*

(c) verbs of intellectual activity: **know, believe, think**, etc.

    The police were supported *to be pursuing* the criminal.

(d) verbs of intention: **mean, intend, order**, etc.

    She was made *to wait* in the outer office.

The subjective infinitival construction is common after the expressions **be (not) likely/sure/bound**, etc. and such verbs as **seem, appear, happen, turn out**, etc.

    The old man was not likely *to have made a mistake*;
    The book is bound *to be remembered.*
    The picture proved *to have been stolen.*

The subjective infinitival construction is typical of literary or formal style and it is widely used in newspaper articles. This construction is rendered in Russian by a clause opening with the words (как) сообщают, ожидают (ожидается), говорят, etc.

(3) **The nominative absolute**

The n o m i n a t i v e   a b s o l u t e   i n f i n i t i v a l construction consists of a noun in the common case and an infinitive and is generally introduced by the preposition **with** and occasionally **without**. Its function is to denote attending circumstances or conditions. At the same time the infinitive acquires some modal meaning - that of necessity or possibility.

> She felt like a high-born damsel, *with all the traditions of a great and ancient family to keep up*; I shouldn't think you'll last five minutes *without me to explain the score to you*.

(4) **The 'for' construction**

The 'for' - 'to' -infinitive construction is a phrase in which the infinitive is in predicative relation to a noun in the common case or pronoun in the objective case preceded by the preposition **for**.

The 'for'-'to'-infinitive construction is used as

(a) complex subject

> *For a bridge to collapse like that* is unlikely.

A complex subject is often introduced by an anticipatory **it:** It was unusual *for a woman to be seen smoking.*

(b) a complex predicative after the nouns **plan, idea, suggestion** and the like.

> The idea is *for us to meet on Thursday*.

(c) a complex object

> We waited patiently *for the letter to be answered.*

(d) a complex attribute to the nouns **plan, idea, suggestion** and the like.

> I have orders *for you to return at once*.

(e) a complex adverbial modifier of purpose

> *For us to arrive on time*, we have to leave at once.

(f) a complex adverbial modifier of result

> He spoke loud enough *for you to hear*.

6.8 Participial predicative constructions

(1) **The objective-with-the-participle**

This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case and participle I, indefinite active, or participle II.

> He found *her waiting* for him; I saw *that work done*.

In the sentence, this construction has the function of a c o m p l e x o b j e c t and, therefore, may be also called an o b j e c t i v e   p a r t i c i p i a l construction.

The objective participial construction is found after

(a) verbs of sense perception

He <u>felt</u> *someone leaning* over his shoulder.

(b) verbs of intellectual activity, such as **consider, understand**

I consider *this job finished*.

(c) verbs of intention, such as **want, wish, desire**, etc

Mother wants it done quick.

(d) the verbs **have** and **get** normally used as causative verbs to denote something done by someone other than the subject. They are followed by participle II

King Charles <u>had</u> *his head* cut off.

(2) **The nominative-with-the-participle**

This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case followed by a participle.

They were heard *talking* together; *The boat* was considered *lost*.

In the sentence, the nominative-with-the participle construction functions as a complex subject and, therefore, is also called a s u b j e c t i v e p a r t i c i p i a l construction.

The subjective participial construction is found after

(a) verbs of sense perception and after the verbs **keep** and **leave** in the passive form.

She was seen *trying on* hats in a small shop off Bond Street; Wed was left *sleeping* upstairs.

Participle I is found in this pattern.

(b) verbs of intellectual activity and the verbs **see** and **hear** in the passive form

The safe was found *locked* and *the papers stolen;* From time to time *their voice* could be heard *uplifted* in clamorous argument.

Participle II is found in this pattern. The subjective participial construction is mostly used in literary and scientific writing and newspaper articles.

(3) **The nominative absolute**

The n o m i n a t i v e a b s o l u t e , or the n o m i n a t i v e a b s o l u t e p a r t i c i p i a l c o n s t r u c t i o n , which is typical of literary and scientific style, consists of a noun in the common case or (more rarely) an indefinite pronoun or the pronouns **it** and **this** and participle I (in any of its four forms) or participle II. This construction may be introduced by the prepositions **with** and **without**.

All the money having been spent, we started looking for work; *Nobody having any more to say*, the meeting was closed; The next morning, *it being Sunday*, they all went to church; He read the gossip in the expressions of acquaintances, *without a word spoken*.

A peculiar feature of non-prepositional absolute constructions is that occasionally the nouns in them are used without any article.

The waiter was walking up and down, *pipe in mouth*.

Though formally independent of the sentence (normally marked off by commas) the nominative absolute is usually a complex adverbial modifier of:

(a) time

This duty completed, he had three months leave.

(b) condition (used only with the participles **permitting** and **failing**)

We'll play football, *weather permitting*; *Conciliation failing*, force remains; but *force failing*, no further hope of conciliation is left.

(c) cause

This being so urgent, we must reconsider our decision; Mr.Tulkinghorn comes and goes pretty often, *there being estate business to do*.

(d) manner or attending circumstances

A car roared past *with smoke pouring from the exhaust*.

The nominative absolute, used after a noun to characterize it, expresses attributive relations and functions as a complex attribute.

Two of her dolls *with legs dangling* sat on the stair below;

Douglas, *black hat pulled down,* gave a grin of surreptitious kindness.

There may also be a nominative absolute without a participle, the second element being expressed by an adjective, a noun with a preposition, an adverb, and (rarely) an infinitive.

And so the days of early June went by, *each finer than the last*; In the dead of the night, my host burst into my room, *a lamp in his hand*; *The preliminaries over*, we began to talk business; It was like someone playing *with only the family to listen*.

Note:

[a] After 'see', 'watch' and 'hear', participle I suggests that we observe part of a complete action; when we start looking or listening it is already going on (e.g. When I walked past his house I heard *him practising* the violin). The infinitive is used when we want to suggest that we observe the whole action from beginning to end (e.g. I heard *Oistrakh play* the Beethoven violin concerto last week).

[b] The verb 'have' followed by a participle means 'cause to do' (e.g. He had *us laughing* all through the meal = He acted in such a way that we were all laughing). When followed by an infinitive it means 'give instructions' (e.g. He had *us empty* our pocket = He gave instructions and we carried them out).

6.9 The gerundial construction

When associated with a nominal element (a noun or a pronoun), the gerund forms the so-called g e r u n d i a l c o n s t r u c t i o n. The nominal element, which denotes a person or thing, may be expressed in different ways.

(1) If it denotes a thing, it is expressed by a noun in the common case or the pronouns **it, this, that**.

> Do you approve of *that child staying up* so late?;
> We can't make a decision without *this being cleared up*.

(2) If it denotes a person, it is expressed by:

(a) a noun in the genitive or a possessive pronoun which is typical of formal English

> I don't remember *Richard's telling* me that;
> She resented *his taking* the best room for himself.

(b) a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case which is typical of informal English

> I don't remember *Richard telling* me that; She resented *him taking* the best room for himself.

Predicative constructions with the gerund are used in all the functions typical of the gerund. Thus we can speak of a gerundial construction used as complex subject (1), complex predicative (2), complex object (3), complex attribute (4), complex adverbial modifier (5).

> 1) *Their being bothered* amused him.
> 2) It's all *their doing*.
> 3) I'm surprised at *John making that mistake*.
> 4) There's little sense in *your staying here now.*
> 5) All that was after *their leaving the place.*

A gerundial construction used as subject is often introduced by an anticipatory **it**.

> It's crazy *her going off like that.*

Note:

[a] There is sometimes a choice between a possessive pronoun or a noun in the genitive and the objective case (for personal pronouns) or common case (for nouns). Cf.: I don't approve of *his/Roger's neglecting* his duty; I don't approve of *him/Roger neglecting his duty*. In informal English it is more common to use a pronoun in the objective case and a noun in the common case, especially when the construction functions as the object of the sentence.

[b] The '-ing' form preceded by a personal noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case has a function intermediate between that of participle I and the gerund. E.g. I rely on *Jack (him) doing* it on time. On the one hand, this construction is closely connected

in meaning with the gerundial construction 'I rely on *Jack's (his) doing it on time'*; on the other hand, it reminds us of the objective participial construction 'I saw *Jack (him) doing* it'. Such an '-ing' form may be called a half-gerund.

6.10 Composite sentences

Sentences containing two or more primary predications are called c o m p o s i t e . Each subject-predicate structure makes up a c l a u s e of a composite sentence. There are two ways of linking the clauses together: coordination and subordination.

Composite sentences whose clauses are joined by c o o r d i n a t i n g are called c o m p o u n d .

Jill was afraid of the man, and even I was afraid to go near him.

Composite sentences whose clauses are joined by s u b o r d i n a t i n g are called c o m p l e x sentences: e.g. They know they're being looked after. Clauses of composite sentences may be connected s y n d e t i c a l l y (1) or a s y n d e t i c a l l y (2).

1) We can meet this afternoon *or* we can discuss the matter at dinner. *If* you take this medicine, you'll feel better.
2) She did not need to be clever, she only had to exist; she did not need to perform, she only had to be there in front of the cameras. I hope you'll like this place.

6.11 Compound sentences

A c o m p o u n d sentence consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other to form a syntactic unit, both in meaning and intonation.

Clauses of a compound sentence, called c o o r d i n a t e clauses, are connected more closely than independent sentences. The order of coordinate clauses is normally fixed; it reflects a logical sequence of actions, events or thoughts expressed by the sentence.

He came at six and we had dinner together.

(1) Copulative coordination. It is performed by copulative conjunctions such as **and, neither, not only ... but (also).**

The bright daylight of Saturday had passed out *and* a pink-gold light had arrived on the buildings outside the window; I never called on Mr. Burton, *nor* did I invite him to call on me.

(2) Disjunctive coordination. It is performed by the disjunctive conjunctions **or, or else, either ... or** and the conjunctive adverb **otherwise**.

Let's get moving, *or else* we'll miss the train; Do as you're told *otherwise* I won't take you to the film.

(3) Adversative coordination. It is performed by the adversative conjunctions **but, while, whereas** and the conjunctions **nevertheless (nonetheless – formal), still, yet.**

Jane was dressed in brown *while* Mary was wearing blue.

(4) Causative-consecutive coordination. It is performed by the conjunctions **for, so** and the conjunctive adverbs **therefore, accordingly, consequently, hence.**

She found a job in London, *for* she wanted to go there with her baby boy; I've brought the wrong key, *so* I can't open the door.

Coordinate clauses can also be connected asyndetically, separated by a comma, a semicolon or a colon, the relations between clauses coordinated asyndetically are similar to those connected by conjunctions.

The moon went down, the stars grew pale, the cold day broke; Some people work best in the mornings; others do better in the evening; We have had to abandon our holiday plans: the dates didn't work out.

6.12 Rules of coordination

The conjunctive adverbs **also, therefore, nevertheless, otherwise, still, yet**, unlike pure conjunctions, can shift their position by moving around in the sentence.

He has treated you badly, *nevertheless,* he's your brother and you ought to help him; There was no news, she *nevertheless,* went on hoping.

Coordinate clauses are often linked by **not only ... but (also).**

He *not only* disliked the way we spoke, but he disapproved of the way we dressed.

Not only can begin the sentence and bring about partial inversion**.**

Not only did he miss the train, *but* he *also* lost his suit-case.

Nor and (less commonly) **neither** can be used to join coordinate clauses. In this use, they are roughly interchangeable. Used at the beginning of the 2nd coordinate clause, they require partial inversion.

He did not want to ask them for help, *nor could he do* without their help; We owe no money, *neither do they*.

When **neither ... nor** function as correlatives **NOR** opens the 2nd coordinate clause bringing about partial inversion.

You can *neither* write elegantly, *nor can* you write clearly.

Coordinate clauses may be connected not only by a linking element, but also by sharing content, for example they may be talking about the same person or thing. In such cases their connection involves substitution, and possibly, subject-predicate inversion in the 2nd coordinate clause.

We asked for *his slides*, and he showed *them* to us; I *enjoyed the play*, and so did my friends.

6.13 Complex sentences

A c o m p l e x sentence has two or more clauses, at least one of which is subordinated to another. The independent clause which is identical with the sentence as a whole is called a m a i n (principal) clause, while the dependent clause is called a s u b o r d i n a t e clause.

<p style="text-align:center">main   subordinate</p>

No one knows what caused the accident.

However, there is no main clause in a complex sentence when either its subject (1) or predicative (2) is expressed by a clause.

    1) *What caused the accident* is a complete mystery.

    2) The question is *what caused the accident.*

The clauses of a complex sentence may be connected asyndetically, or by means of a subordinator: a subordinating conjunction or conjunctive word (pronoun or adverb).

    I wish you knew that; I knew *that* he was right; He always knew *what* was the right thing.

There is some difference between a conjunction and a conjunctive word. A conjunction is only a structural element connecting two clauses; it does not have any other function in the sentence. A conjunctive word does not only serve as a connector, but it also has a syntactic function of its own in the subordinate clause it introduces. Compare:

    I knew *that* something had happened (conjunction);

    No one was consulted on *who* should have the prize (conjunctive pronoun).

A subordinate clause may follow, precede or interrupt the **main clause.**

    I had it *before she came*; *As I was in a hurry*, I had to take a taxi; The letter *which she wrote* was never posted.

A subordinate clause may itself subordinate one or more other clauses, so that hierarchy of clauses, one within another, may be built up. In such cases we distinguish clauses of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd degree of subordination. The subordination of the kind is called consecutive.

<p style="text-align:center">1   2</p>

I think *you can do it if you try*.

A main clause of a complex sentence forms a unit resembling a simple sentence in which some part is replaced by a clause. In other words, the functions of subordinate clauses are similar to those of the parts of a simple sentence. By function, i.e. the part they play in the main clauses subordinate

clauses are classified as subject (1), predicative (2), object (3), attributive(4) and adverbial (5) clauses.

What you need is plenty of exercise.

This is *where we disagree*.

Do you know *who is coming*?

We saw her friend, *who works in a shop*.

He shook his head again *when Gertrude offered him money*.

Subordinate clauses may be connected by means of a coordinating conjunction with some part of the sentence as homogeneous members, which also shows that their functions are similar to those of the parts of a simple sentence.

I thought *of the fifty guineas, and of how very useful they would be to me*.

Two or more subordinate clauses may be homogeneous. Like homogeneous sentence parts, homogeneous clauses are connected by coordinating conjunctions or asyndetically.

Her bright calm face lighted up with pleasure *as we went to meet him, and as they came in, hand in hand;* She had expected *that it would be more difficult, that something cold and hard would be said.*

6.14 Subject clauses

S u b j e c t clauses are used in the function of the subject of a complex sentence. The peculiarity of subject clauses is their integration with the other part of the sentence.

What caused the accident was a broken bottle.

In the example sentence, 'What caused the accident' is the subject of the whole sentence. If it is cut off from the other part of the sentence what remains ('was a broken bottle') cannot be treated as a clause either in meaning or in structure. It makes sense only in combination with the subject clause. For this reason subject clauses can hardly be treated as subordinate.

Subject clauses are introduced by: (1) conjunctions **that, if, whether**; (2) conjunctive pronouns **who, what, which**; (3) conjunctive adverbs: **when, where, why, how;** (4) asyndetically.

Whether we need it is a different matter; We don't need more money - *what we need* is more time; *How the death would affect Fleur* had begun to trouble Soames; It was a mercy he *didn't lose his presence of mind*.

The connector cannot be omitted if the subject clause opens a complex sentence. In case of **that** it is expanded to **the fact that**, except in very formal English.

(The fact) that she is still alive consoles me.

A subject clause using the **WH-**words is usually awkward or impossible at the beginning of a complex sentence. A sentence with an introductory **it** is used instead:

It doesn't matter *what she looks like*.

Subject clauses introduced by an introductory **it** are frequent in colloquial English.

It was doubtful *if the price will go down;* It was surprising *how little she had changed*.

6.15 Predicative clauses

P r e d i c a t i v e clauses are used as part of a compound nominal predicate in complex sentences.

In the sentence 'That's *what I want'* the predicative clause makes the notional part of the predicate. The other part of the sentence 'That is' (subject + link verb) is not complete without it. This case is much the same as with a subject clause.

Predicative clauses are introduced by: (1) conjunctions **that, if, whether, as if, as though**; (2) conjunctive pronouns **who, what, which**; (3) conjunctive adverbs **when, where, why**; (4) asyndetically.

But the chief trouble was *that he didn't know any editors or writers;* The quality is *what counts most*; Home is *where your friends and family are*; The fact was *he did not understand them*.

There are complex sentences with both subject and predicative expressed by clauses.

What she says is not *what she means*; *How he managed to pull through* is *what baffles me*.

6.16 Object clauses

O b j e c t clauses are used as objects in complex sentences. They may be attached to predicate-verbs (1), non-finite forms (2) and adjectives (3).

He <u>guessed</u> at once *that it was one of Strickland's pictures*.

The voice was sweetly reproachful, wondering *what had kept him away for so dreadful a length of time*.

I wasn't certain *whose house I was in*.

Object clauses are introduced by: (1) conjunctions **that, if, whether, lest**; (2) conjunctive pronouns **who, what, whose, which;** (3) conjunctive adverbs **when, where, why, how**; (4) asyndetically**.**

I don't care *if it will rain or be sunny*; I want to see *who deals with complains*; They asked me *why she had refused the invitation;* I am glad *you came*.

Object clauses may be preceded by prepositions.

I am not satisfied *with how he had done it*; I am sorry for what
I *said to you the other day.*

Occasionally object clauses are introduced by an anticipatory **it**.

I don't like it *when you make fuss about nothing;* I insist upon it
that you confess everything.

The usual place of an object is after the verb it modifies. However, there
are cases when it is placed at the head of the sentence (before the subject), then
it becomes the centre of communication.

What he would do next, he didn't know; *Why he declined that offer*
I can't tell.

6.17 Attributive clauses

A t t r i b u t i v e clauses are used as postpositive attributes of a noun or
pronoun in the main clause. This noun or pronoun is called an a n t e c e d e n t.

The car *which was following us* seems to have disappeared;
Nothing *you do* will make any difference.

Occasionally the antecedent is not one word but the whole of the main
clause.

The girl started to cry suddenly, *which stopped his questioning her*.

Attributive clauses are commonly subdivided into relative and appositive
clauses. They differ both in meaning and in the way they are joined to the
antecedent.

6.18 Relative clauses

R e l a t i v e attributive clauses serve to qualify the antecedent. By their
meaning, they are subdivided into restrictive and non-restrictive.

A r e s t r i c t i v e clause identifies or restricts the antecedent.

Is that the man *who wants to buy your car*?; The only thing *that
matters* is to find our way home.

Restrictive clauses cannot be easily left out. For instance, in the first of the
example sentences above the relative clause shows which man is meant, and if
somebody dropped it saying 'Is that the man?' we probably would not have much
idea of want he was talking about. Restrictive clauses are not marked off by
commas.

Restrictive clauses are introduced by: (1) relative pronouns **who**, **whose,
which, that, as**; (2) relative adverbs **where, when**; (3) asyndetically.

Must you do the same things *as he does?* The records *which he
owns* are mostly classical;
Can you suggest a time *when it'll be convenient to meet*?; Anything
you say is all right with me.

If the relative pronoun is used with a preposition, the preposition can come either before the relative pronoun or at the end of the relative clause.

⎰ This is the house *about which we wrote to you* (formal).
⎱ This is the house *which we wrote to you about* (informal).

In conversational English, it is also common to leave out the pronoun.

The people *he worked with* thought he was a bit strange.

The restrictive relative clause in which a relative pronoun or adverb is omitted is called a c o n t a c t   c l a u s e. In such cases the two parts of the complex sentence are more closely joined together than when the subordinators are used. Contact clauses are usual in informal speech and in most writing.

That's the car *I like*; She was fascinated by the glimpse *she was catching into the tie-ribs of language.*

A n o n - r e s t r i c t i v e (i.e. descriptive) clause describes the antecedent by giving some additional information about it. A non-restrictive relative clause does not restrict its meaning and therefore can be left out of the sentence without affecting its sense. It is marked off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

This is Henry, *whose wife works for my brother-in-law*;
He just came back from India, *where he spent his holiday*.

A non-restrictive relative clause is often very similar to a coordinate clause (with or without conjunction).

Then he met Mary ⎰ who invited him to a party.
⎱ and she invited him to a party.

Only **WH**-pronouns and **WH**-adverbs are usually used in non-restrictive clauses.

Non-restrictive clauses are rather unusual in conversation. They are often heavy and formal, and are much more common in written English.

Sometimes a non-restrictive relative clause refers not just to the noun or pronoun before it but to the whole clause before. The latter may be called c o n t i n u a t i v e attributive clauses.

Compare:

He showed me a photo *that upset me.*
He tore up her photo, *which upset me.*

In the first sentence, it was the photo that was upsetting; the relative clause just refers to this noun. In the second sentence, it was not the photo which was upsetting, but the fact that somebody tore it up; the whole clause 'He tore up her photo' is the antecedent of the relative clause. In cases like this, *which* is always used (*that* or *what* are impossible), and there is always a comma. **Which** in this case is rendered into Russian by the pronoun что.

As with other non-restrictive relative clauses, the relationship between the main clause and the relative clause of this kind frequently resembles coordination.

He arrived half an hour late, ⎰ which annoyed us all very much.
⎱ and that annoyed us very much.

Note:

[a] The relative pronoun may be omitted if it is an object of the restrictive relative clause: e.g. the man *(whom) we saw*; the book *(which) I read first*. If the relative clause is non-restrictive, then 'whom' and 'which' must be used: e.g. Professor Ellis, *whom the students dislike*; the Capitol, *which we had seen first.*

[b] The relative pronoun 'whose' can introduce clauses referring to people or things (e.g. That is the man *whose house burnt down last week*; He mentioned a book *whose title has slipped my memory*). In examples like the latter where the antecedent is non-personal, there is some tendency to avoid the use 'of whose' by using 'of which' though the latter can sound formal (e.g. He mentioned a book *the title of which has slipped my memory*).

[c] "As" introducing a relative clause is usually used after "same" and "such" (e.g. Such apples, *as we do have*, are quite good.)

[d] In restrictive clauses, 'that' is often used instead of the other relative pronouns, especially in informal style. 'That' is used with both non-personal and personal antecedents: e.g. Could you iron the trousers *that are hanging behind the door*?; Where's the girl *that sells the tickets*?).

[e] 'That', not 'which' is used (i) when the antecedent is an indefinite pronoun: e.g. Anything/Everything/All *that remains* can be divided between you; (ii) when the antecedent is modified by a superlative or an ordinal numeral: e.g. Which is the next/first steamship *that crossed the Atlantic*?

6.19 Appositive clauses

An a p p o s i t i v e attributive clause is used to disclose the meaning of the antecedent. The antecedent of an appositive clause may be a factive abstract noun such as **fact** itself, **proposition, reply, idea**, and the like.

The news *that he was resigning his job* proved to be incorrect.

Like relative clauses, appositive clauses can be restrictive (1) and non-restrictive (2).

We shall soon have to face the annual problem *of what we should give Aunt Matilda for her birthday*.

His main argument, *that scientific laws have no exceptions*, was considered absurd.

Appositive clauses are commonly introduced by the conjunction **that** which is not a member of the clause structure (subject, object, etc) as it must be in a relative clause.

A message *that he would be late* arrived by special delivery.

Very occasionally appositive clauses are introduced by the conjunction **whether**.

> There is a question *whether this piece of evidence should be heard in camera or not*.

Appositive clauses are also linked to the main clause by conjunctive words, such as **who, what, which, where, why, how**. They are never joined asyndetically.

> The question *who should do the work* has not been settled yet;
> There was no reason *why you should not have come yourself.*

6.20 Adverbial clauses

A d v e r b i a l clauses are used as adverbial modifiers in complex sentences. They refer to a verb (1), an adjective (2) or an adverb (3).

> You'd better write down the number *before you forget it*.
> He's not as clever a man *as I thought*.
> I love you more deeply *than I can say*.

Adverbial clauses, like adverbial modifiers in general, are capable of occurring in a final, initial, or medial position within the main clause (usually in that order of frequency, medial position being rather rare). In the first case no comma is used, in the second, the adverbial clause is marked off by a comma.

> I hid it *where you'll never find it; Since I left school,* I have only seen him once; Our hostess, *once everyone had arrived,* was full of good humour.

Like adverbial modifiers, adverbial clauses express time, place, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, manner and comparison. Accordingly adverbial clauses of time, place, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, manner and comparison are distinguished.

Adverbial clauses are introduced by a great number of subordinate: conjunctions[*]. Asyndetic subordination is not typical of adverbial clauses (except clauses of condition) since it is mainly the connector that enables us to distinguish one kind of adverbial from another.

Compare:

> *When* he was young ...
> *Though* he was young ...
> *Because* he was young ...

In the table below subordinators introducing different types of adverbial clauses are listed.

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[*] For more information on subordinators, see 1.31

Adverbial clauses of	Subordinators
time	when, while, as, till, until, as soon as, since, after, before, now that, once, the moment, directly, whilst (AmE)
place	where, wherever
cause	as, because, since, for fear (that), on the ground that, for the reason that, now that, seeing/considering (that)
purpose	that, in order that, so that, lest, for fear (that)
result	so that, that
condition	if, unless, as/so long so, in case, provided (that), supposing (that), on condition that
concession	(al)though, as, no matter how, however, whichever, notwithstanding that, in spite of the fact that
manner	as
comparison	than, as, as .. .as, as if, as though

6.21 Clauses of time

Adverbial clauses of time show the time of the action expressed in the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions **after, before, since, until, when, the moment/instant, immediately/directly** and the like; as well as by the correlative subordinators **scarcely ... when, hardly ... when, no sooner ... than.**

Buy your tickets as soon as *you reach the station;* I came the moment *I knew;* Scarcely *had he gone* when the phone rang.

Time clauses are common in initial position, though they may be placed after the main clause at the option of the speaker.

Compare:

Before *you go out,* please look at this letter; Please look at this letter before *you go out*.

As was mentioned in 1.9, a clause of time that deals with events in the future has its verb in the simple present or in the present perfect. The future tense is never used in time clauses in English.

I'll tell him when *he comes;* After *you've eaten,* let's go to the park.

When future is viewed from a standpoint in the past, the appropriate change of tense is made.

I promised that I would tell him <u>when</u> *he came;* I suggested that we should go to the park <u>after</u> *he had eaten.*

Note:

[a] The conjunction 'when' introducing time clauses should not be confused with the conjunctive adverb 'when' introducing subject, predicative, object and attributive clauses. Cf.: He'll feel better when he *starts a new job* (clause of time); It is problematic *when he will start his new job* (subject clause); I'll tell him *when I will finish my composition* (object clause); The question is *when he will start his new job* (predicative clause); The question *when he will start his new job* is being discussed (attributive clause).

[b] Clauses of time introduced by the subordinate conjunction 'while' should not be confused with coordinate clauses introduced by the coordinate conjunction 'while'. Cf.: He lived in a hostel <u>while</u> *he was at university* (clause of time); He likes opera <u>while</u> I like ballet (coordinate clause).

6.22 Clauses of place

Adverbial clauses of place show the place of the action expressed in the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions **where** and **wherever**.

<u>Where</u> *the fire had been,* we saw nothing but blackened ruins; They went <u>wherever</u> *they could find work.*

Note:

One should not confuse the conjunction 'where' introducing clauses of place with the conjunctive adverb 'where' introducing subject, predicative, object and attributive clauses. Cf.: I found my books <u>where</u> *I had left them* (clause of place); *Where he comes from* is not known (subject clause); This is *where we get off* (predicative clause); I wonder *where he lives* (object clause); That's the corner *where the accident occurred* (attributive clause).

6.23 Clauses of cause

Adverbial clauses of cause (or reason) show the cause of the action expressed in the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions **as, because, since, now (that)**, in formal English they are also introduced by the conjunctions **on the ground that, for the reason that, for fear (that), seeing (that), considering that**.

I brought an umbrella <u>because</u> *I thought* it might rain; <u>Seeing</u> <u>that</u> *he could not persuade the other members of the committee*, he gave in; <u>Now</u> <u>that</u> *school is over*, you will have more free time.

In formal style, **as** can be used in the middle of the clause, after a predicative expressed by an adjective or adverbial which opens the clause:

> *Tired* a̲s̲ *she was* I decided not to disturb her.

Clauses of cause may occur either before or after the main clause.

6.24 Clauses of purpose

Adverbial clauses of purpose state the purpose of the action expressed in the main clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions (**so) that, in order that, in case, for fear (that), lest.**

> He gave me his telephone number, s̲o̲ (t̲h̲a̲t̲) *I didn't have to look it up*.

In order that is more formal than **(so) that** and suggests a more deliberate purpose.

> I̲n̲ o̲r̲d̲e̲r̲ t̲h̲a̲t̲ *there should be no misunderstanding*, we propose to issue these instructions to every employee, in writing**.**

Negative purpose is expressed by **for fear (that), in case**, or the now rather archaic and very formal conjunction **lest**.

> They left early f̲o̲r̲ f̲e̲a̲r̲ *they would meet him* (=so that ... not ...);
> We erected this memorial, l̲e̲s̲t̲ *our children forget* (=in order that ... not ...).

6.25 Clauses of result

Adverbial clauses of result denote the result of the action expressed in the main clause. Very often result clauses have an additional meaning of degree.

Clauses of pure result are introduced by the conjunction **so that**, informally **so**. Clauses of this type are usually marked off by a comma.

> I took no notice of him, *so (that) he flew into a rage*.

Adverbial clauses of result with an additional meaning of degree are introduced by the conjunction **that**; in these cases we find the adverb **so** with an adjective or an adverb (1) or the demonstrative **such** followed by a noun (2) in the main clause.

> 1) This book is s̲o̲ long t̲h̲a̲t̲ *I can't finish it today;*
> 2) She made s̲u̲c̲h̲ a good meal t̲h̲a̲t̲ *we all ate too much*.

If a noun occurs along with an adjective in structure (1), another pattern is available:

> He is s̲o̲ excellent a teacher t̲h̲a̲t̲ *many schools want to hire him*.

The pattern with **such** is much more frequent, since the pattern with **so** is considered extremely formal.

Note:

Clauses of result may be introduced by 'so that' which makes them identical with clauses of purpose. The context indicates the difference between result and purpose. Usually the predicative in a purpose clause contains a suppositional mood form (e.g. They advertised the concert <u>so</u> <u>that</u> *everyone should know about it)*. The predicate in a result clause is usually devoid of modality as it shows real events rather than possible future ones (e.g. It is early <u>that</u> *no one has arrived yet*).

6.26 Clauses of condition

Adverbial clauses of condition state the dependence of one circumstance or set of circumstances on another. They are introduced chiefly by the conjunctions **if** (positive condition) and **unless** (negative condition).

> <u>If</u> *you thought so* why didn't you say it?; I wouldn't have gone <u>unless</u> *it had been necessary*.

The latter means roughly 'If it has not been necessary ...'. But there is a slight difference between an **unless**-clause and a negative **if**-clause in that **unless** has the more exclusive meaning of 'only if ... not' or 'except on condition that ...'. It is thus the opposite of **provided/providing (that),** which means 'if and only if ...'.

> <u>Provided</u> <u>that</u> *no objection is raised*, we shall hold the meeting here.

Other compound conditional conjunctions approximately synonymous with **provided (that)** are **as long as, so long as**, and **on condition that.**

Clauses of condition can be joined to the main clause asyndetically. In cases of this type we find subject-predicate **inversion.**

> *Were she my daughter* I could suggest several steps. *Had I realized* what you intended I should not have wasted my time trying to explain matters to you; *Should you change your mind*, let us know immediately.

Were/had/should + personal pronoun inversion structures are found in formal style.

6.27 Clauses of concession

Adverbial clauses of concession denote the presence of some obstacle which nevertheless does not hinder the action expressed in the main clause. This type of adverbial meaning overlaps conditional meaning.

Concession clauses are introduced chiefly by **though** or its more formal variant **although**, occasionally the latter can be replaced by **while**.

> No goals were scored, <u>though</u> it was an exciting game; <u>Although</u> *he is a good student and tries hard*, he will never be top of the class. *While there was no conclusive evidence*, most people thought he was guilty.

The ideas of condition (**if**) and implied contrast (**even**) are combined in the conjunction **even if** which may be added to the list of universal conditional-concessive connectors.

> I always enjoy sailing <u>even</u> <u>if</u> *the weather is rough.*

The same meaning is expressed by **even though** which is more formal.

> He wouldn't give the money, <u>even</u> <u>though</u> *I begged him for it.*

There are structures in which concession is expressed rather formally.

> *Unarmed* <u>as</u>/<u>though</u> *he was*, he bravely went forward to meet his enemies; *Cold* as *it was*, we went out.

In sentences like these, the conjunctions **as** and **though** occur in the middle of the clause, after a predicative expressed by an adjective or adverbial which opens the clause.

Concession of a generalized sort is expressed by **no matter how/where/when**, etc or with those **ever**-words that correspond to **no matter** in meaning.

> <u>No</u> <u>matter</u> <u>where</u> *you go*, you'll find Coca-Cola; <u>Whenever</u> *you come*, you'll be more than welcome.

A clause introduced by **no matter how/wh**-words could also follow the main clause.

> You are not responsible, *no matter who caused the accident.*

In clauses of concession the future tense is never used; a present tense with a future meaning is used instead.

> <u>No</u> <u>matter</u> <u>who</u> <u>telephones</u>, say I'm out; *Wherever you go* you won't find a friendlier town than this one.

Note:

[a] The complex sentences in this section could be re-worded by two coordinate clauses joined with the coordinate conjunction 'but' (e.g. No goals were scored, <u>but</u> the game was exciting). The coordinate conjunction 'while' and 'whereas' chiefly can express the meaning which is close to that of concessive conjunctions (e.g. <u>Whereas</u> *John seems rather stupid*, his brother is clever).

[b] 'However' must be followed immediately by an adjective or adverb (e.g. *However fast he runs*, he'll miss the train).

[c] Sometimes a clause of concession introduced by 'no matter how/wh-' is used at the end of a sentence without a predicate verb: e.g. We'll come *no matter what the weather (is);* I'll always love you, *no matter what* (=no matter what happens).

6.28 Clauses of manner

Adverbial clauses of manner mainly specify how the action expressed in the main clause is performed. They are usually introduced by the conjunction **as**.

Please do <u>as</u> *I instructed*.

If an **as**-clause is placed initially, the correlative **so**, in formal literary English, may introduce the main clause.

<u>As</u> *a moth is attracted by a light*, (<u>so</u>) he was fascinated by her.

In informal American English, **like** is very often used as a conjunction instead of **as**. This usage is becoming common in British English.

Nobody loves you <u>like</u> *I do*.

Many speakers use **the way** as a conjunction omitting the preposition **in** in informal speech. Compare:

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{She cooks turkey } \underline{\text{in the way}} \textit{ my mother did} \text{ (formal).} \\ \text{She cooks turkey } \underline{\text{the way}} \textit{ I like} \text{ (informal).} \end{array} \right.$

Clauses of manner may refer to an adverbial modifier, giving additional information concerning it.

He said with contempt, <u>as</u> *a grown-up serious man should treat such views*.

Note:

In a formal written style, 'as' is sometimes followed by the inverted word order e.g. He was a Catholic, *as were most of his friends*.

6.29 Clauses of comparison

Adverbial clauses of comparison denote an action with which the action of the main clause is compared. They are introduced by the conjunctions **than, as, as ...as, not so ... as, as if, as though, the ... the.**

Bill speaks French worse <u>than</u> *he writes it;* She is a fine singer, <u>as</u> *her mother used to be;* He didn't catch <u>as</u> many <u>as</u> *he'd hoped.*

Comparisons with unreal situations can be expressed by a clause beginning with **as if** or **as though**.

She treats me <u>as if</u> *I were a stranger*.

Like is often used, in an informal style, instead of **as if**.

She sat there eating cream cakes <u>like</u> *there was no tomorrow.*

The use of the fronted correlative **the ... the** plus comparatives indicates that two situations are changing in proportion to each other.

<u>The</u> *better I got to know him*, <u>the</u> less I liked him.

If the reference is made to the future, the predicate verb in the clause of comparison is always in the present tense or present perfect.

<u>The</u> *sooner we start*, <u>the</u> sooner we will finish.

6.30 Compound-complex sentences

Sometimes coordination and subordination are combined within one sentence. In this case we have compound-complex or complex-compound sentences.

A compound-complex sentence consists of two or more coordinate clauses one of which at least is complex in structure.

> The rehearsal ended for one day, and Carrie went home feeling that she had acquitted herself satisfactorily = coordinate clause + [(coordinate clause) + subordinate object clause]; I suggested that he should go to bed and he said he could not sleep; he wanted to go out and walk about the streets = [(coordinate clause) + subordinate object clause] + [(coordinate clause) + subordinate object clause] + coordinate clause; Whether he had turned his head to look at me I do not know, for I watched the road ahead with a blurred and steady stare, but suddenly he put out his hand and took hold of mine, and kissed it, still saying nothing, and then he threw his handkerchief on my lap, which I was too ashamed to touch = [subordinate object clause + (coordinate clause)] + causative coordinate clause + adversative coordinate clause + [(coordinate clause) + subordinate attributive clause].

6.31 Complex-compound sentences

A complex-compound sentence has two or more subordinate clauses connected by coordination.

/I wondered/ (where he was going), and (why he carried the bag) = /main clause/ + (subordinate object clause) + (subordinate object clause);

/I wished/ (I had never heard the rumour about Phat Diem) or that, (/the rumour had dealt with any other town than the one place in the North/) (where my relationship with a French naval officer would allow me to slip in uncensored, uncontrolled) = /main clause/ + (subordinate object clause) + (subordinate object clause) + (subordinate attributive clause);

/It was a circumstance/ (*which* the lady seemed to think odd), but (/which was natural enough/) when (you come to think of it, the room being directly opposite to the head of stairs) = /main clause/ + (subordinate attributive clause) + (/subordinate attributive clause/) + (subordinate adverbial clause of time).

PART SEVEN
SENTENCE PARTS

7.1

The subject-predicate structure is characteristic of most sentences.

The s u b j e c t and the p r e d i c a t e are the m a i n   p a r t s of the sentence. They are grammatically equal parts of the sentence and make up its centre. All the other words in the sentence depend on the main parts and are grouped around them.

Besides the subject and the predicate the sentence may include other words, modifying or specifying the main parts of the sentence. These words or phrases which are grammatically dependent on the main parts of the sentence, are called s e c o n d a r y   p a r t s of the sentence. These are a t t r i b u t e s, o b j e c t s and a d v e r b i a l   m o d i f i e r s.

The secondary parts of the sentence can be classified, according to the words they modify, as:

Verb complements: (1) objects
                              (2) adverbial modifiers
noun complements: (3) attributes

The subject and the predicate with their complements make up respectively the subject group and the predicate group.

       subject group   predicate group

A man like John would never do that.

The secondary parts of the sentence may have their own modifiers and thus form their own syntactical groups (the object group, the attributive group, the adverbial group).

         object group

He pushed the door wide open.

           attributive group

I visited his really quite unbelievably delightful cottage.

      adverbial group

Carefully searching the room, John found a ring.

A degree of grammatical connection between parts of syntactical groups may be different. There are the so-called close and loose syntactical groups.

We speak of a close group when one of the parts is syntactically the leading element of the group. We speak of a loose group when each element is comparatively independent of the other parts.

The secondary parts of the sentence are always subordinated to the main parts. However, this subordination may be rather loose, when we deal with the

so-called d e t a c h e d   p a r t s of the sentence, i.e. those secondary parts of the sentence which assume a certain degree of grammatical and semantic independence. Their loose connection with the head word may be due to the position of these words, their meaning and structure, or the speaker's desire to make them prominent.

In spoken English detached parts of the sentence are marked by intonation, pause, and special stress; in writing they are generally separated by commas or dashes.

That is important – *very*; We entered a forest, *dark and gloomy*.

Two or more parts of the sentence used in the same function and connected by coordination are called homogeneous parts of the sentence. Homogeneous sentence parts may be joined with the help of coordinating conjunctions or asyndetically.

It was the room where he *slept* and *worked*; We take our holidays *in July* or *in August*.

Note that any part of the sentence can be expressed not only by a phrase, but also by a clause, as in

I got up *late* and had breakfast *later than usual*.
When I finished breakfast, I made a call to the office.

The subject

7.2 The personal subject

The s u b j e c t is the independent part of a predication, which denotes a living being, a lifeless thing, or an idea spoken about in the sentence.

A waitress came to the table; *The* red *phone* was to the airport's duty fire chief; *The reference* to their father, though casual, had moved Keith strangely.

The subject may be expressed by:

(a) a noun in the common case

Natalie had all kinds of odd interests.

(b) a pronoun

Anything would be better than going back to Los Angeles tonight.

(c) a numeral

Two were indeed young, about eleven or ten; *The first* was a tall lady with dark hair.

(d) a substantivized adjective or participle

Even his *elders* asked these questions; *The wicked* always think other people are as bad as themselves.

(e) an infinitive

To live is to work.

(f) a gerund

Lying does not go well with me.

As shown above a subject can be a single word, but it can be much longer than a single word.

Two thousands more were believed injured; *To achieve that* requires two things.

The subject of a sentence may be expressed by an infinitival, gerundial or participial construction. In such a case we can speak of a c o m p l e x   s u b j e c t .

Cyril seemed *to be made specially for school*; *Her being so employed* was a great relief to me; *He* was *seen coming out of his house.*

A complex subject is also found in sentences containing the verbs **consider**, **elect, regard, name, make** and the like in the passive. The second element called a subjective predicative is generally expressed in such structures by a noun, adjective or adverb.

He was considered *a genius; Mel* was appointed *secretary* to the head of the department; *The room* was made *beautiful.*

All the instances discussed in the section are p e r s o n a l   s u b j e c t s proper, i.e. they denote a person or thing or anything presented as a thing.

The personal subject may be preceded by the element **there**. This is usually the case when the subject introduces new information.

There are always *a lot of tourists* here.

The personal subject of the **there**-sentence may be called the 'notional' subject, so as to distinguish it from **there** itself, which for most purpose is the 'grammatical' (formal) subject.

Note:

[a] 'There' in the above sentence pattern is sometimes called 'introductory' and sentences of this kind are called existential.

[b] There is another type of introductory-'there'-sentence which consists of 'there' + 'be' + NP + clause which is a relative clause (e.g. Is there anyone that you want to speak to?)

7.3 The indefinite personal subject

The indefinite personal subject refers to people in general. It is expressed by the indefinite pronoun **one**, the personal pronouns **you, we[*], they.**

One must expect shocks in Malaya; As *you* sow *you* shall mow; *You*'re only young once; *We* learn to restrain ourselves as *we* get older; If anybody telephones, ask them if *they* can call again tomorrow.

7.4 The demonstrative subject

The demonstrative subject points out either a person or thing in the sentences which identify them. The function of a demonstrative subject can be fulfilled by the pronouns **it, this, that**.

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[*] For more information about "we" see 2.48.

It was a prettily furnished room; Hello. *This* is Elizabeth. Is *that* Ruth?

Notice that in Russian the demonstrative pronoun это is used in similar structures: *Это* была хорошо обставленная комната; *Это* почтальон.

7.5 The introductory subject

As shown in 7.2 the subject can be formal and notional. The formal subject is found in **there**-sentences where **there** may be called i n t r o d u c t o r y .

There is a hotel not far away.

It, also called introductory, can be used as a formal subject when the real subject of a sentence is an infinitive, a gerund or a clause.

It is difficult to remember all their names; *It*'s useless asking him; *It*'s natural that she was offended.

7.6 The impersonal subject

The formal subject is also found in expressions referring to time, weather and temperature. It is expressed by **it** with no real meaning which can be called i m p e r s o n a l .

It's ten o'clock; *It*'s Monday; *It* rained for three days.

An impersonal **it** is found to introduce information about distances.

It's three miles to the nearest garage.

An impersonal **it** can mean 'the present situation'.

It's awful! I've got so much work I don't know where to start;
Wasn't *it* lovely there?

7.7 The predicate

The p r e d i c a t e is the member of a predication which asserts something about the subject, i.e. it characterizes the subject as to its action, state or quality.

It is characteristic of English that the predicate commonly comprises a verb in the finite form which shows person, number, tense and mood. The forms of person and number connect the predicate with the subject; the mood forms show in what relation to reality the speaker places the action expressed by the predicate; the tense forms refer the action to a definite item of time.

With regard to its meaning the predicate expresses either processes developing in time or qualities of the subject. Accordingly there are two main types of predicates: (1) verbal, (2) nominal.

1) John *is studying* law.
2) John *is a law student*.

By their structure predicates may be simple and compound.

A s i m p l e predicate is expressed by a finite verb (in a synthetical or analytical form) in which both the lexical meaning and the grammatical meaning (person, mood, tense, etc.) are expressed. Simple predicates are always verbal.

I *felt* as if I *was being watched*.

A c o m p o u n d predicate is expressed by a semi-auxiliary verb which contains the grammatical meanings (person, mood, tense, etc.) and a notional word which contains the lexical meaning. Compound predicates may be verbal and nominal.

Some people *can eat* what they like and *get no fatter*.

7.8 The simple verbal predicate

The simple verbal predicate generally denotes an action; sometimes, however, it denotes a state which is represented as an action.

Neither of the parents *helped* him; Business *is recovering*.

As shown above, simple predicates consist of a verb only. Occasionally they may comprise a verb together with some other word or words which make up a set expression. It is the phraseological predicate which is of the type V (p) N: *have a swim, take place, pay a visit, get in touch*, etc. In this combination both elements are so closely connected as to form one sense unit and may be regarded as an intransitive verb (e.g. *have a swim = swim; take place = happen, occur*).

Take care of the pence and the pounds *will take care* of themselves.

7.9 The compound verbal predicate

The c o m p o u n d v e r b a l predicate consists of two parts: semi-auxiliary and notional.

The semi-auxiliary part comprises a finite verb which expresses person, number, tense, aspect, mood and voice; besides it has a certain lexical meaning of its own.

The notional part expressed by an infinitive or gerund, rarely a participle denotes the action performed or suffered by the subject.

He may not *agree* with your suggestion; How old were you when you first *started playing* the piano?

Compound verbal predicates are subdivided into modal and aspective.

7.10 The compound verbal modal predicate

As is suggested by the term itself, the first component in a c o m p o u n d v e r b a l m o d a l predicate is expressed by elements which have a certain modal meaning, that of determination, obligation, desire and the like. They are:
(1) modal verbs or their equivalents **have to** and **be to.**

This I *could expand* upon for several lessons; *May* I *have* your attention now, please?; You *will have to have* a well-balanced diet.
(2) verbs of modal meaning, such as **want, try, tend, manage**, etc.

We *hope to attract* investors to our new savings scheme.
(3) phrases of the type **be able to** (e.g. **be obliged, be ready, be anxious, be glad**)

I'm prepared to let bygones be bygones.

(4) the expressions **had better/best, would sooner/rather** and the like.

> We'*d better* stop.

(5) the phrase **be going to**

> I'll talk to Big George. But he *isn't going to like* this.

The second component of a compound modal predicate is expressed by an infinitive. In subclass 2 it may be also expressed by a gerund.

> She was so upset that she *couldn't help crying*.

7.11 The compound verbal aspective predicate

The first component of the c o m p o u n d v e r b a l a s p e c t i v e predicate expresses the beginning, repetition, duration or end of the action denoted by the notional verb. This meaning is conveyed by two subclasses of items:

(1) verbs that express beginning, duration or end of the action, such as **start, set about, go on, proceed, give up, finish**, etc.

> He *stopped smoking* on his doctor's advice; She *began to understand* what they really wanted.

(2) **used to** and (less commonly) **would** which are used to talk about habitual activity in the past.

> That's where I *used to live* when I was a child; When John was a student, he and his friends *would* often *sit up* all night discussing philosophy and politics.

The second component of a compound verbal aspective predicate is expressed by an infinitive or gerund. Very occasionally a participle can occur in this function. This is the case when the first component of the predicate is expressed by the verbs **come** and **go** which imparts perfective meaning to the action denoted by the participle[*].

> They *came hurrying* towards us.

7.12 The compound nominal predicate

The c o m p o u n d n o m i n a l predicate is a qualifying predicate, i.e. denotes a certain state or quality of the subject. It consists of a link verb which is a finite form and a predicative. Being a nominal element the latter is expressed by a nominal part of speech (noun, pronoun, adjective, etc.) or its equivalent (a phrase or a clause).

> Spring flowers *are a delight; Are* you really *fifty*? You *look not older* than thirty five; This *is where we disagree*.

A verb used as a link partially loses its lexical meaning and acquires some abstract meaning. By the type of the link verb compound nominal predicates are subdivided into four groups:

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[*] For the meaning of the structure 'come/go + V_{ing}, see 5.13

(1) the compound nominal predicate of being

>The flowers *are pretty* and they *smell sweet*; It *tastes good.*

Group 1 comprises such verbs as **be, look, taste, feel, smell, sound, stand**.

(2) the compound nominal predicate of becoming

>Everything *became a mist.*

The most common verb used as a link in a compound nominal predicate of becoming is **become**. Other verbs that belong here are **grow, turn, get**.

>The boy *turned pale*; The body *was growing rigid.*

(3) the compound nominal predicate of remaining

>Miles *stayed silent*, La Rocca watching; The winter *continued damp and wet.*

Group 3 includes the verbs **remain, keep, stay, continue** and the like.

(4) the compound nominal predicate of seeming and appearing. It comprises the verbs **seem, appear** and **prove** which have some modal force.

>It *seems ironic* to have risked so much; Our stocks *are proving insufficient.*

The significant part of a compound nominal predicate is a predicative. It can be expressed by

(a) a noun

>Mr. Brown *is a teacher.*

(b) a pronoun

>This book *is mine.*

(c) an adjective

>*Weren't* they *nice*?

(d) a numeral

>He *appeared the first.*

(e) an infinitive

>Our task *is to find* the correct answer.

(f) a gerund

>One thing they could try *is restoring* funds at Far East.

(g) participle II

>We *were worried* by her silence.

(h) an adverb

>*How are* you *feeling* today?; The storm *will* soon *be over.*

Prepositional phrases are sometimes used predicatively: e.g. This *is out of the question.*

Occasionally a complex predicative can occur. It is expressed by an infinitival or gerundial complex.

>That is *for me to decide*; The greatest trouble was *our not knowing all the details.*

Note:

[a] Care should be taken to discriminate between a compound nominal predicate with a link expressed by a verb other than 'be' and a simple verbal

predicate. Cf.: (i) Tom *grows* a beard (simple verbal predicate). In (i) 'grows' is a notional verb whereas in (ii) the linking function of the verb comes to the front; in this function 'grows' can be replaced by other verbs with vague lexical meaning and distinct linking properties ('becomes, turns, gets', etc). Cf.: He *turned* his face to the wall :: His hands *turned fists*; The car *runs* smoothly :: This river *runs dry* every summer.

[b] 'To be' can occur between the link verb and the predicative in the case of a compound nominal predicate of seeming and appearing: e.g. She *seems (to be) a sweet girl;* He *proved (to be) a fool.*

[c] The pronouns 'it' and 'such' and the adverb 'so' are used predicatively to replace what has been already stated: e.g. He was a learned man but he didn't look *it*; *Such* were his words; I was tired, *so* were the others.

7.13 'Be + V$_{en}$' - compound nominal or simple predicate?

Special attention should be paid to the construction 'be + V$_{en}$' which under certain circumstances serves as a simple verbal predicate. Compare the two examples given below:

(1) The theatre *was closed* on the orders of the mayor. (A simple verbal predicate)

(2) When I got to the theatre I found that it *was closed.* (A compound nominal predicate)

In the first sentence, 'was closed' is the opposite of 'was opened'. It is a passive form of the verb which refers to an action. In the second, 'was' is a link verb and 'closed' (the opposite of 'open') is a predicative; it refers to a state, not an action, and is more like an adjective.

The following might be useful hints when discriminating between a simple verbal predicate and a compound nominal predicate expressed by 'be + V$_{en}$'.

The construction 'be + V$_{en}$' is a simple verbal predicate when:

(a) the verb is in the continuous

The next moment I *was being introduced* to a middle-aged woman.

(b) the verb is in the future or future-in-the-past

I'm afraid the gate *will be locked*.

(c) the verb is in the perfect

The door *has* already *been painted*.

(d) the verb is followed by a prepositional 'by'-phrase expressing a personal agent

They *were interrupted* by Miss Bennet.

(e) the verb is modified by an adverbial characterizing the action

The story *was* completely *forgotten*.

Note:

But sometimes the verbal force of the construction is not obvious though the personal 'by'-agent is present (e.g. I was very *irritated* by the man in

the blue suit). In these 'mixed' constructions, we cannot say whether 'be + V$_{en}$' is a simple verbal or a compound nominal predicate.

7.14 Mixed types of predicate

When two elements of different types of predicate form one predicate, we call it a m i x e d t y p e of predicate. Such predicates contain components of compound verbal and nominal predicates or of compound verbal predicates of both kinds.
(1)   The c o m p o u n d m o d a l n o m i n a l predicate
You *can't be serious*; He greatly *longed to be the next heir* himself.
(2)   The c o m p o u n d a s p e c t i v e n o m i n a l predicate
The grey house *had ceased to be a house* for family life; I had been glad the doctor was Chinese, and not American. I *continued to be glad* for that.
(3)   The c o m p o u n d m o d a l a s p e c t i v e predicate
You *should begin to unpack* your luggage; Through the remainder of the day Miles was weary from the lack of sleep, though he *managed to keep working*.
Occasionally a predicate of a more complicated structure can occur. It comprises the components of a modal, aspective and nominal predicate:
You *must stop looking dismal*.
There are also cases of the so-called d o u b l e predicate**.**
Soames *stood invisible* at the top of the stairs; The stars *came out very sharp* and *bright*.
As is seen from the examples the double predicate combines the features of a simple verbal predicate (e.g. Soames *stood* at the top of the stairs) and a compound nominal predicate (e.g. As he stood there he *was invisible*). Both the components in this type of predicate are of equal value, that is why it is called double.

Note:

Care should be taken to discriminate between the double predicate and the compound nominal predicate with a semi-notional verb functioning as a link verb: e.g. The clouds *flew fast* and *thick* (a double predicate):: The path *grew steep* (a compound nominal predicate).

7.15 The object

The o b j e c t is a secondary part of the sentence which completes or restricts the meaning of a verb or sometimes an adjective, and (less commonly) a noun of verbal or adjectival nature (e.g**. promise, surprise, hope, possibility**).
Which *books* did you *use*?; Tom was good *to her*; She shows no love for *her child*.
Like a subject, an object is a noun phrase or a clause with nominal function.
My mother can't bear hearing modern *music* (noun); Show me *that* (pronoun); I dialled *7050* (numeral); I'll do my *best* to make you

comfortable (substantivized adjective); He had promised *to join* her before the summer (infinitive); I am fond *of skating* (gerund); We were told *that you had taken a book from the library* (object clause).

TYPES OF PREDICATE

		Simple verbal	Lead sinks. I haven't finished my work yet. The entrance door was closed at 12 sharp. I will get in touch with you later this week.
Verbal Predicate	Compound verbal predicate	Modal	modal verb + infinitive have to/be to + infinitive We may open certain doors but you have to go through them.
			verb of modal meaning + infinitive/gerund I tend to lose track of time. Do you mind sharing?
			be able/eager + infinitive I am able to pay for the best.
			had better/would sooner +infinitive We'd better go back home.
			be going to + infinitive Our aunt is going to visit us next month.
		Aspective	verbs denoting beginning, duration, or end of the action My watch keeps going slow.
			would/used to + infinitive At times he would spend all days locked in the rooms.
		Modal aspective	We must begin to study properly.
Compound nominal predicate	of being		John is a student. He is intelligent.
	of becoming		The post became vacant.
	of remaining		The weather remained cold.
	of seeming		This fruit seems ripe.
Mixed predicates	modal nominal		You must keep quiet for a few days. We ought not to be enemies.
	aspective nominal		I was beginning to feel chilly.
	double		The moon rose red.

The object may also be expressed by an infinitival participial or gerundial complex. In such cases we can speak of a c o m p l e x object.

> You've made *me feel quite sad*; We waited *for the storm to pass*; I had *it all planned*; I believe *in your putting things right*.

The second component of a complex object called an objective predicative can also be an adjective or a noun.

> We thought *this intention very noble*; I regard *it as a threat*; They elected *him President*.

'We thought this intention very noble' can be reworded 'We thought this intention to be very noble'. The presence of 'be' in the rewording of 'We thought this intention very noble' suggests that what was actually thought was 'This intention is very noble'.

Some adjective predicatives show the result of the event described by the verb:

> He painted *the wall blue* (=the wall became blue).

By the meaning and position in the sentence we need to distinguish two main types of object: direct and indirect.

7.16 The direct object

A noun or its equivalent that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called a d i r e c t object. The direct object is the direct receiver or product of the action denoted by the transitive verb.

> Many MPs criticized *the Prime Minister*; He wrote *a good criticism*.

The direct object follows the adjectives **like**, **busy** and **worth**.

> We'll go for a walk if you feel like *it*; She's busy *reading* for the exams; This art collection is worth *a fortune*.

There are verbs which may be followed by two direct objects. These are **ask, answer, forgive, envy**.

> They asked *me questions* (They asked *me*. They asked *questions*.); I envy *him his excellent health* (I envy *him*. I envy *his excellent health*.)

A direct object may take an objective predicative expressed by a noun or adjective to make a complex object.

> He found *George/him a bright pupil/clever*.

One may include in a direct object also the type of object (sometimes called 'cognate') which repeats, partially or wholly, the meaning of the verb, is in 'sing a song'.

> The child smiled *the smile* and laughed *the laugh* of contentment; Do you ever think great *thoughts*?

The cognate object is regularly modified by an attribute with which it forms a phrase having a meaning close to that of an adverbial modifier: e.g. live

a happy *life,* smile a bitter *smile,* fight a hard *battle.* The construction with a cognate object is more emphatic than with an adverbial modifier.

Note:

[a] Verbs plus direct objects often form set expressions such as 'have a smoke, give a smoke, take steps, pay a visit', etc. They should be treated as equivalents of single verbs.

[b] In English there are more transitive verbs than in Russian. Sometimes the prepositional object in Russian corresponds to the direct object in English: Он сел на *лошадь.* - He mounted *the horse;* Ты сомневаешься в моем слове? - Do you doubt my *word*? A verb which is transitive in English and requires a direct object does not always correspond to a transitive verb with a direct object (accusative case) in Russian. Cf.: I helped *him*/my *father* (direct object) - Я помог *ему/отцу* (indirect object); I addressed her (direct object) - Я обратился *к ней* (indirect prepositional object, dative case).

7.17 The indirect object

The i n d i r e c t object usually denotes a living being to whom the action of the verb is directed.

> A day's rest will do *you* good; We promised *the children* a picnic.

There are also cases when the indirect object indicating the recipient of the action is preceded by the preposition **to** making up a 'to'-phrase; then it is a prepositional indirect object.

> He gave all the money *to* his *mother*; I shall write *to you* directly I arrive there.

The indirect prepositional object occurs more frequently with intransitive verbs than with transitive ones and does not necessarily express the recipient of the action.

> They operated *on* his *lung;* I want to thank you *for* your *kindness*.

Prepositional indirect objects are used not only with verbs but with nouns and the majority of adjectives taking objects and with nouns derived from verbs.

> The audience were delighted *with* his *singing*; I haven't the faintest hope *of passing* the exam.

Note:

[a] When the indirect object occurs with the passive voice it is in the form of a phrase with 'to' or 'for': e.g. The house was shown *to me*; The jacket was made *for* her *son*. In a few cases, mostly with personal pronouns, the indirect object may occur after a passive voice without a preposition: e.g. That lesson was taught *him* when he was quite young.

[b] It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between an attribute and a prepositional indirect object: e.g. The child had no difficulty *in solving the problem*.

[c] Some prepositional phrases may be interpreted as objects and as adverbial modifiers: e.g. Oil floats if you put it *on water;* He killed the spider *with a newspaper*.

7.18 Order of direct and indirect objects

The indirect object normally follows the verb and precedes the direct object.

$$O_i \quad O_d \qquad\qquad O_i \qquad O_d$$

He gave *the girl a doll;* He bought *the girl* a white *hat*;

$$O_i \quad O_d$$

I'll lend *you some*.

Indirect objects indicating the recipient of the action can usually be replaced by a corresponding prepositional phrase, which normally follows the direct object[*].

He gave a doll *to the girl;* He bought a white hat *for the girl*.

The prepositional object with the preposition **to** often occurs in constructions parallel to those with the indirect object.

I gave *John* a book.

I gave the book *to John*.

There is a certain difference between these two constructions, in the latter case the object placed at the end of the sentence has an emphatic stress. Compare:

I gave the book to John (in reply to: 'Who did you give the book to?')

I gave John *a book* (in reply to: 'What did you give John?')

Note:

As stated above when the indirect object is in the form of a prepositional phrase, the normal word order is $V + O_d + O_i$ (e.g. I explained the rule to some students who stayed after class). This is changed, however, when the direct object is a clause (e.g. He admitted to us that he had taken the money) or another 'heavy' element consisting of several words (e.g. I explained to the students the rules governing the use of direct and indirect objects).

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[*] For the list of common verbs which allow the indirect object to be replaced by a prepositional phrase, see R. Quirk et al 'A university grammar of English', 12.28.

7.19 'It' used as introductory object

Some verbs (e.g. *find, think, make*) may be followed by a complex object containing an infinitive or a **that**-clause. In this construction the introductory **it** is used to represent the real object. Normally, this only happens when there is an adjective used as objective predicative.

> I <u>find</u> *it difficult* to talk to you about anything serious;
> George <u>made</u> *it clear* that he disagreed.

The introductory **it** functioning as formal object is not translated into Russian: Я чувствую, что с тобой невозможно говорить о чем-нибудь серьезном. This structure is characteristic of formal style.

7.20 The attribute

The a t t r i b u t e is a secondary part of the sentence qualifying a noun or a noun equivalent.

> We've got *important* information; I'm looking forward to my *brother's* arrival; Would you like a cup *of tea*?; She was the *very* first; He said nothing *particular*.

Structurally, attributes are indicated by their position in the sentence. They can be either in pre-position or post-position to the words they modify. Accordingly prepositive (1) and postpositive (2) attributes are distinguished.

> 1) I was invited to *afternoon* tea by an *old* friend; *Any* time will do.
> 2) There is a problem *to solve*; They've just moved to a *house next to ours*; She said something *incomprehensible*.

Besides, the demonstrative pronouns **this - these, that - those** agree in number with their head nouns.

Semantically, attributes may express various shades of relations with their head nouns. They may be qualitative (e.g. *fine* days, a *ninepenny* stamp), circumstantial (e.g. his life in *France*, a man *in love*, the key *to the door*).

The attribute may be expressed by:
An adjective. An adjective used as attribute precedes the noun.

> The *new* secretary doesn't like me.

Adjectives ending in -**ible** or -**able** may also come after the noun.

> It's the only solution *possible*; Are there any tickets *available*?

Present follows the noun when it means 'here' or 'there' (e.g. We can't start with so few members *present*); **proper** follows the noun when it means 'itself or 'themselves' (e.g. After the introduction we started the meeting *proper*).

Adjectives come after the pronouns in -**body** and -**thing**.

> Have you read anything *interesting* lately?

Statives usually follow the noun:

> Who's the greatest man *alive*?

A participle

A participle used as attribute may come before the noun but more often it is placed in post-position.

> There is a *broken* window in the kitchen; The window *broken* yesterday will have to be paid for.

Here are some expressions in which the participle must go after the noun: It is the only place *left*; Any person *objecting*?; Most of the people *singing* were women.

A pronoun

> Let me say a *few* words; *What* excuse shall I make?; He's a friend *of mine*.

A numeral

> *Two* or *three* days went by; Hers was the *second* answer.

A noun in the genitive case. This kind of attribute is generally used in preposition.

> *Henry's* landlady welcomed us warmly.

However, the attribute expressed by the so-called double genitive (of N's) is used in postposition.

> She's supposed to be a distant cousin *of the Queen's*.

A noun in the common case

> They rented a large *conference* hall.

More than two nouns can be joined in the 'noun as adjective' structure. Two, three or more nouns can be used as adjectives.

> *Oil production* costs are getting high; These data are supplied by the *road accident research* centre.

A prepositional noun phrase

> Newton discovered the principle of universal *gravitation*; She received the Nobel Prize *for physics*; A murmur *in the room* attracted his attention.

A prepositional gerundial phrase and a prepositional construction with a gerund

> There's no hope *of arriving on time*; Mr. Gordon was perhaps a little inflated that day by reason *of his having been elected* to the Chairmanship of the Gas and Lighting Committee.

An infinitive, an infinitive phrase and an infinitive construction

> He's looking for a place *to live;* I have no wish *to quarrel with you*; He gave orders *for it to be done.*

An adverb. An adverb used as attribute normally occurs in postposition to the noun.

> The road *back* was dense with traffic; The weather *tomorrow* will be cloudy.

In some phrases the adverb can also be used in preposition:

e.g. the *above* statement, our *upstairs* neighbour, the *then* president.

A clause

> I thought of yesterday's incident *which seemed to have happened years ago;* Do you remember the last time *we were out together.*

As is seen from the above instances the attribute may be expressed by a verbal construction (an infinitival or a gerundial one). In addition there are cases when the attribute is expressed by a predicative construction introduced by **with**. In all these cases we can speak of a complex attribute.

> He drank a special kind of coffee *with no coffee in it.*

Note:

[a] There are prepositive attributes which consist of more than one word. Though the words are generally hyphenated they make up a syntactical construction rather than a compound: e.g. an *on-the-spot* investigation; an *after-the-theatre* party; a *ready-to-wear* suit. Some of these attributes are not hyphenated: e.g. *prices and incomes* policy; *his really quite unbelievably delightful* cottage.

[b] Occasionally, extended attributes of predicative structure (the so-called quotation groups) are used in preposition to the noun: He was being the boss again, using the *it's-my-money-now-do-as-you're-told* voice; The old bold spectacled conceited *stupid-as-an-owl, intelligent-in-conversation, brave-and-as-dumb-as-a-bull, propaganda-built-up* defender of Madrid (E. Hemingway). Such extended attributive groups are widely used in formal literary style, i.e. in the language of science, newspaper and fiction.

7.21 Order of attributes

When a noun head has more than one attribute, these tend to occur in a certain order. Their order of sequence depends on their semantic and stylistic character.

The general rule is to place closest to the noun the attribute to which the greatest importance is attached in the context: e.g. a *short killing* remark. An attribute of a more general meaning comes before the one more special: e.g. a *nice good-natured* smile.

There is a tendency to follow a certain rhythmical pattern by placing a shorter adjective before a longer one: e.g. that *rude ignorant* man.

Notice the middle position of unstressed **little, old** and **young**: e.g. a *'nice little'* cottage; a *'fine old'* gentleman; a *'pretty young'* lady.

We may speak of certain rules of arranging attributes expressed by adjectives in accordance with their meanings. The following table shows the rules to keep.

Predeterminer	Determiner	Attributes denoting							Head noun
		General properties	Age	Size	Shape	Colour	Material	Nationality	

E.g. a big *round wooden* table; a *beautiful old carved Gothic* chair.

Normally, of course, noun phrases do not have all these types of premodifiers. We are likely to find a simpler structure, e.g. *printed Scandinavian* designs; *red oriental* carpets.

The item that must come next before the head may be a denominal adjective also meaning 'consisting of', 'involving', or 'relating to': e.g. the extravagant London *social* life, his heavy new *moral* responsibilities.

When two nouns are used attributively, one which corresponds to the head as object to verb will follow one relating to material or agency:

my ⎰ cigarette   ⎱   my gas cigarette lighter
      ⎱ gas   lighter ⎰   **But not *** my cigarette gas lighter

7.22 The apposition

There is a special kind of attribute called an a p p o s i t i o n . It explains or identifies the noun it modifies or gives another name to it.

> *Captain* Madison assembled his men and announced their mission; An unusual present, *a book on ethics*, awaited him; Fred – or *Ginger* as he was usually called - was charged with murder of Williamson.

Appositions may denote a title, rank, profession, kind of relationship, personal or geographical name, etc.: *Lady* Hutchenson; *Professor* Higgins; Paul *Jones*, a famous *critic*; this man *Smith*; the river *Thames.*

Appositions may modify not only nouns but their equivalents.

> We - *John* and *I* - intend to resign; Playing football on Sunday, *his favourite exercise*, kept him fit.

Appositions can be single words or extended phrases.

> *Mr*. Campbell was here last night; The house*, an imposing building,* dominated the street; Your brother, obviously *an expert on English grammar*, is highly praised in the book I am reading.

Appositions may be expressed by clauses (see 6.19). The head of an appositive clause must be an abstract noun such as **fact, idea, reply, appeal**, etc.

> We were delighted at the *news that our team had won;* Stories *that the house was haunted* had been current for centuries.

Quite often appositions appear in phrases introduced by **of**: e.g. the city *of Chicago*; the Prince *of Wales;* the art of *painting*.

An apposition is placed either before or after the head noun. If the head noun is a personal name, the apposition denoting rank, profession, relationship, etc precedes the head noun (e.g. *Major* Sarson, *Nurse* Lloyd; *Uncle* Jolyon), except in some set expressions where the apposition follows the head noun (e.g. William *the Conqueror*; Richard the *Lion Hearted*). The stress in all these cases is on the head noun.

In geographical names the apposition follows the head noun (e.g. the river *Humber*; Lake *Lomond;* Mount *Everest*).

The apposition follows the head noun also in some other cases: e.g. the novel 'The *Airport*'; the term 'gender'; the letter A; my eldest son *Roger*; the Straits *of Dover*.

The connection of the apposition with the head noun may be close or loose. We have discussed the position of the appositive noun when it is closely connected with the head noun. Such appositions can be called **close**.

A **detached** apposition is not so closely connected with the head noun. It is always separated by commas and has a stress of its own. As a rule, it stands in postposition.

> Robinson, *leader of the Democratic group on the committee*, refused to answer questions; Many soldiers, *the cream of the battalion*, died in the attack; His party controls London, *Greater London* that is to say.

The last example being a correction of what was said is an attempt at greater accuracy and precision in formulation.

Note:

[a] In phrases with an apposition when the common noun is preceded by a possessive or a demonstrative pronoun, it becomes more important and acquires a stronger stress. Consequently it functions as head while a personal or a geographical name following it is an apposition: e.g. that boy *Peter;* my good friend *Bob*; the great river *Mississippi*.

[b] Sometimes the appositional relation is made clear by an adverbial: e.g. the passenger plane of the 1980s, namely *the supersonic jet*. In such cases the connecting adverbials 'for example/instance, especially, particularly, mainly' and the like are present (e.g. The children enjoyed watching the animals, particularly *the monkeys*).

7.23 The adverbial modifier

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a predicate-verb, a verbal in any of its function or a part of the sentence expressed by an adjective or adverb.

Adverbial modifiers convey qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states and properties.

It rained *steadily all day;* Your answer is *fairly good;* Mary dresses *very prettily*.

The adverbial modifier may be expressed by a single word, mainly an adverb (1), a noun (2), a participle (3) or an infinitive (4).

1) Do you miss them *much*?; He works *hard*.
2) They live *miles* from anywhere; The meeting lasted an *hour*.
3) I lay in bed *reading*; *Cleared*, the site will be very valuable.
4) He stopped for a minute *to rest*.

But more often it is expressed by a phrase or a clause. Among the phrases functioning as adverbial modifiers prepositional noun phrases are very common.

We stayed there *for six weeks*; The red dust spread up and out *over everything;* His father looked up *without speaking*.

Noun phrases used as adverbial modifiers can comprise an adverb.

We came home *early in the evening*.

A number of phrases functioning as adverbial modifiers are introduced by subordinate conjunctions.

Tom writes faster *than I; If necessary*, she must see Mr. Bridgenorth; He opened his lips *as if to say something; While coming here,* I met Ralph.

Constructions with verbals are also used as adverbial modifiers. They are nominative absolute participial/non-participial constructions (1), gerundial constructions (2) and infinitival constructions (3).

(1) Dehn burst in, *the terror of the streets written in his face;* He rushed forward, *with fury in his looks, and fire in his eyes*.
(2) He called there two times *without her seeing him;* He shrank back *on my asking for information*.
(3) He put the picture on the table *for George to get a better view of it*.

Adverbial modifiers of different types may be expressed by clauses.

Even if you dislike music, you would enjoy the concert; They left the door open *so that I could hear the baby*.

7.24 Semantic classification of adverbial modifiers

Semantically, adverbial modifiers can be classified as follows:
adverbial modifier of time and frequency

Today I have walked far; *How often* do you go there?
adverbial modifier of place and direction

For a moment they stood side by side *in the doorway;* She followed me *upstairs*.
adverbial modifier of purpose

Now and then Gavin would stop *to point out some rarity;* I turned up the volume *for everyone to hear better*.
adverbial modifier of manner

She pronounced the word rather *harshly*, perhaps *humorously;* Lucia stopped them in their tracks *with a stern command.*

adverbial modifier of comparison

She could run *like an Amazon;* Gallio pushed back his huge chair and rose to his full height *as if preparing to deliver an address.*

adverbial modifier of attending circumstances

David appeared in the open door, *one hand clutching a sheaf of bills, under his other arm an account book*; Dusk dropped down *without his noticing.*

adverbial modifier of cause

He *therefore* gave his horsemen orders to advance; It was pitch-black outside, *with the moon not yet up.*

adverbial modifier of result

Norris was walking too quickly *for Sally to keep up with him;* The rest of the conversation is not important enough *to be here related.*

adverbial modifier of condition

In case of your absence I'll leave you a message; She never would have been able to make a success of the dining-room *but for the kindness and assistance of the men.*

adverbial modifier of concession

In spite of himself, something swelled in his breast; *Notwithstanding the cold weather,* Henry Bosman's face glowed like the heater in his chambers.

adverbial modifier of degree and measure

She is *so* gay and chattering; He was now *a hundred yards* from the water.

7.25 The complex adverbial modifier

The complex adverbial modifier is usually expressed by a verbal construction (an infinitival, participial or gerundial construction). The following complex adverbial modifiers are distinguished:

a complex adverbial modifier of purpose

So he ran in to Mrs. Inges, next door but one, *for her to talk to him.*

a complex adverbial modifier of result

The rush of conflicting feelings was too great *for Maggie to say much.*

a complex adverbial modifier of time

On my being settled at Doctor Strong's I wrote to her again.

a complex adverbial modifier of cause

The doctor said operate, it can't do any harm but I have great fear of the knife for my poor boy, *his mother having died under it due to negligence.*

a complex adverbial modifier of attending circumstances

And then she stopped in her work, and looked at me, *with her needle drawn out to its thread's length.*

7.26 Order of adverbial modifiers

When two or more adverbial modifiers occur at the same time in final position in a sentence, a problem arises as to how they should be arranged. In the majority of cases, the order is fixed according to a rule, though the rule may be complicated to state.

Adverbial modifiers of manner and place. In this combination, the order is likely to be determined by the 'heaviness' of the two elements. (The heavy element goes last.) A short adverbial modifier of manner in **-ly** ordinarily precedes a prepositional phrase expressing place.

He walked *slowly to the door*; I sat down *quietly in the back row*.

There is 'lighter' than a **-ly** adverb, and precedes it.

We walked *there slowly*.

If there are two phrases of equal weight, either order is allowed.

He walked *with some reluctance to the front of the classroom/to the front of the classroom with some reluctance*

Adverbial modifiers of place and time. English syntax prefers that adverbial modifiers of place should be put ahead of adverbial modifiers of time, and this word order is almost always correct.

He works *at home in the evening*; I went *to the dentist this morning*.

In some cases, when the two elements are of equal weight, either word order is allowed.

I'll meet you *in a little while in front of the library/in front of the library in a little while.*

An adverbial modifier of time has to be placed ahead of an adverbial modifier of place when a short time expression and a long phrase expressing place occur together. Compare:

They're living *this summer in the house that we used to live in*.

They're living *in our house this summer*.

Adverbs of manner, place and time. When all these types occur together, manner comes before place and time.

The children played *enthusiastically on the swings all morning*; The dog is sitting *unhappily outside the door right now*.

Some variation is possible, depending on complex factors of connectness between the various elements and their 'weight':

Charles goes *to school happily in the morning*.

'Go to school' is closely connected in meaning, and therefore an expression of place can precede an adverbial modifier of manner.

Word order and emphasis

7.27 Inversion

In modern English syntactical relations between parts of the sentence are very often indicated by word order.

The English language is characterized by a right word order in accordance with which the subject of a declarative sentence normally precedes the predicate. This is the so-called d i r e c t word order.

$$\text{S} \quad \text{P} \qquad\qquad\qquad \text{S} \quad \text{P}$$

He is wearing a red and yellow cap, *which is* his school *colours*.

The sequence of words in which the subject is placed after the predicate is called i n v e r s i o n . There may be either full inversion, when the whole predicate-verb is put before the subject (1), or partial inversion, with the structural part of the predicate preceding the subject (2).

Near the door *lay a* bloodstained *carpet.*

Will he be coming along later?; Never *have I seen* him so angry.

The latter type of inversion is prevailing in present-day English.

There are two main cases of the use of inversion in English:

(a) to construct certain types of sentences (grammatical inversion);

(b) to make a certain word prominent (stylistic inversion).

G r a m m a t i c a l inversion is used to construct:

interrogative sentences

Are you *going* to the concert tomorrow?; Why did *the car swerve* violently to the right?

existential sentences opening with an introductory subject **there**

There was *no one* there; Let me know if there's *anyone* waiting.

exclamatory sentences expressing wish

So be it; Long *live* our *country*!

imperative sentences of negative meaning, with the subject expressed by a pronoun

Don't you listen to him!

clauses of unreal condition, where inversion is used instead of **if** (in formal style)

Should you see Harry, give my regards (= If you should see); *Had I known* what was going to happen, I would have never left her alone. (= If I had known)

sentences opening with **so, neither, nor** when a statement is offered as an addition to something that has just been said (in all styles of English)

I am wrong, and *so are you;* If you don't go, neither *will I*; There was no food in the camp. Nor *was* there any *water*.

Inversion sometimes happens after **as** in literary style.

She travelled a great deal, as did *most of her friends*.

In narrative writing, after direct speech full inversion is often used with reporting verbs, especially if the subject is a long one.

'Let's go,' *suggested Henry*   (Or: ... *Henry suggested*)

S t y l i s t i c inversion is used to emphasise a certain part of the sentence. This part of the sentence becomes the centre of communication. It may be a predicative (1), an adverbial modifier (2) or an object (3).

1) *Such is life; So absurd did he look* that everyone stared at him.

2) In *went the sun* and down *came the rain*; Rarely had his father been more helpful.

3) Not a word *did she say*; Now he began praying ... To his black god *could he bring* all his sorrows.

But there are cases of inversion brought about by fronting of an adverbial which does not make the fronted adverbial prominent and gives end-weight to the subject. In informal speech they are observed in **there/here** structures with an intransitive verb of position (**be, stand, lie**, etc) or a verb of motion (**come, go, fall**, etc).

There *are* your *friends*; There *goes the vicar*!; Here is *the cause* of all the trouble; Here *comes the bus*.

In literary style, inversion caused by a fronted adverbial is more useful in giving end-weight to a long subject.

Slowly out of its hangar *rolled the gigantic aircraft*; There *may come a time when we are less fortunate*.

Stylistic inversion can be full or partial.

For a long time, he refused to talk to his wife and kept her in ignorance of his trouble. *Equally strange was* his behaviour to his son; Little *does he know* how much suffering he has caused.

Stylistic inversion is mainly found in literary style. It is obligatory after fronting of words of negative meaning such as **never, hardly, scarcely, few, seldom, (not) only**.

Seldom *had I seen* such a remarkable creature; Never *have I felt better*; Hardly/Scarcely *had I arrived* when I had a new problem to cope with; Only after a year *did I begin to see* the results of my work.

Expressions containing the word **no** often occur at the beginning of sentences and bring about inversion.

In no time *was the President aware* of what was happening; On no account *are the visitors allowed* to feed the animals.

In narrative and descriptive writing, it is common to begin sentences with adverbial expressions of place. When these are followed by intransitive verbs like **come, lie, stand, walk**, full inversion is common.

> There, at the summit, *stood the castle* in its medieval splendour;
> Under a tree *was sitting one of the biggest men* I have ever seen.

Note:

[a] The adverbial 'there' is stressed, and so is distinguished from the unstressed introductory subject 'there' in an existential sentence. Cf.: *'There* are your friends (adverbial); *There* are 'too many people here (introductory).

[b] Subject-predicate inversion does not take place with a fronted adverbial when the subject is a personal pronoun, e.g.: Here it is (Not: *Here is it); Away they go! (Not: *Away go they).

7.28 Postponement

There is another device that has the effect of removing an element from its normal position, and placing it towards or at the end of the sentence. It is called postponement. The device of postponement serves the principle of end-weight.

The introductory - **it** construction is a means of postponing a subject to a later position in the sentence.

> It's a pity *to make a fool of yourself;* It doesn't matter *what you do*;
> It is likely *they will hold an election*.

Occasionally an introductory **it** displaces a phrase or a clause in object position.

> You must find it enjoyable *working here;* I owe it to you *that the jury acquitted me.*

This displacement must occur when the object is expressed by a **that**-clause or an infinitive.

> Somebody put it into his head *that she was a spy;* I'll leave it to you *to lock the door.*

In many cases the postponed elements undergo postponement because their length and complexity would otherwise lead to an awkwardly unbalanced sentence.

> *The time* had come *to decorate the house for Christmas*; *What business* is it *of yours*?; We heard *the story* from his own lips *of how he was stranded for days without food.*

With another type of noun phrase, however, it is clearly to give prominence that the postponement takes place. This is the noun phrase with an emphatic reflexive pronoun in apposition.

> John himself told me ➞ John told me himself.
> Did you yourself paint the portrait? ➞ Did you paint the portrait yourself?

The postponement is possible, however, only if the noun phrase in apposition with the pronoun is the subject:

I showed Ian the letter <u>myself</u>.

*I showed *Ian* the letter <u>himself</u>. (But cf.: I showed *Ian himself* the letter.)

A comparative clause or phrase is often separated by postponement, from the word it postmodifies. In some cases, the same sentence without postponement would be extremely awkward:

More people own houses these days *than used to years ago*.

(Not: *More people than used to years ago own houses these days.)

Another example of a grammatical process which changes the positions of elements in the sentence is the rule for forming passive constructions.

The President was mistrusted <u>by most of the radical politicians in the country</u>.

The passive gives the postponed element end-weight.

In normal order, a direct object of the active construction precedes an objective predicative or a final-position adverbial. But if the object is long, it can be postponed to the end for end-weight:

He has proved *them* <u>wrong</u>.

He has proved <u>wrong</u> *the forecasts made by the country's leading economic experts*.

He condemned *them* <u>to death</u>.

He condemned <u>to death</u> *most of the peasants who had taken part in the rebellion*.

The same choice made for emphasis is possible when a noun phrase object comes before a postpositive element (i.e. the second part of a phrasal verb such as **make up, give away, let down**).

He *gave* all his books <u>away</u>.

He *gave* <u>away</u> all his books.

In a similar way, an indirect object can in effect be postponed, by converting it into a prepositional phrase.

The twins told <u>their mother</u> all their secrets.

The twins told all their secrets <u>to their mother</u>.

Note:

Personal pronoun objects cannot be moved to the end, e.g. He gave them away (Not: *He gave away them).

7.29 Structural compensation

As part of the principle of end-weight in English, there is a feeling that the predicate of a sentence should where possible be longer than the subject. Thus the principle of structural compensation comes into force. This helps to explain why English speakers tend to avoid predicates consisting of just a single

intransitive verb instead of saying 'Mary sang', they would probably prefer to say 'Mary sang a song', filling the object position with a noun phrase which adds little information but helps to give more weight to the predicate.

For such a purpose English often uses a general verb (such as **have, take, give** and **do**) followed by an abstract noun phrase:

He'*s having a swim.*	(Cf.: He's swimming)
She *took a rest.*	(Cf.: She rested)
The man *gave a shout.*	(Cf.: The man shouted)
He *does little work.*	(Cf.: He works little)

The sentences on the left are more idiomatic than those on the right.

In a similar way a transitive verb can be replaced by an indirect object construction with the verb **give** and the like:

I *gave* the door *a kick.*	(= 'I kicked the door')
I *paid* her *a visit.*	(= 'I visited her')

7.30 Subject-predicate concomitance

There are commonly variant forms of noun and verb to indicate number - singular and plural. Normally nouns used as subjects and predicate verbs are in the same number - both singular or both plural. By way of tradition, it is considered as agreement of number between subject and predicate. Thus (3) and (4) are ungrammatical:

(1) The window is open	(3) *The window are open
(sing + sing)	(sing + plur)
(2) The windows are open	(4) *The windows is open
(plur + plur)	(plur + sing)

Along with agreement of number, there is agreement of person. **Be** has three forms of person in the present **(I am, he is, they are)** and two forms in the past **(I/he was, we/you/they were)**; future auxiliaries normally have distinct forms **(I shall, you/he/they will)**; the other verbs except modals have two forms of person **(I/you/they complain, he complains)**.

It is possible to generalize a rule according to which 'A subject in the singular requires a singular predicate verb'. However, a number of apparent exceptions to the agreement rule arise if we take into consideration the following cases.

7.31 Notional agreement

The first factor which interferes with the number agreement rule is notional agreement.

There are nouns which are singular in form but more or less plural in sense. They are known as collective (or group) nouns: **public, audience, committee**, etc. Their singular form can be treated as plural:

The government $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{have} \\ \text{has} \end{array} \right\}$ broken all $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{their} \\ \text{its} \end{array} \right\}$ promises.

This is called **notional** agreement, since the verb 'agrees' with the idea of plural in the collective noun rather than the **actual singular** form **of the noun.**

Collective nouns occur with either grammatical or notional agreement in examples such as:

> Our Planning *Committee has/have* considered your request; The vast *majority* of the students *gets/get* increased financial support.

When the group is being considered as a single undivided body, the singular is used:

> *The audience was* enormous; *A team* which is full of enthusiasm is more likely to win.

The plural verb after a collective noun is more characteristic of British than of American English.

7.32 Proximity

Another factor which sometimes upsets the agreement rule in informal English is the principle of **proximity**. This means that the verb tends to agree with whatever noun or pronoun closely precedes it, instead of the headword of the phrase acting as subject.

> *No one* except his own supporters *agree* with him; *One* in ten *take* lessons.

This can also be considered a case of notional agreement.

Note:

[a] The expressions 'a number of' and 'a group of' are used with plural nouns and pronouns, and the verb that follows is also plural: e.g. *A large number of people have applied* for the job; *A group of us have decided* to hire a boat and travel through Holland by canal.

[b] 'A lot of' and 'the majority' can be used with either singular or plural nouns and verbs, Cf.:
> *A lot of trouble is* caused by racism.
> *A lot of problems are* caused by unemployment.
> *The majority of the damage* is easy to repair.
> *The majority of speakers were* men.

[c] 'None, neither, either' can be followed by 'of + plural noun/pronoun. In a formal style, a singular verb is used, but in an informal style a plural verb is also possible: e.g. *Has/Have either of them* been seen recently?; *Neither of my brothers has/have* been outside England.

7.33 Agreement with coordinated subjects

When a subject consists of two or more noun phrases coordinated by **and**, the verb is usually in the plural if the coordination is taken to be a reduction of two clauses.

> *Tom and Mary are* ready. (= Tom is ready and Mary is ready.)

But a singular verb is used

(a) with coordinated elements which represent a single entity:

> *The hammer and sickle was* flying from a tall flagpole;

(b) when the noun phrases refer to the same thing:

> *His lawyer and former college friend*, Max Fairford, *was* with him at death.

When two noun phrases are joined by **or** or **either** ... **or**, the general rule is that the number of the verb is determined by the number of the last noun phrase.

> (1) E̲i̲t̲h̲e̲r̲ *your brakes* or *your eyesight* is at fault**.**
>
> (2) E̲i̲t̲h̲e̲r̲ *your eyesight* or *your brakes are* at fault.

In (1) the proximity rule applies, but is felt to be awkward by some people. To avoid the awkwardness, it is usually possible to use a modal verb which has the same form in the singular and the plural, for example:

> (3) E̲i̲t̲h̲e̲r̲ *your brakes* or *your eyesight must be* at fault.

Note:

[a] The negative correlatives 'neither ... nor', although disjunctive in meaning, behave in colloquial speech more like 'and' than like 'or' as regards agreement: e.g. N̲e̲i̲t̲h̲e̲r̲ *he nor his wife have arrived.*

[b] Grammatical agreement is usually obeyed for 'more than': e.g. M̲o̲r̲e̲ t̲h̲a̲n̲ a̲ t̲h̲o̲u̲s̲a̲n̲d̲ *inhabitants have signed* the petition; M̲o̲r̲e̲ t̲h̲a̲n̲ o̲n̲e̲ p̲e̲r̲s̲o̲n̲ *has protested* against the proposal. Thus although 'more than one person' is notionally plural, a singular verb is preferred because '(one) person' operates as head of a singular noun phrase.

7.34 Agreement with indefinite expressions of amount

Indefinite expressions of amount, especially **no, none, any**, often cause agreement problems:

> { *No person* of that name *lives* here.
> { *No people* of that name *live* here.

> { I've ordered t̲h̲e̲ c̲e̲m̲e̲n̲t̲, but *none* (of it) *has* yet *arrived*.
> { I've ordered *the shrubs*, but *none* (of them) *have/has* yet *arrived.*

In the last example, grammatical agreement insists that **none** is singular, but notional agreement invites a plural verb. **Has** is typical of written, formal style, whereas **have** is more idiomatic in informal English.

The same rule also applies to **neither** and **either**:
> I sent cards to Mavis and Margery but *neither* (of them) <u>*has/have*</u>
> <u>*replied.*</u> In fact, I doubt if *either* (of them) <u>*is/are*</u> coming.

7.35 Agreement violation

There are cases that flatly contradict grammatical agreement of number and person.

In informal speech, it is possible to use **here's, there's, where's** before plural nouns.
> *Here'<u>s</u>* your *keys; There'<u>s</u>* some *children* at the door;
> *Where'<u>s</u>* those *records* I lent you?

The rule of person agreement is frequently violated in present-day English in case of future auxiliaries. There is a tendency to replace **shall** used with the 1st person subjects by **will**.
> *I <u>will</u>* be staying with them; *We <u>will</u>* be in time, if we hurry.

In addition to the above instances of no number agreement between subject and predicate the latter illustrates lack of agreement of person which makes the notion of agreement doubtful when it is applied to subject-predicate relations.
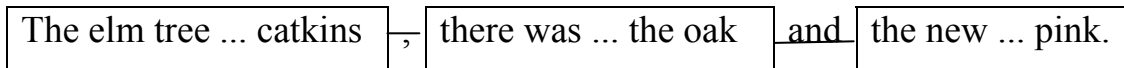
SENTENCE ANALYSIS

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

He had been obliged to think of others, and his time was occupied.

| He ... others | and | his time ... occupied. |
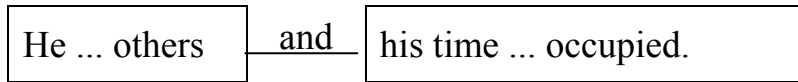
The elm tree threw out catkins, there was a veil of translucent green on the oak, and the new leaves of the Japanese maples showed tender pink.
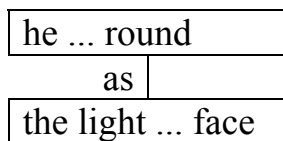
| The elm tree ... catkins | , | there was ... the oak | and | the new ... pink. |

He was very tired; but it was too wet to sit down, so he walked on.

| He ... tired | ; but | it ... down | , so | he ... walked on. |
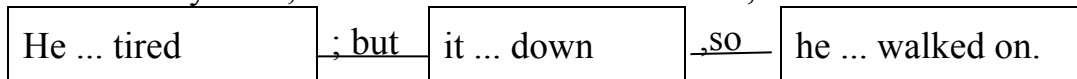
THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

As the light fell on his face he turned round.

| he ... round |
| as |
| the light ... face |

I don't know what'll become of him if he goes on like this.

| I ... know |
| what'll … of him |
| if |
| he … like this |
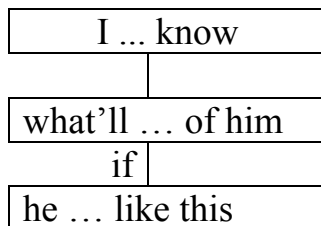
One day, after her first week's rehearsal, what she expected came openly to the surface.
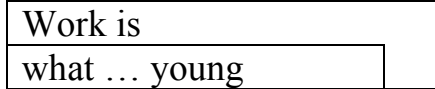
| One day, after her first week's rehearsal came |
| what she expected | openly to the surface |

It is very probable that you will very shortly hear from us again.
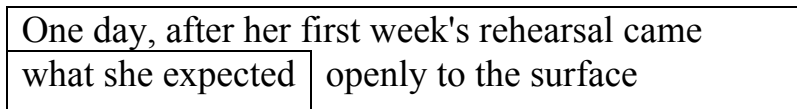
| It | | is very probable |
| that | you will very shortly hear from us again | |
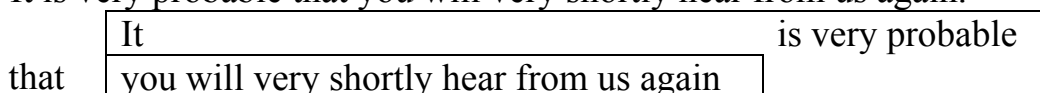
Work is what keeps life young.

Work is
what … young

Well, what I was trying to get at was what had become of them.

was	
what I was trying to get at	what had become of them
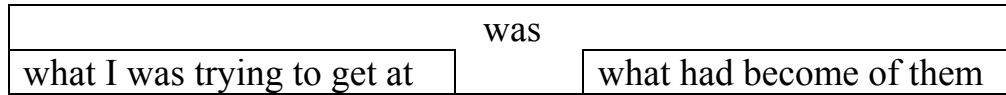
All I know is what I have read in the papers.

| All	is
	what I have read in the papers

I know
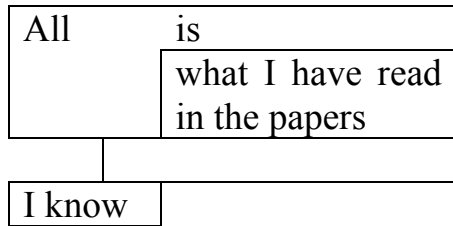
THE COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

When we reached the landing all the old women turned their heads, and as soon as we had passed, their voices rose and fell as though they were singing together.

all the old women turned their heads	and ,	their voices rose and fell

when → we reached the landing

as soon as → we had passed

as though → they were singing together
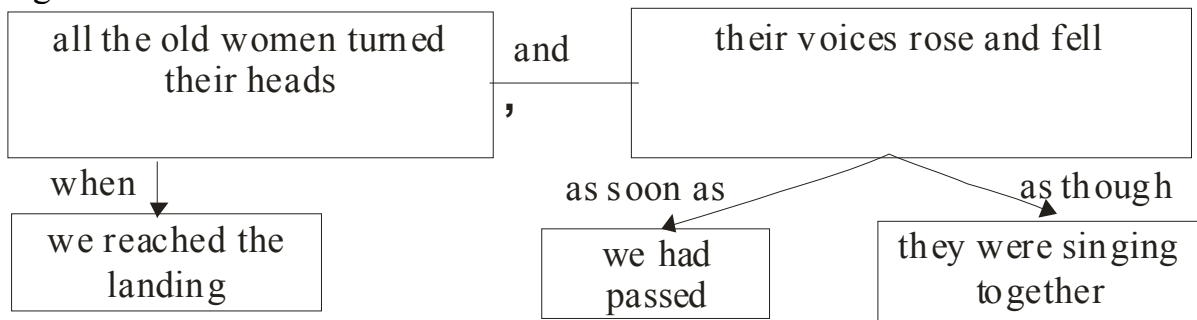
THE COMPLEX-COMPOUND SENTENCE

I was to see many times that look of pain and disappointment touch his eyes and mouth, when reality didn't match the romantic ideas he cherished, or when someone he loved or admired dropped below the impossible standard he had set.

I … his eyes and mouth

when

reality … ideas   or   someone dropped below the impossible standard

when

he cherished

he loved or admired   he had set
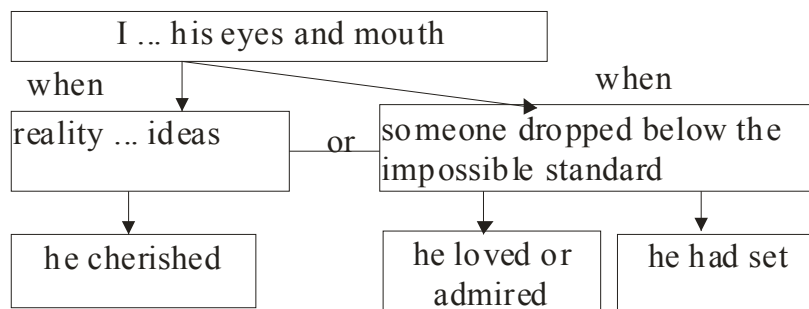
WORDS AND PHRASES LIABLE TO CAUSE DIFFICULTIES

A

adjust /[q'GAst] (v) (of tenses) choose suitable tense forms in accordance with sequence of tenses

adjustment /[q'GAstmqnt] (n) act or means of making suitable

ambiguity ["xmbi'gjHti] (n) structural homonymy of syntactical units;   a double meaning in a sentence

ambiguous [xm'bigjHqs] (adj) that can mean two or more different things; vaguely expressed

approximate [q'prOkslmIt] (adj) very near to; about right

approximate [q'prOkslmeIt] (v) make or come very near (especially in quality or number)

assume [q'sju:m] (v) accept as true without proof

available [q'veilqbl] (adj) easy to get, within reach; obtainable

B

basic ['beisik] (adj) fundamental; of or at the base or start,

bracketed /['brakitid] (adj) enclosed in brackets

C

coined [kOInd]/(part) (of a word) deliberately created for a specific purpose

colloquial /[kq'loukwlql]/(adj) used in informal speech, characteristic of everyday conversation

complexity [kqm'pleksItl]/(n) state of being complex

concession /[kqn'seSqn] (n) act of admitting to be true or valid; that which is admitted to be true or valid

concomitance [kqn'kOmltqns] (n) coexistence; co-occurrence

condensed [kqn'denst]/(part) compressed into few words

confine [kqn'fain]/(v) keep within limits; restrict

conform /[kqn'fLm]к(v) act in accordance with (rules, standards, etc.)

contents [kOntents]/(n) that which is contained; list of the matter in a book, periodical, etc.

contracted [kqn'trxktId] (part) (of an abbreviated form) that merged with the preceding word

contrast [kqn'trxst]/(v) point out differences between; appear strongly dissimilar

contrast ['kOntrxst] (n) the act of contrasting; difference which is clearly seen when unlike things are put together; something showing such a difference

conversational filler word or phrase used to fill a gap in conversation

conversational formula stereotyped word or phrase which serves to establish social contact between speakers

convert [kqn'vE:rt] (v) transform, change; adapt to new use

co-referential [kou,refq'renSql] (adj) having reference to the same entity

correspond [,kOrIs'pond] (v) be in accordance with; be similar or equivalent to

D

deduction [dI'dAkSqn] (n) supposition implying a very high degree of probability, almost conviction

definiteness ['defInItnIs] (n) the state of being definite

derive [dI'raIv]/(v) form a unit from another unit with the help of affixes

distinct [dIs'tINkt] (adj) plain, clearly marked

E

elevated ['elIveItId]/(adj) of the level higher than neutral on the stylistic scale

equivalent [I'kwIvqlqnt]/(adj) equal in meaning or function

equivalent [I'kwIvalqnt]/(n) that which is equivalent

exception [Ik'sepSqn]/(n) that which is different; that which does not conform to a rule

exclusion /[Iks'klIHZqn]/ (n) the state of being not included

exclusive [Iks'klu:siv] (adj) excluding others; not including

expand /[Iks'pxnd] (v) make larger; add further elements in a sentence without changing its basic structure

expansion [Iks'pxnSqn] (n) act of expanding

extend [Iks'tend]/(v) prolong; expand

extension [Iks'tenSqn]/(n) act of extending

F

familiar [fq'mIljq] (adj) impudent, casual

female ['fi:meIl]/(adj) of the sex that bears offspring

figurative ['figjurqtIv] (adj) used not in the literal sense but in an imaginative way

formal speech the type of speech used publicly, e.g. in official reports, business letters and regulations

fundamentals [, fAndq'mentlz]/(n) basic essential parts

G

generalizing ['GenqrqlaIzIN]/(adj) that making a statement more general

gradual ['grxdjuql] (adj) taking place by degrees

H

hierarchy ['haIqrRkI] (n) the ordered arrangement which may be established between elements of language on several interrelated levels

hyphen ['halfqn]/(n) the mark used to join two components together in   a compound word

hyphenate ['halfqneIt]/(v) join with a hyphen

I

identical /[aI'dentIkql]/(adj) the same

identify [aI'dentIfaI]/(v) show who or what (someone or something) is

idiom ['idlqm]/(n) group of words whose meaning is not equal to the sum of the meanings of the individual words

idiomatic [,idlq'mxtlk] (adj) of or containing idioms

impart [Im'pRt]/ (v) give; pass on

impose [Im'pouz] (v) force to do or accept

imprecation [,Imprl'kelSqn] (n) curse

inconsistent [,Inkqn'sistqnt]/(adj) self-contradictory; not agreeing, incompatible

indispensible [,Indls'pensqbl] (adj) absolutely essential

inevitability [In,evltq'biliti] (n) quality of being inevitable i.e. certain to happen

informal language the language of private conversation, of personal letters, etc.

initial [I'nlSql] (adj) at the beginning, first

integration [,Intl'grelSqn] (n) the process or result of combining parts into a whole

intensify [In'tenslfal] (v) make or become more intense, i.e. higher in degree

interchangeable [,Intq'CelnGqbl] (adj) of two things each of which can be put in the other's place

interpret [In'tWprlt]/(v) explain the meaning

interpretation [In,tWprl'telSqn] (n) explanation of meaning

involve [In'volv] (v) cause to become associated with; imply

L

lack [lxk] (n) absence

likelihood ['lalkllhud] (n) probability

literal ['lltqrql] (adj) taking words in their usual and obvious sense;   (of translation) word for word

loose [lu:s] (adj) not firmly fixed

M

major ['melGq] (adj) more important

majority [mq'GOltl] (n) the greater number

male [mell] (adj) of the sex that does not bear offspring

manifest ['mxnlfest] (v) show clearly, give signs of

medium ['mi:djqm]/(n) that which is of intermediate size, degree, etc

minority [mal'nLrqtl] (n) the smaller number

miscellaneous [,mlsl'lelnjqs] (adj) consisting of several kinds

N

narrative ['nxrqtlv] (adj) in the form of story-telling

notion ['nouSqn] (n) idea, conception; general class to which an object belongs

O

obligation [,obll'gelSqn] (n) binding condition; condition that indicates what action ought to be taken

obvious ['Obvlqs] (adj) easily seen or understood; clear, plain

occasionally [q'keZqnqll] (adv) not constantly; happening from time to time,' but not regularly

occur [q'kW] (v) take place, happen; be used

oppose [q'pouz] (v) put forward as a contrast or opposite; set up against

optional ['opSqnql] (adj) not compulsory; that can be accepted or refused

origin ['orlGln] (n) starting point

overlap [,ouvq'lxp] (v) partly coincide; partly cover

P

parallel ['pxrqlql] (adj) structurally similar

peculiarity [pl,kjull'xrltl] (n) something distinctive or characteristic

perception [pq'sepSqn] (n) process of becoming immediately aware of something

peremptory [pq'rqmtqrl] (adj) admitting no refusal; dictatorial

permanent ['pWmqnqnt] (adj) long-lasting

persistence [pq'sistqns] (n) the state of refusing to make any change in what one is doing or in one's beliefs

personification [pW,sonlfl'kelSqn] (n) the result or process of representing something as a person

persuasive [pq'swelslv] (adj) that persuades; convincing, effective

postpone [poust'poun] (v) move a unit farther to the end

precede [prl'si:d] (v) come or go before in order

precedence [prl'si:dqns] (n) act of preceding

precise [prl'sals] (adj) clearly stated, definite; exact

predominant [prl'dOmlnqnt] (adj) most numerous or influential; dominating

preferable ['prefqrqbl] (adj) fit to be preferred

prevail [prl'vell] (v) predominate; be in general use

previous ['pri:vjqs] (adj) preceding; earlier

prior ['pralq] (adj) earlier in order

prohibition [,proul'blSqn] (n) act of forbidding

prominence ['promlnqns] (n) condition of being prominent; relative importance

prominent ['promlnent] (adj) important, easy to see

R

recipient [rl'slplqnt]/(n) person (or thing) that receives

reduce [rl'dju:s]/(v) make less

relevance ['rellvqns] (n) state of being connected with the topic, problem, etc.

render ['rendq] (v) represent; translate

respectively [ris'pektlvll] (adv) in the order mentioned

rhythm [rlDm] (n) regular recurrence; pattern formed by alterations of long and short units

S

save [sel] (prep) except

schedule ['Sedju:l] (v) plan in detail to a time-table
senior ['si:njq] (adj) of high rank or status
seniority [,slnl'orltl] (n) condition of being; higher in rank or status
sensory ['sensqrl] (adj) of or by the senses or sensation
signify ['signifal] (v) be a sign of; mean
specify ['spesifal] (v) state definitely
speculation [,spekju'leiSqn] (n) meditation; opinion reached by this means; guess
status ['steltqs] (n) rank
submit [sqb'mlt] (v) put oneself under the control of another
substance ['sAbstqns] (n) matter, material
substitute ['sAbstltju:t] (v) put an element in the place of another
succession [sek'seSqn] (n) the coming of one thing after another in time or order
survival [sq'valvql] (n) linguistic form of the past time remaining in existence at present
survive [sq'valv] (v) continue to exist; remain alive after

T

temporariness ['tempqrqrlnls] (n) the state of being temporary
temporary ['tempqrqrl] (adj) lasting only for a limited time
tend [tend]/(v) be liable or inclined to
tentative ['tentqtlv] (adj) proposed or done merely as suggestion or experiment
treat [tri:t] (v) consider, regard

U

unique [ju:'ni:k] (adj) having no like or equal; being the only one of its sort
usage ['jHzlG] (n) manner of use

V

various ['vFqrlqs] (adj) of different kinds
verbatim [vW'beltlm] (adj, adv) word for word; exactly as spoken or written
vivid ['vlvld] (adj) clear and distinct
volition [vou'llSqn] (n) act, power, of using one's own will, of choosing, making a decision

W

whereas [wFqr'xz] (conj) but in contrast, while on the other hand

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