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ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ

ФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНАЯ ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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Специальность «Современные иностранные языки»

Третий год обучения

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The questions for exams

The list of questions for exam in practical grammar

1. The use of the modal verb “can” and its equivalents (examples).
2. Sentences of the type “I wish ...” (examples).
3. The modal verb in the meaning of supposition, implying strong doubt (examples).
4. The suppositional mood in the object clauses (examples).
5. The modal verb in the meaning of supposition, implying strong probability (examples).
6. Adverbial clauses after the conjunctions “as if”, “as though” (examples).
7. The ways of expressing the negative meaning of supposition, implying strong probability (examples).
8. Subjunctive II in predicative and attributive clauses (examples).
9. The emotional “should” (examples).
10. Mixed types of conditional sentences (examples).
11. Russian sentences of the type “неужели он (а) не”. The ways of translating them into English (examples).
12. Subordinate subject clauses (examples).
13. The modal expression “to be to” (examples).
14. Subordinate adverbial clauses of unreal condition (examples).
15. The modal verb “will (would), shall” (examples).
16. Adverbial clauses of purpose and concession (examples).
17. The modal verb “should + the perfect infinitive” (examples).
18. The use of the suppositional mood and Subjunctive I in the sentences of the type “It’s important ...” (examples).
19. The modal verb “need, to have to” (examples).
20. The suppositional mood I predicative clauses after abstract nouns in the main clause (examples).

The list of questions for exam in functional grammar

1. The object. Kinds of object (with examples of your own).
2. Complex object (with examples of your own).
3. The attribute and the ways of expressing it (with examples of your own).
4. The apposition (with examples of your own).
5. The adverbial modifier and its types (with examples of your own).
6. Conjuncts and disjuncts (with examples of your own).
7. Independent elements of the sentence (with examples of your own).
8. The grammatical functions of inversion (with examples of your own).
9. The emphatic and communicative functions of inversion (with examples of your own).
10. The structure of the complex sentence (with examples of your own).
11. The structure of the complex sentence (with examples of your own).
12. The complex sentence with a subject clause.
13. The complex sentence with an object clause.
14. The complex sentence with a predicative clause.
15. The complex sentence with an appositive clause.
16. The complex sentence with a relative clause.
17. The complex sentence with adverbial clauses of place, time and manner.
18. The complex sentence with adverbial clauses of comparison, concession and purpose.
19. Oblique moods in complex sentences.
20. Compound-complex sentences.

The list of questions for exam in theoretical grammar

1. Morphology and syntax as parts of grammar.
2. Main units of grammar and types of relations between grammatical units in language and speech.
3. Main grammatical notions. Grammatical meaning and grammatical form. Grammatical categories.
4. Structure of words. Types of morphemes.
5. Means of form-building. Synthetic and analytical forms.
6. Noun. General characteristics. Classification.
7. The category of number.
8. The category of case.
9. The category of article determination.
10. Verb. The category of tense.
11. Verb. The category of aspect.
12. Pragmatic aspect of the sentence.
13. The category of posteriority.
14. The category of voice.
15. The category of mood.
16. The problem of the imperative mood.
17. The problem of Subjunctive I, II, conditional mood, suppositional mood.
18. The category of degrees of comparison.
19. Classification of adjectives, their functions in the sentence.
20. The definition of the adverb. Classification of adverbs. Means of adverb formation.
21. Phrase. Principles of classification of phrases and types of relations between its constituents.
22. Sentences as the main unit of syntax. Its functions. Three aspects of the sentence.
23. Predication. Secondary predication. Predicativity.
24. Principles of classification of sentences. Types of coordination.
25. Compound sentence.
26. Complex sentence.
27. Syntactic structure of the clause.
28. Model of sentence analysis. IC-model. Distributional model. Transformational model.
29. Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP).
30. Units larger than a sentence.

The names of the courses:

1. Practical grammar
2. Theoretical grammar
3. Functional grammar

Тема: «The subject. Ways of expressing»

The Subject

Every English sentence but the one-member and the imperative one must have a subject. The subject is one of the two main parts of the sentence. The most important feature of the subject in English is that in declarative sentences it normally comes *immediately before the predicate*, whereas in questions its position is *immediately before the operator*. It means that in English sentences any word or words which occur in these positions are to be treated as **the subject** of the sentence.

The subject determines the form of the verbal part of the predicate as regards its number and person.

Ways of expressing

The subject is expressed by:

1. A noun in the common case (including substantivized adjectives and particles) or a nominal phrase with a noun.

The fog is thinning.

Science is not omnipotent.

The blue of the sky deepened visibly.

The dying must be left in peace.

From Marlow up to Sonning is even fair yet.

Four and three is seven.

A great number of trees were felled.

Occasionally a noun in the genitive case is the subject. This may be if a noun denotes someone's place of business or residence, as in:

The grocer's was full.

It may be the result of ellipsis as in:

Jim's was a narrow escape. (=Jim's escape was a narrow one).

The latter types of the subject is rather emphatic.

2. A personal pronoun in the nominative case.

I shall do the best I can.

She is very beautiful.

3. Any other noun-pronoun.

Nothing can be done about it.

This is the last straw.

Hers was the final judgement.

One learns by experience.

Who told you this?

4. A numeral (either cardinal or ordinal) or a nominal phrase with a numeral.

Seven cannot be divided by two.

Two of them were left in the camp.

The third was a young man with a dog.

5. An infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

To understand is to forgive.

To deny the past is to deny the future.

6. A gerund or gerundial phrase.

Talking mends no holes.

Working for someone keeps a woman calm and contented.

7. An infinitive or a gerundial predicative complex.

For her to fall asleep in broad day light was not at all usual.

His walking out of the room in the very middle of the argument was quite unexpected.

8. Any word or words used as quotations.

“And” is a conjunction.

The “how” and the “why” of things never seems to occur to children.

His “How do you do?” never sounds cordial enough.

“The war of the worlds” was first published in 1898.

9. A clause (then called a subject clause), which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

What girls of her sort want is just a wedding ring.

Grammatical classification of the subject

From the point of view of its grammatical value the subject may be either *notional* or *formal*.

The *notional subject* denotes or (if expressed by a pronoun) points out a person or a non-person.

The *formal subject* neither denotes nor points out any person or non-person and is only a structural element of the sentence filling the position of the subject. Thus a formal subject functions only as a position filler. In English there are two such position-fillers: *it* and *there*.

The notional subject

The notional subject denotes or points out a person or non-person, what is, various kinds of concrete things, substances, abstract notions or happening.

Persons:

The policeman stepped back.

The audience cheered wildly.

I know all about it.

Whoever said that was wrong.

Non-persons, including animals, who's name may be substituted by *it* or *they*.

A house was ready there for the new doctor. It stood on a hill.

These beasts are found only on four southern islets.

Building houses becomes more difficult.

To be a friend takes time.

Whatever he said is of no importance.

Look at the car. It is very small.

The formal subject

The formal subject **it**

The formal subject expressed by *it* is found in two patterns of sentences: those with *impersonal it* and those with *introductory it*.

1. *The formal subject it is impersonal* when it is used in sentences describing various states of nature, things in general characteristics of the environment, or denoting time, distance, other measurements.

It's spring. – Весна.

It's cold today. – Сегодня холодно.

It's freezing. – Морозит.

It's still too hot to start. – Еще слишком жарко, чтобы отправляться в путь.

It seems that he was frank. – Кажется, он был откровенен.

It turned out that she was deaf. – Оказалось, что она глухая.

Sentences with impersonal *it* are usually rendered in Russian by means of impersonal (subjectless) sentences.

2. *The formal subject it is introductory* (anticipatory) if it introduces the **notional subject** expressed by an infinitive, a gerund, an infinitive/gerundial phrase, a predicative complex, or a clause. The sentence thus contains two subjects: the formal (introductory) subject *it* and the notional subject, which follows the predicate.

It's impossible to deny this.

It thrilled her to be invited there.

It gave him a pain in the head to walk.

It was no good coming there again.

It would be wonderful for you to stay with us.

It was lucky that she agreed to undertake the job.

It did not occur to her that the idea was his.

Sentences with introductory *it* can be transformed into sentences with the notional subject in its usual position before the predicate.

It was impossible to deny this. ~~To deny this~~ was impossible.

The difference between the two structural types lies in that the pattern with the introductory subject accentuates the idea expressed in the predicate.

Sentences with introductory *it* must be distinguished from certain patterns of sentences with impersonal *it*:

- a) sentences with the predicate expressed by the verbs *to seem, to appear, to happen, to turn out* followed by a clause, as in *It seemed that he didn't know the place.*

In these sentences describing a certain state of affairs *it* is impersonal, not introductory and the clause is a predicative one. So it cannot fill the position of the subject:

It seemed that he did not know the place $\not\rightarrow$ ~~**That he did not know the place seemed.*~~ (Transformation is impossible)

- b) sentences with predicative adjectives preceded by *too* and followed by an infinitive as in *It was too late to start.*

Here *it* is used in sentences describing time, etc. and is therefore impersonal. The infinitive is an adverbial of consequences, not the subject, and so cannot be placed before the predicate:

It was too late to start $\not\rightarrow$ ~~**To start was too late.*~~

- c) sentences with the predicative expressed by the noun *time* followed by an infinitive, as in *It was high time to take their departure.*

In such sentences *it* is also impersonal, the infinitives being attributes to the noun *time*. These sentences cannot therefore undergo the transformation which is possible in the case of sentences with introductory *it*:

It was time to take their departure $\not\rightarrow$ ~~**To take their departure was time.*~~

Thus, the subject *it* may be personal, impersonal, and introductory. In the latter two cases it is formal.

The formal subject **there**

Sentences with a notional subject introduced by *there* express the existence or coming into existence of a person or non-person denoted by the subject. Such sentences may be called *existential* sentences or sentences of *presentation*. They are employed where the subject presents some new idea or the most important piece of information.

The notional subject introduced by *there* is expressed:

1. By any noun or by a noun phrase denoting an inseparable unit or an indefinite amount of something.

There was silence for a moment.

There was a needle and thread in her fingers.

There were a lot of people in the street.

As the notional subject usually introduces a new idea, the noun expressing it is generally used with the indefinite article.

2. By some noun – pronouns:

- a) indefinite

Is there anybody there?

There was something wrong about the whole situation.

- b) negative

There was nobody in.

There was nothing to do.

- c) universal (only some of them)

There were all of them on the bank.

There were both of them present.

The pronouns of these three classes are the most frequent in existential sentences. The ones that follow are very seldom used:

- d) detaching

There was the other to be asked.

- e) demonstrative

There is this which is to be settled.

3. By a gerund or a gerundial phrase.

There was no talking that evening.

There's no going against bad blood.

4. By a clause.

First, there is what we might call a pattern.

The predicate in such sentences is generally a simple verbal predicate expressed by the verbs *to be*, *to appear*, *to live*, *to come*, *to go*, or some other similar verbs.

At last far off there appeared a tiny spot.

Once upon a time there lived a king.

Then there came a lightning.

Occasionally the predicate may be a compound verbal modal predicate or a predicate of double orientation. In both cases their second parts are expressed by the verb *to be*, or one of the others mentioned above.

a) There must be something wrong with him.

There may come a time when you'll regret this.

b) There seemed to be only two people in the room.

There did not appear to be anything of importance in what he said.

There are said to be those who are "unfit for living".

Negative sentences with introductory *there* are formed in the usual way for the verbs which are their predicates, that is, by means of appropriate auxiliaries for all the verbs but *to be*. In the latter case two negative constructions are possible:

a) either with the negative pronoun *no*, as in:

There was no sign of him in the hall.

There is not knowing when he will come.

b) or with the negation *not*, often followed by the indefinite pronoun *any*, or without it, as in:

There werenotany flowers on the balconies.

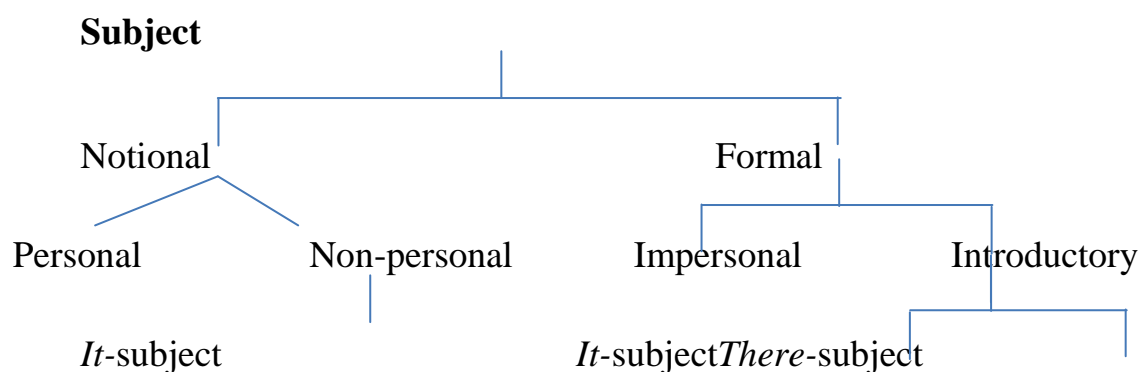
There is not a cloud in the sky.

The sentence is also negative if the subject itself is a negative pronoun:

There was nobody in.

There was nothing to say.

Grammatical types of subject



Тема: «The predicate»

The predicate

The predicate is the second main part of the sentence and its organizing center, as the object and nearly all adverbial modifiers are connected with, and depend on, it.

The predicate may be considered from the semantic or from the structural point of view. Structurally the predicate in English expressed by a finite verb agrees with the subject in number and person. The only exception to this rule is a compound modal and a simple nominal predicate, the latter having no verb form at all.

According to the meaning of its components, the predicate may denote an action, a state, a quality, or an attitude to some action or state ascribed to the subject. These different meanings find their expression in the structure of the predicate and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

Structural classification of the predicate

From the structural point of view there are two main types of predicate: *the simple predicate* and *the compound predicate*. Both these types may be either nominal or verbal, which gives four sub-groups: *simple verbal*, *simple nominal*, *compound verbal*, *compound nominal*. Compound verbal predicates may be

further classified into *phasal*, *modal* and *of double orientation*. Compound nominal predicates may be classified into *nominal proper* and *double nominal*.

Тема: «Negation»

In negative questions the place of the negator *not* depends on whether it is contracted or uncontracted. The contracted form *n't* is not separated from the auxiliary or modal verb, whereas the uncontracted *not* comes after the subject. The latter is more formal.

Don't you see?

Do you not see?

Can't you come with me?

Can you not come with me?

Haven't you finished your letter?

Have you not finished your letter?

Negative questions are often used as

a) exclamations.

Isn't it funny! (= It is very funny!)

Aren't I tired! (= I am very tired!)

b) invitations.

Won't you come in and have a cup of tea?

In answer to negative questions *yes* and *no* are used according to the facts and not according to the form of the question.

Haven't you seen the film? – *Yes* (I have seen it). Or: *No* (I haven't seen it).

Isn't it raining? – *Yes* (it is raining). Or: *No* (it isn't raining).

Compare with the Russian:

Дождь не идет? – Нет, идет. Или: Да, не идет.

In imperative sentences *not* follows the do-auxiliary.

Do not speak so loudly.

Don't worry.

The same is used for the negative imperative with the verb *to be*.

Don't be so rude.

Don't be lazy.

Not can be attached to other parts of the sentence, not only the predicate verb. In this case it comes before the word or phrase it negates.

It's here, not upstairs.

It's a tiger, not a cat.

The operation was quick, but not carefully planned.

The question is important and not easy to answer.

Negative infinitives are made by putting *not* or *never* before the infinitive (and before the particle *to* if there is one). Negative ing-forms are made in the same way.

It was impossible not to invite the Butlers.

He left never to return.

He was desperate at not having seen her.

In short answers or orders with the verbs of mental activity *think, believe, hope, suppose, be afraid* and after the conjunction *if* the negator *not* may replace the sentence or clause it negates.

Will it rain today? – I hope not.

Can you come today? – I'm afraid not.

Drop that gun! If not, you'll be sorry.

Besides *not* there are other words that can serve as negators and make the sentence negative. They are: *no, nobody, nothing, nowhere, none* (of) *no one*, and also *neither* (of), *never* and the conjunction *neither...nor*.

No sensible man would say that.

Nobody knows about it.

None of the applicants were German.

He has nothing to say.

He was nowhere to be found.

He never gets up early.
Neither of the statements is true.
I saw neither you not your wife.

No is a determiner and is used with a noun when it has no other determiner (neither an article nor a possessive or demonstrative pronoun).

No is the usual negator with a noun subject after *there is/are*, and with a noun object after the predicate verb *have*.

There are no letters in the letter-box today.
I have no relatives in this city.

No can add emphasis to the sentence, implying the opposite of what is expressed by the word that follows.

He is *no* fool (= He is a clever man).
He showed no great skill (= He showed very little skill).
He had no small part in its success! (= He had a large part...)
This is no unimportant question (= It is really an unimportant question).
She is no teacher (= She is a bad teacher).

In the same way never may add emphasis to the sentence and is often used in colloquial speech.

That will never do.
I should never have believed it.
Why did you sign those documents? – But I never did.
(Яничегонеподписывал.)
Surely you never told him about it! (Ты не мог ему это сказать!)

If there is an article or a possessive or demonstrative pronoun before the noun, *none of* or *neither of* is used with the same meaning as *no* (see the above examples).

Neither of the books is of any use to me.
I want none of these things.

None can be used without a noun as a noun substitute.

You have money, but I have none.
Bad advice is worse than none at all.

Besides negators there are other words that make a sentence negative in meaning. They are:

seldom, rarely... (= not often);
hardly, scarcely, barely... (= almost... not, hardly ever, scarcely ever).

As they also make the whole sentence negative they have the same effect on the sentence as other negators, that is exclude other negators.

a) The pronoun *some* and its derivatives are changed to *any* or its derivatives.

The rain continued with scarcely any pause.
He hardly thinks of anything else.

b) The adverbs *sometimes* and *already* are changed to *ever* and *yet* respectively.

Mrs Greene hardly ever plays tennis now.

c) They are generally followed by positive, not negative, tag question.

She scarcely seems to care, does she?

Little and *few* have the same effect on sentences.

There's little point in doing anything about it, is there?

Double negatives are sometimes possible in standard English, but only if both negative words have their full meaning and this serves for the sake of emphasis.

You've no reason not to trust me.

Do you think Julius will try to see you? – No, he won't. But he won't try not to either.

She wouldn't like to live in a place not so nice.

John hadn't been a crime reporter for nothing.

Not only would he do nothing to advance them; he impeded them.

It's not only not important, it's not a fact.

In standard English double negatives, rare as they are, may neutralize each other and then the ultimate meaning of the sentence is positive.

You've no reason not to trust me (= You must trust me).

I just couldn't do nothing (= I had to do something).

By removing one of the negators the sentence is made negative in meaning.

I just could do nothing.

The theme: "Agreement of the predicate with the subject"

Agreement

The most important type of agreement (concord) in English is that of the subject and the predicate in number and person. Thus a singular noun-subject requires a singular verb-predicate, a plural noun-subject requires a plural verb-predicate.

This rule of purely grammatical agreement concerns all present tenses (except modal verbs) and also the past indefinite of the verb *to be*.

Worldliterature**knows** many great humorists.

Great humorists**know** how to make people laugh.

This rule remains true for:

- a. All link verbs irrespective of the number of the predicate noun, as in:

Our only guide**was**the Polar star.

Our only guide**was**the stars.

- b. The predicate of emphatic constructions with the formal subject *it*.

It **was**my friends who suddenly arrived.

It'sthey who are responsible for the delay.

The verb-predicate is in singular if the subject is expressed by:

1. An infinitive phrase or phrases.

To know everything **is** to know nothing.

To be loved and to be wanted **is** always good.

2. A prepositional phrase.

After the meeting **is** the time to speak.

3. A clause introduced by a conjunction or conjunctive adverb.

Where you found him **doesn't** concern me.

How you got there **is** beyond my understanding.

Whether you find him or not **does not** concern me.

Note! Subject clauses introduced by conjunctive pronouns what, who may be followed by either a singular or plural verb.

What I want to do **is** to save us.

What where once precious manuscripts **were** scattered all over the floor.

What I say and what I think **are** my own affair.

4. A numerical expression, such as arithmetical addition, subtraction, division.

Four and four **is** eight.

Four minus two **is** two.

Ten divided by five **is** two.

Note! However multiplication admits of two variants.

Twice two **is/are** four.

5. The group many a + noun.

Many a man **has** done it.

Ни один человек проделывал это. (Многие...)

6. With **there**-constructions followed by subjects of different number, the predicate agrees with the subject that stands first. The same holds true for sentences with *here*.

There**was** a textbook and many notebooks on the table.

There**were** many notebooks and textbook on the table.

Here **was** Tom and Peter.

Here **was** a man, **was** experience and culture.

In informal style, however, the singular verb is often used before the subject in the plural if the form of the verb is contracted.

Is there any place in the town that might have them? – **There's two**,
Both closed.

There's too many of them living up there.

There's two kinds of men here, you'll find.

7. Plural nouns or phrases when they are used as names, titles, quotations.

“Fathers and Sons” **is** the most popular of Turgenev's novels.

Note! However, the titles of some works which are collections of series, etc., may have either a singular or a plural verb.

The “Canterbury Tales” **consist** of about seventeen thousand lines of verse.

Turgenev's “Hunter's Tales” **was/were** published in 1852.

Pronouns as subjects

Indefinite pronouns (*somebody, someone, anybody*), universal pronouns (*everybody, everyone, everything, each, either*), negative pronouns (*nobody, no one, neither, etc.*) take a singular predicate.

Somebody **is** asking for you.

Nobody **has** come except me.

Everyone of us **is** present.

Neither of the students **has** made a mistake.

Each **has** answered well.

However, none has a plural verb-predicate.

None **were** here.

None of us **understand** it.

None of them **have** come.

All in the sense of “все” has a singular verb, while all in the sense of “все” takes a plural verb.

All **is** well that ends well.

All that glitters **is** not gold.

All **were** in favour of the plan.

1. Interrogative pronoun *who*, *what* take a singular verb-predicate.

Who **has** come? What **is** there?

But if the pronoun denotes more than one person or thing a plural verb-predicate is used.

Who **are** walking in the garden?

Who **have** agreed to act?

2. With relative pronouns the form of the verb depends on the noun or pronoun which is its antecedent.

Do you know the girl who **lives** next door?

(The girl lives...)

Do you know the girls who **live** next door?

(The girls live ...)

Mary is one of those girls who never **know** what they will do next.

Even I, who **have** seen it all, can hardly believe it.

It is you who **are** right. It is I who **am** wrong.

But: It's me who **is** wrong.

3. The universal pronoun *both* has a plural verb-predicate.

Which of the letters are yours? Both **are** mine.

Conjunctions connecting two or more homogeneous subjects

A plural verb-predicate is used in the following cases:

1. With homogeneous subjects connected by *and*.

Sun and air **are** necessary for life.

Tom and Mary **are** my friends.

The ebb and the flow of the tide **are** regular.

Note! However, with structures where coordinated nouns refer to one thing or person a singular verb-predicate is used.

Bread and butter**is** not enough for breakfast. (One object is meant)

Bacon and eggs**makes** an English breakfast. (One dish is meant)

The painter and decorator**is** here. (One person is meant)

If the article is repeated, the reference is to two persons or objects, and a plural verb-predicate is used.

The bread and **the** butter **are** on the table. (Two separate objects are meant)

The painter and **the** decorator **are** here. (Two persons are meant)

Likewise, when a singular noun-subject has two attributes characterizing the same person or non-person connected by *and* it has a singular verb and the article is repeated.

A tall and beautiful girl**was** waiting in the office.

A black and white kitten**was** playing on the hearth rug.

But if the attributes characterize different persons or non-persons the verb is in the plural and the article is repeated.

A black and a white kitten **were** playing on the hearth rug. (A black kitten was playing a

white kitten was playing.)

The yellow car and the red car**were** badly damaged.

However, the article is repeated before each attribute only with countable nouns. Uncountables have no article.

In modern hotels hot and cold water**are** supplied in every room.

American and Dutch beer **are** both much lighter than British.

Good and bad taste **are** shown by examples.

With plural nouns only one article is used.

The Black and Mediterranean Seas never freeze.

2. With homogeneous subjects connected by *both...and*.

Both the bread and the butter**are** fresh.

Both the teacher and the students **have** come.

With homogeneous subjects connected by the conjunctions *not only...but also, either...or, or, neither...nor* the verb-predicate agrees with the nearest non-subject. (This is so-called “proximity rule”.)

Either my sister or my parents**are** at home.

Either my parents or sister **is** at home.

Neither you nor I**am** right.

Neither I nor you**are** right.

Not only my parents but also my brother**knows** about it.

Not only my brother but also my parents**know** about it.

Is Tom or Mary eager to meet you at the station?

With homogeneous subjects connected by the conjunctions *as well as*, *rather than*, *as much as*, *more than* the verb-predicate agrees with the first one.

My parents as well as my sister**are** teachers.

My sister as well as my parents **is** teacher.

The manager as well as/rather than/more than/as much as the numbers of the board is responsible for the present situation.

Notional agreement

Notional agreement is to be found in the following cases:

1. In modern English agreement there may be a conflict between form and meaning. It refers first of all to subjects expressed by nouns of multitude which may denote plurality being singular in form. In such cases the principle of grammatical agreement is not observed and there appears the so-called notional agreement, when the choice of the number is based on the fact whether the group of beings is considered as whole or as a collection of individuals taken separately (as discrete ones).

Thus the nouns of multitude (band, board, crew, committee, crowd, company, clergy, cattle, family, gang, group, guard, gentry, infantry, jury, militia, police, poultry, team) may have both a plural verb-predicate and a singular one depending on what is meant – a single undivided body or a group of separate individuals.

A new government**has**been formed.

The government**have**asked me to go, so I am leaving now.

It was now nearly eleven o'clock and the congregation**were** arriving...

The congregation**was** small.

How**are** your family?

Our family**has** always **been** a very happy one.

The commanding officer doesn't know where his cavalry **is** and his cavalry**are** not completely sure of their situation.

The crowd**was** enormous.

The crowd**were** silent.

The police**is** already informed.

I don't know what the police**are** doing.

The cattle**is** in the mountains.

The cattle**have** stopped grazing. They know before you hear any sound that planes are approaching.

The jury**decides** whether the accused is guilty or not.

While the jury**were out**, some of the public went out for a breath of fresh air.

2. Subject expressed by nouns denoting measure, weight, time, etc., have a singular verb-predicate when the statement is made about the whole amount, not about the discrete units.

Ten years **is** a long time.

Another five minutes**goes by**.

A million francs**is** a lot of money.

3. Notional agreement is also observed with subjects expressed by word-groups including nouns of quality: a/the number of..., a/the majority of..., (a) part

of..., the bulk of..., a variety of... These admit of either a singular or a plural verb-predicate.

The number (количество) of pages in this book **isn't** large.

It was Sunday and a number (многие) of people **were** walking about.

In Elisabeth's reign the bulk of English vegetable supplies **were** imported from Holland.

4. Subject expressed by such invariable plural nouns as goods (товар, товары), contents (содержание, содержимое), riches (богатство, богатства), clothes (одежда), wages (зарплата), caves (карнизкрыши) have a plural verb.

His wages **were** only 15 shillings a week.

I asked her what the contents **were** about.

His clothes **were** shabby.

The goods **were** delivered on time.

5. Subject expressed by such invariable singular nouns as hair, money, gate, information (сведения), funeral (похороны), progress (успехи), advice have a singular verb-predicate. These are called "singulariatantum" «всегдаединственноечисло», as they have no plural.

The hair **is** beautiful.

The money **is** mine.

The gate **is** open.

The information **was** unusually interesting.

If the funeral **is** so detestable to you, you don't have to go to it.

The corresponding Russian nouns used as subjects are either plural invariables (деньги, ворота, похороны) or have both singular and plural forms (совет-советы, новость-новости).

6. Subject expressed by invariable nouns ending in –s (“pluraliatantum” “всегдамножественноечисло”) and denoting an indivisible notion or thing have a singular verb-predicate: measles (корь), mumps (свинка), billiards, dominoes, linguistics, news, headquarters (штаб), works (завод).

No news is good news.

The new works that has been built in our district is very large.

Though nouns in –ics which are names of sciences and other abstract notions have a singular agreement when used in their abstract sense; they may have a plural verb-predicate when denoting qualities, practical applications, different activities, etc. (ethics – “moral rules”, gymnastics – “physical exercises”). Thus these nouns may be followed by either a singular or a plural verb.

a branch of science

Statistics

Collected numbers, figures representing facts

Statistics is a rather modern branch of mathematics.

These statistics show deaths per 1,000 of population.

Statistics on this subject are available.

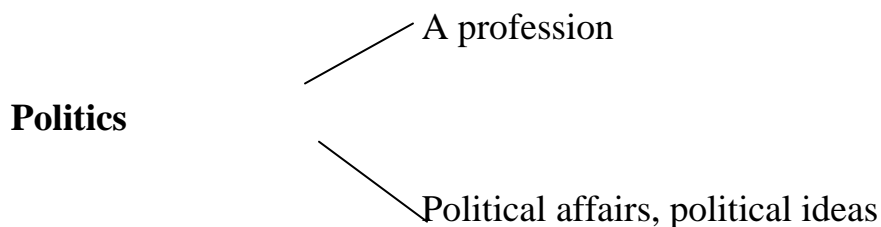
Tactics

The art of arranging military forces for battle

Methods

Tactics **is** one of the subjects studied in military academics.

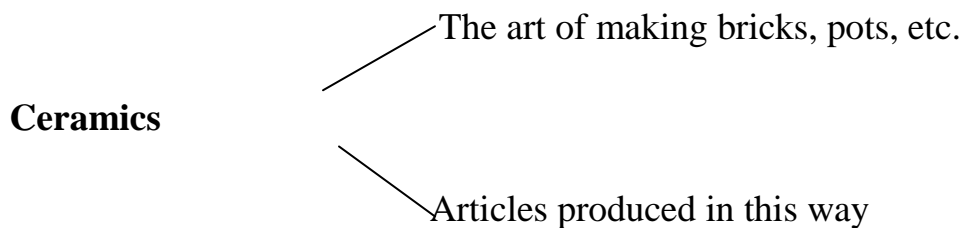
Your tactics **are** obvious. Please, don't insult my intelligence.



Politics **is** a risky profession.

Politics **have** always interested me.

What **are** your politics?



Ceramics **is** my hobby.

Where he lives isn't provinces as far as ceramics **are** concerned, it's the metropolis.

7. Subjects expressed by substantivized adjectives denoting groups of people (the blind, the dumb and deaf, the eminent, the mute, the old, the poor, the rich, etc.) always take the plural verb-predicate.

He did not look an important personage, but the eminent rarely **do**.

The independent elements of the sentence

The independent parts of the sentence are words and word-groups which are not grammatically dependent on any part of the sentence.

They are:

1. Interjections, such as oh, ah, hurrah, eh, hallo, goodness gracious, good heavens, etc.

Oh, if I only knew what a dreadful thing it is to be clean, I'd never come.
(Shaw)

“**Oh gracious me!** That innocent Toots”, returned Susan hysterically.
(Dickens)

2. Direct address.

Good morning, sweet child! (Douglas)

Don't be tiresome, **Marcellus!** (Douglas)

3. Parenthesis.

A parenthesis either shows the speaker's attitude towards the thought expressed in the sentence or connects a given sentence with another one, or summarizes that which is said in the sentence. A parenthesis is connected with the rest of the sentence rather semantically than grammatically. No question can be put to it. Very often it is detached from the rest of the sentence and consequently it is often separated from it by commas or dashes.

He had **probably** never occupied a chair with a fuller sense of embarrassment.
(Galsworthy)

To be sure, Morris had treated her badly of late. (Richard)

Unfortunately, it will be you who will have to explain that to him. (Heym)

But you shouldn't pay him to-night **anyway**, you're his guest. (Galsworthy)

Besides, you know, I'm a pensioner, **anyway**. That makes me 65, **to begin with**. (Maltz)

Speaking seriously though, Kit... it's very good and thoughtful and like you, to do this. (Dickens)

A parenthesis can be expressed by:

1. Modal words, such as *Indeed, certainly, assuredly, decidedly, in fact, truly, naturally, surely, actually, possibly, perhaps, evidently, obviously, maybe.*

Evidently he was not a man, he must be some other kind of animal. (Shaw)

Luckily, poor dear Roger had been spared this dreadful anxiety. (Galsworthy)

2. Adverbs which to a certain extent serve as connectives, such as *firstly, secondly, finally, thus, consequently, then, anyway, moreover, besides, still, yet, nevertheless, otherwise, notwithstanding, therefore, etc.*

He mightn't like it. **Besides**, uncle Soames wants to get back, I suppose. (Galsworthy)

He was losing money. **Furthermore**, he had sweated to make the truck comfortable for them. (Maltz)

3. Prepositional phrases, such as *in a word, in truth, in my opinion, in short, by the by, on the one hand, on the contrary, at least, etc.*

Everybody has his own problem. Mine is practically worthless, **for instance**. (Maltz)

By the way, Harry, I have often meant to ask you: is she your mother's sister or your father's? (Shaw)

4. Infinitive and participial phrases, such as *to be sure, to tell the truth, to begin with, generally speaking, strictly speaking, etc.*

Sarah, my dear, **comparatively speaking**, you're safe. (Dickens)

To tell the truth, I don't want to go there.

Sentences with homogeneous parts

Two or more parts of the sentence having the same function and referring to the same part of the sentence are called homogeneous parts of the sentence. They are linked either by means of coordinating conjunctions or asyndetically.

There can be:

1. Two or more homogeneous subjects to one predicate.

From the edge of the bed came **a ripple** and **whisper**. (Wells)

To her extreme relief, her **father** and **sisters** appeared. (Dashwood)

2. Two or more homogeneous predicates to one subject.

- a. Simple predicates.

That gentleman **started, stared, retreated, rubbed** his eyes, **stared** again and finally shouted: "Stop, stop!" (Dickens)

- b. A compound verbal modal predicate with homogeneous parts within it.

Thousands of sheets **must be printed, dried, cut**. (Heym)

- c. A compound verbal aspect predicate with homogeneous parts within it.

First he **began to understand** and then **to speak** English.

- d. A compound nominal predicate with several predicatives within it.

The sky **was clear, remote, and empty**. (Wells)

The above mentioned cases do not cover all possible cases of homogeneous predicates.

3. The two or more attributes, objects, or adverbial modifiers to one part of the sentence.

The **unlighted, unused** room behind the sitting-room seemed to absorb and even intensify the changing moods of the house. (Bennet) (*attributes*)

He could imitate **other people's speech, their accent, their mannerisms, their tone**. (Heym) (*direct object*)

He talked **of Spain, his sunstroke, Val's horses, their father's health.**

(Galsworthy) (*prepositional indirect object*)

She extended a slender hand and smiled **pleasantly** and **naturally**. (Wells)

(*adverbial modifiers of manner*)

But I saw nothing moving, **in earth** or **sky**. (Wells) (*adverbial modifiers of place*)

Тема: «Word order. Inversion»

Word order in English is of much greater importance than in Russian. Due to the wealth of inflexions word order in Russian is rather free as the inflexions show the function of each word in a sentence. As English words have hardly any inflexions and their relation to each other is shown by their place in the sentence and not by their form, word order in English is fixed. We cannot change the position of different parts of the sentence at will, especially that of the subject and the object.

To illustrate this we shall try to change the order of words in the following sentence.

Mrs. Winter sent the little boy with a message to the next village one December day. (*Hardly*)

If we put the direct object in the first place and the subject in the third, the meaning of the sentence will change altogether because the object, being placed at the head of the sentence, becomes the subject and the subject, being placed after the predicate, becomes the object.

The little boy sent Mrs. Winter with a message to the next village one December day.

In Russian such changes of word order are in most cases possible.

Моя сестра видела замечательный фильм в Москве.

Замечательный фильм видела моя сестра в Москве.

So due to the absence of case distinction word order is practically the only means of distinguishing between the subject and the direct object.

The above sentence may serve as an example of direct word order in an English declarative sentence:

- (1) the subject;
- (2) the predicate;
- (3) objects;
- (4) adverbial modifiers.

Inverted order of words

The order of words in which the subject is placed after the predicate is called inverted order or inversion.

Haven't you any family? (*Du Maurier*)

Certain types of sentences require the inverted order of words. These are:

1. Interrogative sentences. In most of them the inversion is partial as only part of the predicate is placed before the subject, viz. the auxiliary or modal verb.

Where did they find her? (*Du Maurier*)

Can I show you my library?

The whole predicate is placed before the subject when it is expressed by the verb *to be* or *to have*.

Is he at home?

Have you many friends?

Note. – No inversion is used when the interrogative word is the subject of the sentence or an attribute to the subject: *Who is in the room? Who speaks English here? What photos are lying on the table?*

2. Sentences introduced by *there*.

There is nothing marvellous in what Jam is going to relate. (*Dickens*)

Into the lane where he sat there opened three or four garden gates. (*Dickens*)

3. Compound sentences, their second part beginning with *so* or *neither*.

“Most of these military men are good shots,” observed Mr. Snodgrass, calmly; “but so **are you**, aren’t you?” (*Dickens*)

Their parents, Mr. and Mrs. R., escaped unhurt, so **did three of their sons**. (*Daily Worker*)

4. Simple exclamatory sentences expressing wish.

Be it so!

Gentle reader, **may you** never feel what I then felt. **May your eyes** never shed such stormy, heart-wrung tears as poured from mine. (*Ch. Bronte*)

The inverted order of words is widely used when a word or a group of words is put in a prominent position, i. e. when it either opens the sentence or is withdrawn to the end of the sentence so as to produce a greater effect. So word order often becomes a means of emphasis, thus acquiring a stylistic function.

In this case inversion is not due to the structure of the sentence but to the author’s wish to produce a certain stylistic effect.

1. Inversion occurs when an adverbial modifier opens the sentence.

Here we must distinguish the following cases:

- a) Adverbial modifiers expressed by a phrase or phrases opens the sentence, and the subject often has a lengthy modifier.

In an open barouche, the horses of which had been taken out, **stood a stout old gentleman** in a blue coat and bright buttons. (*Dickens*)

On a chair – a shiny leather chair displaying its horsehair through a hole in the top left hand corner – **stood a black despatch case**. (*Galsworthy*)

- b) An adverbial modifier with a negative meaning opens the sentence. Here belong such adverbial modifiers as: *in vain*, *never*, *little*, etc. In this case the auxiliary *do* must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

In vain **did the eager Luffey and the enthusiastic strugglers do** all that skill and experience could suggest. (*Dickens*)

Little **had I dreamed**, when I pressed my face longingly against Miss Minns's low greenish window-panes, that I would so soon have the honour to be her guest. (*Cronin*)

Never before and never since, **have I known** such peace, such a sense of tranquil happiness. (*Cronin*)

- c) Adverbial modifiers expressed by such adverbs as *so, thus, now, then*, etc. placed at the head of the sentence, if the subject is expressed by a noun.

So **wore the day away**. (*London*)

Thus **spoke Mr. Pickwick** edging himself as near as possible to the portmanteau. (*Dickens*)

Now **was the moment** to act.

Then across the evening stillness, **broke a blood-curdling yelp**, and Montmorency left the boat. (*Jerome*)

If the subject is a pronoun inversion does not take place.

Thus **he thought** and **crumpled up** and **sank down** upon the wet earth. (*London*)

- d) Adverbial modifiers of manner expressed by adverbs placed at the head of the sentence may or may not cause inversion. In case of inversion the auxiliary *do* must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Silently and patiently **did the doctor bear** all this. (*Dickens*)

Dimly and darkly **had the somber shadows** of a summer's night **fallen** upon all around, when they again reached Dingley Dell. (*Dickens*)

But: And suddenly **the moon appeared**, young and tender, floating up on her back from behind a tree. (*Galsworthy*)

Speedily **that worthy gentleman appeared**. (*Dickens*)

- e) An adverbial modifier preceded by *so* is placed at the head of the sentence.

So beautifully **did she sing** that the audience burst into applause.

2. Inversion occurs when the emphatic particle *only*, the adverbs *hardly, scarcely* (correlated with the conjunction *when*), the adverb *no sooner* (correlated with the conjunction *than*), or the conjunction *nor* open the

sentence. If there is inversion the auxiliary *do* must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Only once **did he meet** his match in tennis.

In only one respect **has** there **been** a decided lack of progress in the domain of medicine, that is in the time it takes to become a qualified practitioner. (*Learock*)

I do not care to speak first. Nor **do I desire** to make trouble for another. (*Cronin*)

No sooner **had Aunt Julie received** this emblem of departure than a change came over her... (*Galsworthy*)

Scarcely **was one long task completed** when a guard unlocked our door. (*London*)

3. Inversion occurs when the sentence begins with the word *here* which is not an adverbial modifier of place but has some demonstrative force.

“Here **is my card**, Sir,” replied Mr. Pickwick. (*Dickens*)

«Вот моя визитная карточка, сэр», – ответил мистер Пиквик.

Here **comes my brother John**.

Вот идет мой брат Джон.

If the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun the order of words is direct.

“Here **he is!**” said Sam rising with great glee. (*Dickens*)

«Вот он!» – радостно сказал Сэм, вставая.

“Here **we are!**” – exclaimed that gentleman. (*Dickens*)

«Вот и мы!» – воскликнул этот джентльмен.

4. Inversion occurs when postpositions denoting direction open the sentence and the subject is expressed by a noun. Here belong such words as *in*, *out*, *down*, *away*, *up*, etc. This order of words makes the speech especially lively.

Out went Mr. Pickwick head again. (*Dickens*)

The wind carries their voices – **away fly the sentences** like little narrow ribbons. (*Mansfield*)

Suddenly **in bounced** the landlady: “There’s a letter for you, Miss Moss.” (*Mansfield*)

But if the subject is a pronoun there is no inversion:

Down he fell.

Her skirt flies up above her waist; she tries to beat it down, but it is no use – **up it flies.** (*Mansfield*)

5. Inversion occurs when an object or an adverbial modifier expressed by a word-group with *not a...*, or *many a...* opens the sentence. In case of inversion the auxiliary *do* must be used if the predicate does not contain either an auxiliary or a modal verb.

Not a hansom **did I meet with** in all my drive. (*London*)

Not a hint, however, **did she drop** about sending me to school. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Many a dun **had she talked to** and **turned away** from her father's door. (*Thackeray*)

Many a time **had he watched** him digging graves in the churchyard. (*Dickens*)

I hated that man, many and many a time **had my fingers longed** to tear him. (*Dickens*)

6. Inversion often occurs when a predicative expressed by an adjective or by a noun modified by an adjective or by the pronoun *such* opens the sentence (in case the subject is a noun or an indefinite pronoun).

Violent was Mr. Weller's indignation as he was borne along. (*Dickens*)

Such is life, and we are but as grass that is cut down, and put into the oven and baked. (*Jerome*)

Sweet was that evening. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Inversion is very common in clauses of concession where the predicative is followed by the conjunction *as*.

Great as **was its influence** upon individual souls, it did not seriously affect the main current of the life either of the church or of the nation. (*Wakeman*)

However, when the subject is expressed by a personal pronoun, the link verb follows the subject.

Bright eyes they were. (*Dickens*)

A strange place it was. (*Dickens*)

Starved and tired enough he was. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Miserable as **he was** on the steamer, a new misery came upon him.
(*London*)

7. Inversion is also found in conditional clauses introduced without any conjunction when the predicate is expressed by *was*, *were*, *could* or *should*.

Even **were they** absolutely **hers**, it would be a passing means to enrich herself. (*Hardy*)

He soon returned with food enough for half-a-dozen people and two bottles of wine – enough to last them for a day or more, **should any emergency arise.** (*Hardy*)

Yates would have felt better, **had the gesture** of a few kind words to Thorpe **been permitted** him. (*Heym*)

It must be borne in mind that emphasis order does not necessarily mean inversion; emphasis may be also achieved by the prominent position of some part of the sentence without inversion, i. e. without placing the predicate before the subject.

Here we shall only mention a peculiar way of making almost any part of the sentence emphasis. This is achieved by placing *it is* or *it was* before the part of the sentence which is to be emphasize and a clause introduced by the relative pronoun *who* or *that*, by the conjunction *that* or without any connective after it.

So **it's you** that have disgraced the family. (*Voynich*)

It is not in Mr. Rochester he is interested. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Father appreciated him. **It was on father's suggestion** that he went to law college. (*London*)

Tema: «The attribute. Ways of expressing the attribute. The apposition»

The attribute

The attribute is secondary part of sentence which characterizes person or non-person expressed by the headword either qualitatively, quantitatively, or from the point of view of situation. Attributes may refer to nouns and other words of nominal nature such as pronouns, gerunds and substitute words, as in:

It was a letter from his devoted friend.

I mentioned it to him when he was his usual self.

One day I put the picture up again, the lifesize one.

An attribute forms a nominal phrase with its headword.

Ways of expressing attributes

An attribute may be expressed by different parts of speech:

1. By (a) adjectives or (b) adjectival phrases, which characterize the person or non-person qualitatively or express the speaker's attitude.

- a) The sand glittered like fine white sugar in the sun.

I've never seen a better place.

There is nothing unusual about the letter.

Some composite adjectives may be derived from other part of speech by means of the participle-forming suffix *-ed*, as in:

It was a low-ceiling L-shaped room.

They sat on the pine-needled sand.

Some adjectives have developed from former participles II, as in:

Martin loved with his widowed mother.

He looked for his long-lost friend everywhere.

- b) In any case it gave no clue to the thought then uppermost in Hercule Poirot's mind.

He stood and raged within himself with sour despair, unable to move or say a word.

2. By pronouns or pronominal phrases, which help to identify persons or non-persons.

The woman by no change of face showed that his words meant anything to her.

Here's some money for you.

Can you see those children of mine anywhere?

3. By numerals, *ordinal* or *cardinal*, which state the number or order, or serve to identify persons or non-persons, as in:

He arrived just three weeks ago.

Robert has always been the first boy in his class.

Is it part two of the book?

4. By (a) nouns in the common case singular or (b) prepositional nominal phrases, which characterize the person or non-person either qualitatively or from the point of view of its locative, temporal, or other features.

The nouns are always premodifying attributes, the prepositional nominal phrases are postmodifying:

- a) It happens on December evening (декабрьский вечер).

The boy started to eat a ham roll (булочка с ветчиной).

The garden wall was almost ruined (садовая стена).

There was a honeymoon couple among the passengers (пара, проводящая медовый месяц).

- b) The new secretary, on promotion from the general office, was a widow of fifty.

He was a man of very regular habits.

Anything of interest this morning, Miss Lemon?

In some cases the attribute and its headword form a closely connected unit, such as *the continent of Europe* (Европейский континент), *the name of Brighton Kurby* (имя Брайтон Кёрби), *the village of Crowle* (деревня Кроул). Although the prepositional group is a subordinate and characterizing element, modifying the first word, its informative value is much greater than that of the first element.

In structures of this type the semantic roles of the elements may be reversed: the first (subordinating) element becomes a modifying word, the second (subordinated) – the modified one, as in:

his carrot of a nose (нос морковкой; нос, а морковка),
an angel of a girl (недевушка, а ангел),
a hell of a noise (адский шум, шум как в аду),
a jewel of a nature (золотой характер; не характер, а золото).

Though logically *his carrot of a nose* means that the nose is characterized as resembling a carrot, syntactically it is the word *carrot* that is modified by the *of*-phrase *of a nose*, the indefinite article performing its usual classifying function. The modified word is not always semantically acceptable as part of the sentence without the *of*-phrase, which shows the semantic dependence of the modified element on the modifying one. This, together with the fact that logical and syntactic relations are reversed, accounts for the marked stylistic effect of these structures.

His left hand was holding a skyscraper of a silver cup.

High above the bank is another eagle's nest of a castle.

Russian phrases of a similar kind – *недевка, а огонь; не ребенок, а суицидьяволенок*, unlike the parallel English phrases, are rarely included in extended sentences.

Note:

Phrases like *sort of tired (I feel sort of tired)*, *kind of tiresome (The situation becomes kind of tiresome)*, etc., form one syntactic whole and cannot be treated as free syntactic phrases consisting of a headword modified by a prepositional attribute. The first element expresses approximation – a moderate degree of the quality denoted.

5. By nouns or pronouns in the genitive case.

He caught the sound of the children's voices.

The ocean's vastness was so great that it held him spellbound.

Nelson had asked Mary's father's consent before proposing.

If the headword is omitted (when the sentence is elliptical) the modifying word should still be considered as an attribute.

Suppose those postcards are a lunatic's?

She heard the voice of another man, perhaps it was the water-carrier's and then a woman's, shrill and hysterical.

6. By statives, although these are rarely used as attributes. They usually postmodify the headword, though may occur as premodifying.

No man alive would ever think of such cruelty.

She gazed at us with an aloof air.

7. By (a) participles I and II and (b) participial phrases, characterizing the person or non-person through an action, process, or reaction.

- a) He made his way down the creaking stairs.

The mild day died in a darkening flush of twilight.

They stood contemplating the suited dummies in the lighted windows of the shop.

They stood at the car being refueled and watched the meter.

- b) Captain Nichols dragged Strickland, bleeding from a wound in his arm, into the street.

There was a tiny smile playing about the corners of his mouth.

Vincent glanced over at Christine knitting by the fire.

Beside her stood a straw basket stuffed with many towels and a pair of beach shoes.

8. By (a) gerunds, (b) gerundial phrases, or (c) gerundial complexes. Gerunds generally characterize non-persons from the point of view of their function or purpose.

- a) Back at the hotel he slipped on a white rowing blazer (the blazer which the members of the boat-club wore).

Her walking shoes were elegant (shoes which she wore when walking).

(Compare these with attributes expressed by participle I, in the sentences given above (7), which denote an action, process or reaction – sometimes figuratively).

b) He would not run the risk of being too late.

She showed no sign of having ever known me.

The young man had the most irritating habit of joking at the wrong moment.

c) The silence was interrupting by the sound of a door being banged.

There is no chance of our seeing him again.

9. By (a) infinitives, (b) infinitival phrases, or (c) complexes, which characterize a person or non-person through some real or hypothetical action in which this person or non-person is or may be involved. Owing to the hypothetical nature of the action, an infinitive as attribute often impacts a modal shade of meaning to the action.

a) You are the one to blame (who is to blame).

I haven't any time to spare (which I **could** spare).

b) He looked around for a weapon to strike his insulter with.

He was not a man to experiment with acquaintance.

There was nothing in the look of him to show the courage of the man (nothing which could show courage).

He was the last to tell of this extraordinary raid from the deeper sea (who could tell).

c) This is a problem for you to solve. (*which you could/must solve*).

10. By (a) adverbs or (b) adverbial phrases, which characterize a person or non-person through spatial or temporal characteristics, or through circumstances or facts concerning this person or non-person.

a) No sounds came from the quarters above.

The then Government did not respond to this just claim.

Somebody appeared on the upstairs balcony.

"I see that woman downstairs has a couple of sailors sitting there."

An immense effort of imagination was needed to link himself now with himself then.

The most usual position of such attributes is to follow the headword.

b) Most people living in out of the way places expect the latest news from home with impatient.

11. By sentences used as a whole (the so-called “quotation nouns”). These are used mainly as hyphenated chains before the headword.

She looked at me with a kind of don't-touch-ne-or-I'll-slap-you air.

It was a 'You-must-take-us-as-you-find-us' attribute to things, and it saved me a lot of trouble...

In this 'a-place-for-evening-and-everything-in-its-place' kitchen he felt ill at ease.

12. By a clause (then called an attribute clause) which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

Some called me by the name which no one here knew.

The position of attributes

The position of an attribute depends on the following:

1. The morphological nature of the attribute. Adjectives, participles, gerunds, nouns in the common and the possessive cases, pronouns, ordinal numerals, and quotation nouns generally premodify the headword.

He was a little man, with a thin voice.

Val had just changes out of riding clothes and was on his way to the party.

It's not always easy to understand a child's language.

The third attempt gave no result.

His eyes travelled over the landscape at their feet.

Adverbs, statives, cardinal numerals and infinitives are generally postmodifying attributes.

Particles II, statives, and adjectives of verbal origin used as attributes also tend to occupy the position after the headword.

The only person visible was the policeman (who could be seen).

The only way of escaping imaginable was through the window (which could be imagined).

2. The extension of the attribute. Non-detached attributes are postmodifying when expressed by extended phrases or complexes.

The influence of extension can be illustrated by the following pairs of examples:

It is a sensible suggestion. It is a suggestion sensible in many ways.

He found himself in a difficult situation. He found himself in a situation difficult from his point of view.

Note:

Some adjectives, including some ending in *-able* or *-ible*, can follow a noun if the noun follows a superlative adjective or *the first/last/next/only*:

They say she's the oldest woman alive.

I'm afraid that's the last ticket available.

Adjectives that are followed by a prepositional phrase, e.g. *interested in something*, *suitable for somebody*, go after, not before, a noun:

~~The project will appeal to interested in ecology students.~~

The project will appeal to students interested in ecology.

This is similar to a reduced relative clause. We can also use a full relative clause with the adjective in predicative position:

The project will appeal to students who are interested in ecology.

Some adjectives have a different meaning when used before or after a noun:

The meeting was full of concerned residents. (=worried)

The students concerned were a small minority. (=who took part/were involved)

I'm afraid we have opposite points of view. (=contrasting)

We used to live in the house opposite. (=physically facing/across from us)

The present chairman is getting on a bit. (=current/existing now)

We took a vote of all members present. (=physically there)

<p>7. The noun. Semantic classification.</p> <p>The noun – is a notional word which refers to people, things, ideas, feelings.</p> <p>Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups – proper nouns & common nouns.</p> <p>Proper noun – is used for the particular person, place, thing which is unique. (with the capital letter)</p> <p>Common noun:</p> <p>-count: concrete (table); abstract (idea)</p> <p>-uncount: material (silver), abstract (love)</p> <p>COLLECTIVE NOUNS</p> <p>Group nouns – countable nouns, refer to group of individuals. (army, crew, crowd, family, firm, jury, team)</p> <p>! bacteria, data & media – sing. & pl.!</p> <p>Nouns of multitude - used as plurals but have no pl. ending. (people, police, cattle, poultry)</p> <p>Mass nouns:</p> <p>-always used in the sing. (furniture, grass, hair wheat)</p> <p>-always used in the pl. (archives, belongings, clothes, earnings, goods)</p>	<p>8. The category of number. Irregular plurals.</p> <p>Number - is the form of the noun which shows whether one or more than one object is meant.</p> <p>Variable (regular, irregular). Invariable.</p> <p>IRREGULAR PLURALS.</p> <p>1. Voicing: 12 nouns ending in – f goes to –v. (wife, life, wolf, calf, knife, half, self, leaf, elf)</p> <p>Other nouns: –f + –s (belief-beliefs)</p> <p>–fs & –ves: scarf; handkerchief.</p> <p>2. Mutation or a change of vowel: man – men; mouse – mice, foot – feet.</p> <p>3. –en plural: ox – oxen; children</p> <p>4. zero:</p> <p>–nationality in –ese, –ss: Japanese, Swiss</p> <p>–quantitative nouns: hundred, million</p> <p>–nouns in –es: series, species, means, crossroads.</p> <p>–animal names: sheep, deer, cod, grouse, salmon.</p> <p>5. Loans: stimulus- stimuli; vertebra- vertebrae, stratum-strata; basis- bases; criterion-criteria; appendix- appendices</p>	<p>9. Singular & Plural invariable nouns.</p> <p>Number - is the form of the noun which shows whether one or more than one object is meant</p> <p>Sing.:</p> <p>-material nouns: sand, water</p> <p>-abstract nouns: music, homework</p> <p>-proper names: the Thames, London</p> <p>-substantivized adjectives denoting abstract notion: the inevitable, the true</p> <p>-some nouns ending in –s: diabetes, billiards, news, aerobics, Wales</p> <p>Pl.</p> <p>-words denoting things consisting of two matching parts: glasses, jeans, scissors, spectacles</p> <p>-miscellaneous nouns: customs, finals, goods, stairs</p> <p>-some plural proper names: the Middle Ages, the Midlands</p> <p>-unmarked plural nouns: cattle, police, gentry</p> <p>-substantivized adjectives denoting people: the rich, the poor</p>	<p>12. The case of noun. The use of the genitive case.</p> <p>Case – is the form of the noun which shows the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence</p> <p>The genitive case is formed by means of the suffix –'s or an apostrophe (') alone.</p> <p>The genitive case is used:</p> <p>-with personal names: Mary's house</p> <p>-with personal nouns: the boy's pencil</p> <p>-with collective nouns: the committee's decision</p> <p>-with names of higher animals: a cat's tail</p> <p>-with geographical names: China's population</p> <p>-with the names of newspapers and institutional names: The Guardian's editorial, the school's history</p> <p>-with temporal or distance nouns: a day's work, yesterday's report</p> <p>-with nouns of special interest to human activity: science's influence, the mind's general development</p> <p>-with some inanimate nouns in set expressions: a stone's throw away</p> <p>Group genitive – when –'s can be added:</p> <p>-to a group of two coordinated nouns if such a group refers to a single idea: Alex and Andy's father</p> <p>-to a more extensive noun phrase: The Prime Minister of Great Britain's speech</p> <p>Independent or absolute genitive (without a head-word): Your coat is more fashionable than Ann's. The</p>
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			baker's, the hairdresser's. Double genitive (-'s can be combined with an of-phrase): an old friend of my father's.
<p>13. The use of the indefinite article with countable nouns.</p> <p>The main functions of the indefinite article are classifying, generic and numerical.</p> <p>I. In its classifying function the indefinite article shows that the speaker is characterizing a person ... only as a specimen of a certain class of things of the same kind. (I'm a school teacher.)</p> <p>II. In the generic function ... as a representative of the class.</p> <p>The meaning of the article with sing. nouns is close to <i>every/any</i>. (A sonnet is a poem of fourteen lines.)</p> <p>III. In its numerical function the indefinite article always shows the idea of 'oneness':</p> <p>-with nouns denoting time, measure & weight (for a minute or two)</p> <p>- with hundred, thousand, million, dozen & score. (a hundred times)</p> <p>-after the negative not (not a word)</p> <p>-like at a time, at a gulp, at a draft</p> <p>-between two noun groups in expressions denoting prices, salaries, speeds. (90 pounds a week)</p>	<p>13. The use of the definite article with countable nouns.</p> <p>The definite article in its specifying function serves to single out an object from all other objects of the same kind. The specification is carried out by means of the situation, the preceding context, the meaning of the noun, restrictive attribute.</p> <p>(1) Situation specification occurs when the speaker is referring to some objects or person he assumes the hearer can identify in the environment they share. (<i>There is someone at the doctor.</i>)</p> <p>(2) An object or a group of objects may be specified by the reference to the preceding context. This use with the definite article is called anaphoric. (The three kitten they found their mittens)</p> <p>Prepositive limiting modifiers</p> <p>1) <u>Adjectives in the superlative degree</u></p> <p>A noun modified by an adj in the superlative degree is used with the definite article.</p> <p>2) <u>Ordinal numerals</u></p> <p>A noun modified by an ordinal numeral is used with the definite article. (the first, the second...)</p> <p>3) <u>Limiting adjectives and same</u></p> <p>Limiting adj and the identifying pronoun same also particularize the reference of the noun: <i>the main reason</i></p> <p>4) <u>Attributive proper nouns</u></p> <p><i>The Pushkin Theatre</i></p>	<p>15. The use of article with abstract nouns.</p> <p>Abstract nouns: <u>count</u> (answer, belief) & <u>non-count</u> (anger, pride)</p> <p>1. When non-count abstract nouns have generic reference they are used without any article (quality, state, action). (Knowledge is a power.)</p> <p>Also in attributive & adverbial prepositional phrase after <i>of, with, in</i> (<i>A slight feeling of uneasiness came over him</i>).</p> <p>No article – <u>nationality & geography</u> (English literature, Moscow time), <u>time</u> (modern physics), <u>degree & authenticity</u> (great value, real importance).</p> <p>2. Non-count abstract nouns can be used with the indefinite article when they are modified by descriptive attributives (quality, feeling, state) (<i>She looked several years younger and there was a new dignity about her</i>)</p> <p>The indefinite article is obligatory after <i>certain, curious, peculiar</i> (a curious influence)</p> <p>3. Abstract nouns can be used with the definite article:</p> <p>-Reference backwards: identification is made by something already said. (<i>John laughed and the sound of the laugh was hard</i>)</p> <p>-Reference forwards: identification is made by smth about to be said. (I was wrapped in <u>the security of childhood</u>. – of-phrase; He apologetic laugh did not disguise <u>the pleasure that he felt</u>. – attributive clause.</p> <p>4. Some abstract nouns are</p>	<p>14. The use of articles with material nouns.</p> <p>1. When names of material have generic reference they are used without any article. (This is lead, not silver)</p> <p>Names of material can change their meaning and become count nouns when they denote:</p> <p>-various sorts of material & food products (a good wine)</p> <p>-a portion of food or drink (an ice)</p> <p>-an object made of some sort of material (a small tin)</p> <p>2. Material nouns can be used with the definite article:</p> <p>-Reference backwards: identification is made by something already said. (Here a glass, some water and three coins. Watch! I pour <u>the water</u> into the glass , then drop the coins into <u>the water</u>)</p> <p>-Reference forwards: identification is made by smth about to be said. (<u>The water in this glass</u> has now turned pink. – a limiting prepositional phrase; He <u>poured the fragrant golden wine that accompanied the lobster</u>. – attributive clause)</p>

	<p>POPOSITIVE limiting modifiers</p> <p>1) <u>Prepositional of-phrases</u> (<i>It's as plain as the palm of my hand</i>)</p> <p>2) <u>Attributive restrictive clause</u> (give additional information) (<i>Can you show the house that Shakespeare lived in?</i>)</p> <p>The definite article in its generic function indicates reference to a whole class of referents: it is used to denote a thing taken as a type. Usually it is names of animals, plants, professions, occupations, scientific terms and other. (<i>The horse and mule live for forty years</i>)</p> <p>The definite article indicates generic reference when it is used with collective nouns: <i>the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie.</i></p>	<p>never used with the indefinite article: <i>weather, money, news, work, luck, fun.</i> (<i>I found it difficult to understand English money</i>), <i>advice, applause, guidance, information, progress...</i>)</p> <p>5. Nouns <i>pity, pleasure, comfort, relief, shame</i> are regularly used with the indefinite article. (<i>It's a shame to act like this; What a pity!</i>)</p>	
<p>16. The use of articles with names of person.</p> <p>1. Normally, a personal name of someone imagined as unique, needs no determiner. (Anthony)</p> <p>Personal names preceded by nouns denoting titles, ranks, Dr. or family relations take no article. (Lord Byron)</p> <p>2. The definite article is used:</p> <p>-With a family name in the plural denoting the whole family. (<i>The Smiths</i>)</p> <p>-When names of persons are modified by of-phrase or attributive clause. (<i>This Pat wasn't at all like the Pat of his memories.</i>)</p> <p>-When names of persons have description (The gentle Mrs. Snobbe)</p> <p><u>Little, old, young, dear, poor, honest</u> – no article.</p> <p>-When the speaker wishes to show that the person is the very one (Do you mean the Shakespeare or smb else?)</p>	<p>17. The use of articles with place names.</p> <p>1. Names of continents, countries, states, cities and towns are normally used without articles, even if described. (North America, modern France)</p> <p>2. With the definite article: the Antarctic, Arctic, Argentine, Caucasus, Crimea, Netherlands...</p> <p>3. With the definite article if of-phrase or attributive clause: the England of today.</p> <p>4. An indefinite article if – descriptive attribute bringing out a certain aspect: A very cheerful England.</p> <p>5. Names of oceans, seas, rivers and lakes usually take the definite article: the Atlantic, Baltic, Volga, Ontario (lake Baikal)</p> <p>6. Names of desert – with the definite article: The Sahara</p> <p>7. Names of mountain chains – with the definite article: The Alps, Andes</p>	<p>18. The use of articles in some syntactic functions.</p> <p>1. A noun in the subject position is usually preceded by the definite article in its specifying function, or by either of the articles in their generic function. (info is known to both the speaker and the addressee). – <i>The way was long. The wind was cold.</i></p> <p>The indef. article – to show novelty. (On the opposite side of the landing a girl was standing.)</p> <p>Also in <i>There is/ comes/ appears:</i> There is an exception to the rule.</p> <p>2. Object: any article.</p> <p>The indef. article – after verbs of possession and obligatory in such as <i>to have a smoke, to give a look..</i></p> <p>3. Adverbial modifier:</p> <p><u>Place</u> – the definite article (Jane is in the garden); the indef. article – if description (in a small shabby house)</p> <p><u>Comparison</u> – the indef. article</p>	<p>-13. Substantivized adjectives.</p> <p>Substantivized adjectives are functioning as nouns. They fall into 2 groups: partially & wholly substantivized adjectives.</p> <p>Partially subst.adj. denoting abstract notions are not inflected for number and are always used with the definite article and the verb in the singular: <i>the beautiful, the unknown.</i> Those denoting the person are always in plural: <i>the rich, the old.</i></p> <p>Wholly subst.adj. – with different articles.</p> <p>They denote:</p> <p>-<u>languages</u> (Russian)</p> <p>-<u>individuals characterized through their social, political, national... features</u> (a liberal-liberals)</p> <p>-<u>colours</u> (uncount), <u>shades</u> (count): grey, the grey of the earth.</p> <p>Some set expression:</p> <p>On the whole, to be in the pink,</p>

<p>3. The indefinite article is used:</p> <p>-one member of the family (His mother was a Smith)</p> <p>-a certain person, normally unknown to the hearer (The Colonel was introduced to a Mrs. Bilst)</p> <p>- a name is modified by an adjective to show the mood (An infuriated Jenifer)</p>	<p>8.Names of mountain peaks – without articles: Elbrus, Everest</p> <p>9.the + common noun + of + proper noun: The Gulf of Mexico</p> <p>10.Names of universities where the first part is a place-name usually have 2 forms: the University of London – London University.</p>	<p>(as strong as a lion, as weak as mouse)</p> <p>4. Attribute: the indef.article (novelty). Also in <i>the son of a teacher, a doctor's daughter.</i></p> <p>5. Predicative & appositive nouns.</p> <p>- no article after <i>to turn</i>: to turn pirate.</p> <p>- <i>son & daughter</i> take the definite article in of-phrase (She is the daughter of a doctor.); the ind.article if several sons & daughters.</p> <p>- no article with <i>enough</i>: She isn't fool enough to do it.</p>	<p>to do good, to be at large.</p> <p>To get the better, so much the better, for better or worse.</p> <p>To hope for the best, to do one's best, in the least.</p>
<p>-27. The adjective. Syntactic function. The degrees of comparison. Means of intensification.</p> <p>The adjective is a notional word which denotes a quality or a state of a substance.</p> <p>Degrees of comparison:</p> <p>Positive, comparative & superlative. And also 3 ways of forming: synthetic, analytic, suppletive.</p> <p>I.Synthetic.</p> <p>Adj. – adj. + er – adj. + est.</p> <p>II. Analytic.</p> <p>Adj. – more + adj. – most + adj.</p> <p>III. Suppletive.</p> <p>(irregular adjectives)</p> <p>Good – better – best.</p>	<p>36. Subjunctive II. Formation and use.</p> <p>S-II has two basic forms: perfect & non-perfect.</p> <p>S-II represents an action as contrary to reality. (I always wish I were you.)</p> <p>S-II is used in simple sentences & complex sentences.</p> <p>Simple sentence</p> <p>1. Exclamatory sentences: <i>Oh that..., If only...</i> (If only he had come.)</p> <p>2. With modal verbs. (Could you come again tomorrow.)</p> <p>3. <i>had better, had best, would rather, would sooner</i> (express preference or advice) I would rather know the painful truth than imagine it.</p> <p>Nominal Clause</p> <p>1. Attributive clause: <i>It's time, It's high time, It's about time.</i> (It's time I made up my mind) only non-perfect.</p> <p>2. Predicative clause: <i>as if, as though (be, seem, look, feel, sound)</i> I feel as though I had never been away.</p> <p>3. Object clause: <i>to wish, would</i></p>	<p>37. The conditional Mood. Formation and use.</p> <p>Should/Would + infinitive</p> <p>The cond.mood represents an action as contradicting reality.</p> <p>Simple Sentence</p> <p>The CM is used to denote unreal action:</p> <p>a) with an adverbial modifier of condition expressed by a but-for phrase. (He would not have come, but for me)</p> <p>b) with implied condition (I wouldn't waste my time on rubbish in your place)</p> <p>c) to sound more polite, less straightforward (I should very much object to you reading trashy novels)</p> <p>Complex Sentence</p> <p>In principal clauses with the subordinate clauses of unreal condition or unreal concession (where S-II is used). I should never forgive myself if I profited by his generosity.</p>	<p>38. Subjunctive I. Formation and use. The suppositional mood. Formation and use.</p> <p>Simple sentence</p> <p>1. formulaic expressions denoting:</p> <p>a) wish (Long live the Army!, Success attend you.)</p> <p>b) concession (So be it!, Come what may.)</p> <p>2. commands, request with indefinite pronouns as subjects (Everybody leave the room.)</p> <p>Nominal Clause</p> <p>In Subject, Object, Predicative, Attributive appositive clauses:</p> <p>a) after the expression of a modal meaning (It is required that all work hard.)</p> <p>b) after the expression of fear (We feared lest he find it out.)</p> <p>Adverbial Clause</p> <p>1) in adverbial modifier of purpose : <i>so that, lest</i> (He broke off again lest he says too much)</p> <p>2) in adv. modifier of concession: <i>though, although, whatever, whoever, whenever, wherever</i> (Whatever the</p>

	<p><i>rather</i> (I wish I hadn't come)</p> <p>4. Indirect questions: <i>if, whether</i> (I doubted if it were possible.)</p> <p>Adverbial clauses</p> <p>1.of comparison or manner: <i>as if, as though</i> (He speaks as if he had never seen me before)</p> <p>2.of unreal condition or concession: <i>even if even though</i> (Even if they had wanted me to stay I should have refused.)</p>		<p>reason be, the fact remains.)</p> <p>The suppositional mood. Formation and use.</p> <p>Simple Sentence</p> <p><i>And what if...?</i> (And what if he should come back?)</p> <p>Nominal Clause</p> <p>1.Subject, Object, Predicative, Attributive appositive clause</p> <p>a)after the expression of modal meaning (Our requirement is that all should work hard.)</p> <p>b)after the expression of emotion (It shocked me that he should have been so cruel.)</p> <p>c)after the expression of fear (His fear was that he should be neglected)</p> <p>Adverbial Clause</p> <p>1)of condition (Should it be wet we shall stay at home)</p> <p>2)in adverbial modifier of purpose : <i>so that, lest</i> (He broke off again lest he should say too much)</p> <p>3)in adv.modifier of concession: <i>though, although, whatever, whoever, whenever, wherever</i> (Though he should make every effort, he cannot succeed)</p>
<p>-17. The suppositional mood. Formation and use.</p> <p>Simple Sentence</p> <p><i>And what if...?</i> (And what if he should come back?)</p> <p>Nominal Clause</p> <p>1.Subject, Object, Predicative, Attributive appositive clause</p> <p>a)after the expression of modal meaning (Our requirement is that all should work hard.)</p> <p>b)after the expression of emotion (It shocked me that he</p>	<p>-18. The use of oblique moods in simple sentence.</p> <p>1.Conditional:</p> <p>a)<i>But for...</i> (But for the fog we should continue our way)</p> <p>b)with implied condition (I wouldn't waste my time on rubbish in your place)</p> <p>c)to sound polite (I should like to speak to you)</p> <p>2.Subjunctive II</p> <p>a)<i>Oh, that...! If only...!</i> (wish or regret) (Oh, that the storm</p>	<p>-19. The use of oblique moods in nominal clauses.</p> <p>1.Subject, Object, Predicative, Attributive appositive</p> <p>a) after the expressions of modal meaning (Suppositional & Subjunctive I) (It is required that all (should) work hard.</p> <p>b) after the expression of emotion (Suppositional) (It shocked me that he should have been so cruel.)</p> <p>c) after the expression of fear. (Suppositional Mood, rarely S-</p>	<p>-35. The use of oblique moods in adverbial clauses.</p> <p>1.Clause of condition</p> <p>a)S-II (I shouldn't take this line if I were you)</p> <p>b)Suppositional (Should he come tell him to wait)</p> <p>2. Clauses of concession.</p> <p>a)after <i>even though, even if</i> (S-II) (Even if they had wanted me to stay I should have refused)</p> <p>b)after <i>though, although, whatever...</i> (Suppositional & S-</p>

<p>should have been so cruel.)</p> <p>c)after the expression of fear (His fear was that he should be neglected)</p> <p>Adverbial Clause</p> <p>1)of condition (Should it be wet we shall stay at home)</p> <p>2)in adverbial modifier of purpose : <i>so that, lest</i> (He broke off again lest he should say too much)</p> <p>3)in adv.modifier of concession: <i>though, although, whatever, whoever, whenever, wherever</i> (Though he should make every effort, he cannot succeed.)</p>	<p>were over!)</p> <p>b)with modal verbs (Where could we stay the night?)</p> <p>c) <i>Had better, had best, would rather, would sooner</i> (preference or advice) (I would rather stay alone)</p> <p>3.Subjunctive I</p> <p>1.Formulaic expressions</p> <p>a)wish (Long live the Army! Success attend you!)</p> <p>b)concession (So be it! Come what may!)</p> <p>2.Commands, requests with indefinite pronouns as subjects (Everybody leave the room.)</p> <p>4.Suppositional</p> <p><i>And what if...?</i> (And what if he should come back?)</p>	<p>I) (His fear was that he should be neglected)</p> <p>2. Attributive clause after <i>it's (high) time</i> (S-II) (It's time the boy came)</p> <p>3.Predicative clause after <i>as if, as though</i> (S-II) (It looks as if she didn't like me)</p> <p>4. Object clause after <i>to wish & would rather</i> (S-II) (I wish I were home)</p> <p>5.Indirect question after the expression of doubt (S-II) (I doubted if it were possible)</p>	<p>II) (Whatever the reason be, the fact remains)</p> <p>3. Clause of comparison or manner</p> <p>After <i>as if, as though</i> (S-II) (His voice broke as if he were going to cry)</p> <p>4. Clause of purpose</p> <p>After <i>so that, lest</i> (Suppositional & S-II) (He broke off again lest he should say too much)</p>
<p>1. The Sentence. The structural classification. The simple sentence.</p> <p>The sentence – is a minimal text unit which may be used in communication to express a complete message.</p> <p><u>Structure:</u></p> <p>Sentence: Simple (<i>One member & two member</i>(Complete & Incomplete – Elliptical));</p> <p>Composite (<i>Complex</i> (Complete & Incomplete - Elliptical)& <i>Compound</i>)</p> <p>Simple Sentence</p> <p><u>Two member sentence:</u></p> <p>a)unextended patterns (The child laughed)</p> <p>b)patterns extended by obligatory elements (The caughed the ball)</p> <p>c)pattern extended by optional elements (The child laughed merrily)</p> <p><u>One-member sentence:</u></p> <p>a)Nominal sentences are those</p>	<p>2. Communicative types of sentence.</p> <p>Declarative Sentence forms the bulk of monological speech and the greater part of conversation. Can be positive or negative. Grammatically it is characterized by the direct order of words. It can be emphasized by auxiliary verbs <i>do, does, did</i>. (I do feel sorry for Roger.)</p> <p>Interrogative sentences</p> <p><u>General question</u> begins with a verb followed by the subject. It is characterized by the rising tone. (Does it hurt much?)</p> <p><u>Disjunctive question</u> is a short yes-no question added to a statement. This is usually done when you expect the person you are addressing to agree with you or confirm your statement. (It's quite warm, isn't it?)</p> <p><u>Alternative question</u>, or either-or question, implies a choice between two or more alternative answers. –with conjunction <i>or</i>. The yes-no</p>	<p>5. The subject. Ways of expressing the subject.</p> <p>The subject is a part of the sentence which denotes an agent, instrument, recipient and other participants in an action. The subject is usually the topic of the sentence – i.e. it refers to what is in the front of your mind, that first thing that you want to talk about.</p> <p><u>The subject is characterized by the following features:</u></p> <p>-occurs with all types of verbs</p> <p>-it can be pronoun, numeral, gerund, infinitive, but may also be a predicative complex or a nominal clause.</p> <p>-is reflected in disjunctive questions by a pronoun form. (The milk is sour, isn't it?)...</p> <p><u>Structurally the subject can be of four kinds:</u></p> <p>1.Simple- expressed by a single word-form. (The fog is thinning.)</p> <p>2.Phrasal – expressed by</p>	<p>6. Subjects "IT" and "THERE".</p> <p>"IT"</p> <p>The NOTIONAL subject it has two meanings:</p> <p>1.The personal it (ОН, ОНА) (We've got valuable information. It can explain everything.)</p> <p>2. The demonstrative it (это) (Who's that? – It's Jane.)</p> <p>The FORMAL it:</p> <p>1.The impersonal it (weather, time, distance, measurements, and in the sentences describing things in general) (It's bitterly cold)</p> <p>2.The introductory it introduces the notional subject expressed by infinitive, gerund, phrase, clause. (It's costing me a small fortune to send the children on the holiday.)</p> <p>3. The emphatic it- the structure <i>It was..</i> (It was Jane who bought a dinner.)</p> <p>"THERE"</p>

<p>in which the principal part is expressed by a noun or adjective. (Silence. English spring flowers.)</p> <p>b)verbal sentences are those in which the principal part is expressed by a non-finite form of the verb, either an infinitive or a gerund. (To think of that.)</p> <p><u>Elliptical sentences:</u></p> <p>An elliptical two-member sentence – is a sentence in which one ore more word-forms in the subject and the predicate positions are omitted. (Looks like a rain. You sure?)</p>	<p>answer is impossible. (Do you like your coffee white or black?)</p> <p><u>Suggestive question-</u> yes-no question. It has right word-order. We use it when we want to confirm something, to express surprise. (You’re working late tonight?)</p> <p><u>Pronominal question</u> – wh-question. It is opened with an interrogative pronoun or a pronominal adverb the function of which is to get more detailed information about thing. Falling tone. (Which is the best restaurant?)</p> <p><u>Rhetorical question</u> contains a statement disguised as a question. No answer is expected. Used in emotionally coloured monological speech. (Can anyone say what truth is?)</p> <p>Imperative question express commands and also request, invitation, persuasion.(Repeat the last word, will you?)</p> <p>Exclamatory sentence express ideas emphatically. (What a funny story told you!)</p>	<p>phrase. (Two and three is five.)</p> <p>3.Complex – expressed by a predicative complex:</p> <p>-a for-to-infinitive construction (It’s easy for you to talk so.)</p> <p>-a gerundial complex (Your preparing for the exam is insufficient.)</p> <p>4.Clausal – expressed by a subject clause. (What I need is a piece of good advice.)</p>	<p>Sentences with <i>there</i> express the existence or coming into existence of a person or non-person denoted by the notional subject.</p> <p>There + be + indefinite NP (There is a bear sitting in the corner)</p> <p>A few other verbs can be used after there. If we want to say that smth. seems to be the case or smth.seems to have happened you can use seem or appear. (There seems to be some mistakes.)</p> <p>In formal English can be used – exist, remain, arise, follow, come. (There comes a time when you have to make a choice.)</p>
<p>21. The predicate. Verb complementation. Intransitive verbs.</p> <p>The predicate is the verbal component of a sentence or clause which expresses a state, an action, or an event.</p> <p>Complements – words or phrases added to a verb to complete the predicate, without which sentences would be incomplete or have a different meaning. (All the men wore <i>dark suits</i>.)</p> <p><u>Intransitive verbs</u> denote actions and events which involve only one person or thing, the performer of the action.</p> <p>1.Pure intransitives (<i>appear, fade, rise, rain</i>) (It’s raining)</p> <p>Verbs of position such as <i>be, belong, hand, lie, live, remain,</i></p>	<p>21. Monotransitive verbs.</p> <p>The predicate is the verbal component of a sentence or clause which expresses a state, an action, or an event.</p> <p>Monotransitive verbs describe events which in addition to the subject involve someone or something else. (Children seek independence.)</p> <p>Here is a list of some verbs which are monotransitive: achieve, create, favour, maintain, rent, address, damage, get...</p> <p>Intrans. – trans. when a cognate object (He smiled a patient smile.)</p> <p>Some monotransitive verbs take direct object that can be followed by object complements – complex transitive verbs. (He keeps the</p>	<p>23. Verb complementation Ditransitive and copular verbs.</p> <p>The predicate is the verbal component of a sentence or clause which expresses a state, an action, or an event.</p> <p>Ditransitive verbs take two objects, a direct object and an indirect one. These verbs denote actions which involve someone in addition to the people or things that are the subject and object of the sentence. (<i>I gave John a book</i>.: <i>John</i> is indirect and <i>book</i> – direct). Ditransitive verbs can also take one object followed by a predicate complement (It reminds me of Italy.)</p> <p><u>The possible realizations of these two main complementation patterns can</u></p>	<p>10. Agreement of the predicate with the simple subject. Pronouns as subjects.</p> <p>Agreement between the subject and the predicate verb refers to the way the verb has a form appropriate to the number and person of the subject. So the first step is to identify the subject of the sentence.</p> <p>1.If a sentence has a simple subject, we should recall the grammatical characteristics of the word used as the subject. (The <u>gates were</u> closed.)</p> <p>2.If a sentence has a phrasal subject expressed by a word with some dependent words or phrases, the form of the verb is predetermined by the grammatical characteristics of the headword. (Many leading <u>members</u> of the opposition party <u>have tried</u> to justify the</p>

<p><i>sit, stand, stay</i> and the verbs of movement such as <i>come, crawl, flow, go, run, stroll, travel, walk</i> require a complement denoting place, direction or time. (He strolled towards the bar.)</p> <p>2. Verbs used both transitively and intransitively.</p> <p>a) when we are contrasting two actions (We gave, he took)</p> <p>-if you use a list of different verbs for emphasis or contrast (She had ceased to love as she once loved)</p> <p>-or if the referent of the object is clearly understood. (It's dangerous to drive if you have been drinking.)</p> <p>b) Some verbs can be intransitively, followed by the object without the origin performer being mentioned. (Suddenly the door opened.)</p> <p>Ergative verbs refer to food and cooking (bake, boil, cook, fry, roast, simmer) (The rise is cooking)</p>	<p>garden beautiful.)</p> <p>With some complex transitive verbs object complements are expressed by adjectives and adjective groups. <u>These are</u> * verbs of causing: The news left me speechless</p> <p>* verbs of opinion: I imagined him much older</p> <p>* verbs of declaring: They declared the bridge unsafe</p> <p>* verbs of appointing (such as appoint, christen, crown, designate, make, name and term) <i>The referee proclaimed him world champion</i></p> <p>There are four types of complex transitive verb complementation:</p> <p>1. with to-infinitive after mental process verbs such as believe, consider, understand, feel, imagine, know (<i>We believe John to be honest.</i>)</p> <p>2. with bare infinitive after verbs of perception: see, hear, feel, notice, smell, watch (She saw them enter the shop.)</p> <p>3. with Participle I after verbs of perception: see, hear, feel, and verbs of finding or leaving: catch, come across, discover, find (I can smell something burning.)</p> <p>4. with Participle II after causative verbs get and have; volitional verbs like, need, prefer, want; verbs of perception see, feel, hear, watch, and verbs of finding and leaving discover, find, leave (We'll have the computer repaired within a week.)</p>	<p><u>be summarized as follows:</u></p> <p>Indirect Object + Direct Object (He gave Esther a present.)</p> <p>Object + Predicate Complement (He wished me success.)</p> <p>NG (noun group)+ infinitive phrase (He told us to sit down.)</p> <p>Copular verbs take one complement and serve as a link to what the referent of the subject is or becomes. The complement of a copular verb is often called the subject complement and can be expressed by a noun phrase, or a prepositional phrase. The most common copular (link verb) is be. Other verbs used as copulas in English provide additional meaning to mere linking.</p> <p>They may be sensory (look, feel, smell, sound, taste); situational, or current (remain, keep, seem, appear) or refer to a process of becoming or changing (become, get, grow, turn, prove, come, turn out, end up) <i>The reason is simple.</i></p>	<p>decision.)</p> <p>3. In case the subject is expressed by a predicative complex, a complex subject, the verb is always singular. (For him to defend a woman is the matter of honour.)</p> <p>4. The subject may also be expressed by a subordinate clause, a clausal subject, then the verb tends to be singular in most cases. (Where you find him does not concern me.)</p> <p>Simple subject</p> <p>Some nouns are invariable both in form and in number meaning.</p> <p>1. Invariable singular nouns take a singular predicate. Here belong nouns denoting various fluids, solids, gases, particles, abstract notions, whole groups made of similar objects: cash, money, names of games, names of diseases.</p> <p>2. Invariable plural nouns take a plural verb. Here belong nouns of multitude: cattle, clergy, gentry, police; objects consisting of two parts: braces, glasses, pants, scissors, shorts; some proper nouns: the Hebrides, the Highlands, the Midlands. (The company's earnings have increased for the last five years)</p> <p>* Some nouns ending in -s have the same form for singular and plural meanings which can be understood from the context. - crossroads, headquarters, means, series, species, whereabouts, works, etc. (This crossroads is always very dangerous. The crossroads in the city centre are always busy).</p> <p>Pronoun Subject</p> <p>1. If the quantity is expressed by a universal pronoun (everybody, everyone, either, everything, each), negative pronoun (nobody, no one, neither), indefinite pronoun (someone, somebody, anybody, anything) or</p>
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			<p>pronominal phrases — the verb is singular. (Every one of the group is present.)</p> <p>2. The pronoun both as well as phrases with it is logically (and grammatically) plural. (Which of these is yours? — Both are mine.)</p> <p>3. The form of the verb in case of a subject expressed by the universal all or interrogative pronouns: who, what, which used as connectors, depends on what is named in the previous part of the sentence. (The girl who lives next door is my sister. The girls who live next door are my sisters.)</p>
<p>11. Agreement of the predicate with phrasal and homogeneous subjects.</p> <p>Agreement between the subject and the predicate verb refers to the way the verb has a form appropriate to the number and person of the subject. So the first step is to identify the subject of the sentence.</p> <p>Phrasal Subject.</p> <p>1. Subjects expressed by quotations, names or titles usually take a singular predicate verb. ('Fathers and Sons' is the most popular of Turgenyev's novels.)</p> <p>2. Numeral expressions of addition, subtraction, division as a rule take a singular predicate. (Two and four is six.)</p> <p>3. If a phrasal subject contains expressions of quantity the basic rule holds true — agreement with the head word. (Some of the children were bored.)</p> <p>4. With the expressions of time, money, weight, distance denoting measurements,</p>	<p>39. Word order. Emphasis. Inversion.</p> <p>The words in an English sentence are arranged in a certain order which is fixed for every type of sentence and is, therefore, meaningful. There exist two ways of arranging words — direct order and inverted order.</p> <p>Direct word order.</p> <p><i>Subject-Predicate-(Object)</i> (I promise to respect your wishes.)</p> <p>End-focus and end-weight</p> <p><i>End-focus:</i> the new or most important information should be placed in the end, where in speech nuclear stress normally falls. (Babies prefer sleeping on their back.)</p> <p><i>End-weight:</i> the more 'weighty' part(s) of a sentence should be placed towards the end. (It becomes hard for a child to develop a sense of identity.)</p> <p>Order and emphasis.</p> <p>The first element in a sentence or clause is called the Topic.</p>	<p>-31. The attribute. Ways of expressing. Types of attribute.</p> <p>Premodifying attributes are generally expressed by adjectives, nouns in the common and possessive case, pronouns, participles, gerunds, ordinal numerals and quotation nouns. (It's a good family film.)</p> <p><u>The usual order for the adjectives in a noun group is:</u> size, shape, age, colour, origin, material, part 1,2 , purpose or type.</p> <p>Postmodifying attributes are generally expressed by adjectives, cardinal numerals, participles, infinitives, participial and infinitive phrases and complexes, prepositional phrases and clauses. (...documents in his possession...).</p> <p><u>There are a few adjectives which are usually or always used after a noun:</u></p> <p>1. Some adjectives are used in fixed phrases, in several institutionalized expressions: <i>God Almighty, the President elect, the Prime Minister</i></p>	<p>24. The object. Ways of expressing. Types of object and complements.</p> <p><u>Objects:</u> direct(He wrote <u>the article</u>)</p> <p>indirect(I'll show <u>you</u> the garden);</p> <p>prepositional(You can rely <u>on Tom</u>)</p> <p><u>Complement:</u> subject(Bill is a <u>policeman</u>)</p> <p>object(I found the map <u>helpful</u>)</p> <p>predicate(The fare costs <u>\$150</u>.I wish you <u>success</u>)</p> <p>THE DIRECT OBJECT is the single prepositional object of a monotransitive verb (I wrote a poem) or one of the two objects of a ditransitive verb that has no prepositional paraphrase (They sent me a telegram). It can become subject in a passive clause (The poem was written. A telegram was sent to me.)</p> <p>THE INDIRECT OBJECT is one of two objects of a ditransitive verb that has a prepositional paraphrase (They sent me a</p>

<p>amounts, quantities or after per cent used without a noun headword — the predicate verb is singular. (Ten years is_ a long period of time.)</p> <p>5. When the subject contains the number one, a singular verb should be used. (One of the stolen cars was recovered. One in every five learns French.)</p> <p><u>Homogeneous subjects.</u></p> <p>1. When a subject has two or more items joined by and or both ... and the plural verb is used. (Jean and David are moving back to Australia.)</p> <p>2. When homogeneous subjects are joined by or, either ...or, neither ... nor, not only ... but also, the verb agrees with the last item. (Proximity)(Neither you nor I am right. Neither I nor you are right.)</p> <p>3. The proximity rule holds true for sentences with inversion, when the subject follows the predicate. The predicator verb agrees with the one which is closest to the verb. (There is a table and some chairs in the room. — There are_ some chairs and a table in the room.)</p> <p>4. Homogeneous subjects joined by as well as, as much as, rather than, more than are followed by the predicate verb which agrees with the item that comes first. (My sister as well as my parents is a teacher. My parents as well as my sister are teachers.)</p>	<p>Often it is the subject. Instead of the subject, you may make another element the topic by moving it to the front of the sentence (fronted topic). This shift called fronting and gives the element a kind of psychological prominence.</p> <p><u>Besides fronting there are other ways of giving prominence to this or that part of the sentence:</u></p> <p>1. cleft sentences (it-type). The cleft sentence construction with emphatic it is useful for putting focus (usually for contrast) on a particular part of a sentence expressed by a noun, a prepositional phrase, and an adverb of time or place, or even by a clause. (It was <u>from France</u> that she first heard the news)</p> <p>2. cleft sentences (wh-type). The wh-type is useful for putting focus on the verb, by using the substitute do. (What he's done spoil the whole thing.</p> <p>3. wh-clauses with demonstratives. It is a common type of sentence in English which is similar to wh-cleft sentences. (This is how you start the engine.)</p> <p>4. auxiliary do. You can emphasize a statement by putting do, does, or did in front of the base form of the verb. (I do feel sorry for Roger.)</p> <p><u>Inversion.</u></p> <p>1. grammatical (<u>in questions</u> Is he at home? <u>In conditional clauses introduced</u> <u>asyndetically</u> Had he gone to her aid he would only have got himself caught)</p> <p>2. communicative (to provide the final position in the sentence for the communicatively most important part) - in sentences with the introductory there.</p> <p>- in sentences beginning with adverbial modif.</p>	<p><i>designate</i></p> <p>2. The adjectives <i>broad, deep, high, long, old, tall, thick and wide</i> are used immediately after measurement nouns. (six feet tall)</p> <p>3. Some adjectives can be used before and after nouns, but a change in position involves a change in meaning. (<i>the present circumstance</i> (=now) <i>the people present</i> (=who are here)</p> <p>4. Adjectives come after <i>something, everything, anything, nothing, somebody, anywhere</i> and similar words. (<i>Have you read anything interesting today?</i>)</p>	<p>telegram. They sent a telegram to me). It become subject in a passive clause (I was sent a telegram). Indirect objects denoting recipient of the action directly involved in the process can be replaced by a to-phrase (We paid them the money. We paid the money to them.)</p> <p>Indirect objects denoting beneficiaries (for whose sake the action is carried out) correspond to a phrase with the preposition for (I'll get you some coffee. I'll get some coffee for you.)</p> <p>THE PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT is an object introduced by a preposition. The nominal element following the preposition can become subject in a passive clause (We agreed on the plan.)</p> <p>THE COGNATE OBJECT is a special type of obj. which is the only non-prepositional object of an otherwise intransitive verb and is always expressed by nouns derived from, or semantically related to, the root of the verb (The child <u>smiled the smile and laughed the laugh</u> of contentment.)</p> <p>THE SUBJECT COMPLEMENT is the obligatory constituent which follows a link verb (be, seem, feel, get, become, go, grow, turn, sound, smell, look, etc.) and cannot be made subject in a passive clause. The subject compl. denotes:</p> <p>1) the attribute of the subject (She is 22 years old. He is a very lucky man.)</p> <p>2) its identity (The Rolsinsons are our neighbours.)</p> <p>3) a circumstance (The exam is next Tuesday. He is in a doog mood.)</p> <p>THE OBJECT COMPLEMENT refers to the direct object and denotes:</p> <p>1) identity (They appointed him Manager.)</p> <p>2) attribute (We found the</p>
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	<p>- in sentences beginning with so or neither.</p> <p>3. emphatic - in sent. beginning the words having a negative or restrictive meaning (Never had he spoken with a more fiery eloquence.)</p> <p>- in sent. begin. with a predicative, adverbial of manner or direction. (Tall and graceful was jo.)y</p>		<p>secretary helpful.)</p> <p>3) circumstances (I like them on toast. Do you take me for a genius?)</p> <p>THE PREDICATE COMPLEMENT is the obligatory constituent of the clause which refers to the predicate and become the subject of the passive clause. Predicate compl. can follow:</p> <p>relation verbs,</p> <p>verbs of measure,</p> <p>verbs which denote a manner of movement, miscellaneous verbs like complain, wish.</p>
<p>- 26 33. The adverbial modifier. Ways of expressing. Types of attributes.</p> <p>(1)From the point of view of structure, the use of adverbials may be optional (non-obligatory) or obligatory</p> <p><u>OPTIONAL</u> provide additional information; they are part of the structure of the sentence, but they are not assential to the structure (<i>Sometimes the children played by the lake.</i>)</p> <p><u>OBLIGATORY</u> when the sentence structure demands one or when their absence changes the meaning of the verb. (<i>He behaved bravely</i>)</p> <p>(2)From point of view of their relation to the modified parts of the sentence, adverbials may be non-detached and detached</p> <p>DETACHED are more loosely related to the modified parts, they are never obligatory and separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. (He saw the boat, its decks deserted.)</p> <p>(3)From the point of view of their function, adv-s can be classified as conjuncts, disjuncts and adjuncts.</p> <p><u>Adjunct</u> provides additional information and is a part of the structure of the sentence (Gwendolen did her work <u>perfectly</u>.)</p>	<p>29. Predicative complexes which can be any part of the sentence.</p> <p><u>The For-to-Infinitive Constructions</u></p> <p>is a predicative constr. in which the nominal is introduced by the preposition FOR, while the predicate part is an infinitive with the particle TO. The construction functions as:</p> <p>1)Subject- it usually follows introductory IT and is very seldom placed before the predicate (<i>It was practically impossible for them to meet anybody</i>)</p> <p>2) Predicative- the usual link-verb is TO BE (<i>That is not for me to decide.</i>)</p> <p>3)Attribute- it modifies nouns or indefinite and universal pronouns (She gave orders for everyone to stop packing.)</p> <p>4)Object- the construction can be used as an indirect non-recipient object of certain verbs (to <i>ask, to watch</i>) and adjectives (<i>anxious, eager, impatient, sorry, willing</i>) (<i>I watched for him to appear through the bushes.</i>)</p> <p>5)Adverbial modifier:</p> <p>a)of consequence (The chance was too good for Jack to miss it.)</p>	<p>-35. Predicative complexes that function as objects only.</p> <p>They can be called Objective constructions.</p> <p>OBJ. CONSTR. WITH VERBALS</p> <p>The obj. with the Inf. Constr.</p> <p>It' usually used as a direct to verbs (<i>I did not want him to see me there</i>). However, it may also occur in the function of an indirect non-recipient object (<i>I was relying on him to put things right with father.</i>)</p> <p>The Use of the Objective with the Inf. Constr. as a Direct Object</p> <p>Verbs which may take the objective with the inf. constr. as a direct obj. are of two kinds:</p> <p>1)Those that require the inf. with the particle TO</p> <p>2)Those that require the bare inf</p> <p>1-a) Verbs of wish and intention (<i>to wish, to want, to desire, to choose, to prefer, should/would like, to intend, to mean</i>). (He would like <u>you to see him in his office.</u>)</p> <p>b) Verbs of attitude (<i>to like, to dislike, to love, to hate, cannot/could not bear</i>). (I can't bear <u>people to be unhappy or</u></p>	<p>28. Predicative complexes that function as adverbials only.</p> <p>Predicative complexes that function only as adverbial modifiers are usually called <u>absolute constructions</u> where 'absolute' means independent.</p> <p>The Absolute Nominative with Participle I Construction The absolute nominative with participle I construction is generally used as an adverbial of reason (<i>The weather being unusually mild at that time for the season of the year, there was no sleighing</i>) or of attendant circumstances (<i>With a yell, he sprang back, a sweat coming on his skin</i>), although sometimes it is an adverbial of time (<i>The car having stopped, the boys jumped out onto the grass</i>). Occasionally, especially with the verbs <u>to permit</u> or <u>to fail</u>, it is an adverbial of condition (<i>Circumstances permitting, they will be through with it by the end of May</i>).</p> <p>The Absolute Nominative with Participle II Construction</p> <p>Is usually an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances or of time.</p> <p>Attendant circumstances ("Bye," he said, and walked away)</p> <p>Time (<i>Dinner served, Mrs Marlow rang the bell</i>)</p>

<p>Conjunct is an adv. whose function is to form a logical link between what is said in one sentence and what is said in the next. Here belong: similarity, yet, therefore, then, next... (<u>Yet</u> Gwendolen always did her work.)</p> <p>Disjunct is an adv. coming at the beginning of the sentence and expressing the speaker's attitude towards the statement he is about to make. Here belong: Broadly speaking...; Undoubtedly...; Medically... (<u>Naturally</u>, he liked us very much.)</p> <p>(4) From the point of view of their semantic, adverbial adjuncts may be of several semantic classes which may be identified directly(absolutely) by their lexical meaning or indirectly(relatively).</p> <p>Semantic classes:</p> <p>1.of Place (He lives <u>far</u> from his parents)</p> <p>2.of Time (We owned an Alsatian dog <u>once</u>.)</p> <p>3.of Manner (<i>because of, due to, owing to, on account of, for the reason of, thanks to</i>) (Hooper danced <u>badly</u>, but <u>energetically</u>.)</p> <p>4.of Result (<i>too, enough, sufficiently, so...(as)</i>) (It is <u>too</u> cold <u>to go out</u>)</p> <p>5.Cause(Reason) (<i>because of, due to, owing to, on account of, for the reason of, thanks to</i>) (<u>Thanks to my parents</u> I got a decent education)</p> <p>6.of Purpose (<i>in order, so as, for</i>) (Jane has come <u>to help us</u>.)</p> <p>7.of Condition (<i>but for, except for, without</i> <i>if, unless</i>) (<u>Without faith</u> there can be no cure.)</p> <p>8.of Concession (<i>nevertheless, in spite of this/that, in spite of, despite of, for all, with all, though, if</i>) (<u>With all his faults</u>, I like him.)</p>	<p>b)of purpose (I rang for you to show the lady out.)</p> <p>The Gerundial Predicative Construction</p> <p>is a predicative constr. in which the nominal part is generally a noun/noun-pronoun in the possessive case or a possessive pronoun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case. The construction may be</p> <p>1)Subject- is used either with or without introductory IT (<u>Your doing nothing</u> won't help anybody.)</p> <p>2)Predicative- (The only way out will be <u>his taking the job</u>.)</p> <p>3)Adv.modifier- is always introduced by a prepositions:</p> <p>of time(<u>After his being away for some time</u> the crisis came.)</p> <p>of concession (<u>In spite of its being cold</u> the bushes swarmed with insects.)</p> <p>of attendant circumstances (The car slid away <u>without my having to say anything</u>.)</p> <p>4)Attribute- is generally used with the preposition OF, although other prepositions are possible (The prospect <u>of smog else getting a job</u> moved them to strong moral indignation.)</p> <p>5)Object- the construction may be either direct object to a verb or an indirect non-recipient object to a verb or adjective (She liked <u>his worrying about his wife</u>.)</p>	<p><u>upset</u>.)</p> <p>c) Verbs of mental activity (<i>to think, to suppose, to consider, to believe, to know, to feel, to trust, etc.</i>). (He believed <u>Jennie to be playing in the garden</u>) (I know <u>myself to be rather slow</u>)</p> <p>d) Verbs of declaring (<i>to declare, to report, to pronounce</i>). (Everybody pronounced <u>him to be a complete failure</u>.)</p> <p>e) Verbs of inducement (<i>to order, to command, to ask, to allow, etc.</i>) (She would not allow <u>the life of the child to be risked</u>.)</p> <p>2- The verbs of the second group belong to one semantic group only, namely that of sense perception (<i>to see, to hear, to feel, to observe, to notice</i>) (We saw <u>planes zoom into the air</u>.)</p> <p>The use of the Obj. with the Inf.Constr. as an Indirect Non-perfect Object.</p> <p>It may be used with a few verbs as their indirect non-recipient object. These verbs are <i>to wait (for), to rely (on), to listen (to), to look (for), to count (upon)</i>. All of them except the verb <i>to listen</i> take the infinitive with the particle <i>to</i>. With the verb <i>to listen</i> a bare infinitive is used (<i>Can I really count upon <u>him to undertake the job?</u></i>)</p> <p>The Objective with Participle 1 Construction</p> <p>It can be used with verbs of three semantic groups:</p> <p>1.Verbs of sense perception (the most important group) (<i>There we saw <u>the crocodiles swimming about</u></i>)</p> <p>2.Verbs of wish. (<i>Nobody wanted <u>him going there alone</u></i>)</p> <p>3.The causative verbs to have and to get (<i>He got <u>them running his errands every day</u></i>)</p> <p>The Objective with Participle II</p>	<p>The Absolute Nominative with the Infinitive Construction</p> <p>functions as an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances (There they remained, <i>some of them to be entirely forgotten</i>)</p> <p>The Absolute Nominative Constructions with Non-Verbals</p> <p>1.The absolute nominative with the adi.constr. may be an adverbial of attendant circumstance (She stood under the tree, <i>her head full of strange ideas</i>) or of reason (<i>Her heart full of despair, she could not say a word.</i>)</p> <p>2.The absolute nominative with the stative construction is usually an adverbial of reason (<i>The gallery door slightly ajar, I could hear the steps of the soldiers</i>) and manner (This time the fish attacked from below. It hurtled up under the woman, jaws agape)</p> <p>3. The absolute nominative with the adverb construction is usually an adverbial of time (<i>Tea over, she again summoned us to the fire</i>)</p> <p>4. The absolute nominative with a prepositional noun construction is usually either an adverbial of attendant circumstances (I waited, <i>every nerve upon the stretch</i>) or of time (<i>All in the room, she called in Molly</i>)</p> <p>Prepositional Absolute Construction</p> <p>begin with the preposition WITH or, sometimes WITHOUT. There are prepositional absolute constructions with participle I or II, with an infinitive, with an adjective, with an adverb, or with a prepositional noun. All function mainly as adverbials of attendant circumstances although sometimes they may be other adverbials. All of them can be transformed into clauses. I. The prepositional absolute construction with Part. I (<i>With his head aching</i>)</p>
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<p>9.of Exception (<i>but,except,save,but for,except for,save for,apart from,aside from,with the exclusion of</i>) (These men were quite civil <u>save during certain weeks</u> of autumn and winter.)</p> <p>10.of Comparison (<i>like, than, as, as if, as though</i>) (A mountain is higher <u>than</u> a <u>hill</u>.)</p> <p>11.Of Degree (The story is <u>extremely</u> long.)</p> <p>12.of Attendant Circumstances and Subsequent Events (We walked three miles <u>without meeting anyone</u>.)</p>		<p><u>Construction</u></p> <p>It can be attached to verbs of four semantic groups:</p> <p>1.Verbs of sense perception (I heard <u>my name echoed in the distance</u>)</p> <p>2. A few verbs of mental activity (<i>to think, to believe, to consider, to remember</i>) –(At first she thought <u>Johnny killed</u>)</p> <p>3. Verbs of wish (Nobody wanted <u>it done</u> in such a way)</p> <p>4. The causative verbs TO HAVE and TO GET. (How do you think the men would have <u>their wounds dressed</u>, get <u>themselves washed</u>, have <u>their beds made</u> if nobody worked on a Sunday?)</p> <p><u>OBJECTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS WITH NON-VERBALS</u></p> <p>two types can be distinguished:</p> <p>1. Objective constructions which can follow only some <u>verbs of mental activity and sense perception</u> (I thought <u>it a wonderful opportunity</u>)</p> <p>2. Objective constructions which follow certain causative verbs.(to have, to get)</p>	<p><i>from the slap of the bullet and the blood dripping over the ear, he went over to the Frenchman)</i></p> <p>II. The prepositional absolute construction with participle II (A Negro boy lay on the pavement, <i>with his throat cut</i>)</p> <p>III. The prepositional absolute construction with the infinitive (You'll lose the last minutes, <i>without someone to take care of you</i>)</p>
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<p>31. Complex sentences with nominal clauses.</p> <p>1)A subject clause functions as subject of the main clause which has no subject of its own. It can be introduced by <i>that, if, whether, because, the way, whether ... or; who, what, whatever; where, wherever, when, how, why</i> (What caused the accident was a mystery.)</p> <p>When a subject clause is in final position we use the introductory it. (<i>It makes me sick the way she's always complaining.</i>)</p> <p>2)A predicative / complement clause functions as predicative/subject complement to the link/copular verb within the main clause. It may be introduced by <i>that, whether, whether ...or, as, lest, the way, who, whoever, which, where, why</i>. (<i>I couldn't move my legs. It was as if they were stuck to the floor</i>)</p> <p>The predicative clause may follow the main clause in which the subject is expressed by the impersonal pronoun it. In this case the predicative clause describes the situation either directly or by means of comparison. (<i>It appears that I was wrong</i>)</p> <p>3)An object clause refers to verbs in different forms and functions, to adjectives, statives and occasionally to nouns. It may be introduced by <i>that, if, whether, whether..or, lest, who, whoever, what, which, where, how, why</i>. (<i>He left wondering what had really happened</i>)</p> <p>4.An appositive clause refers to a noun either with a very general meaning or requiring additional information. To these nouns belong <i>thing, reason, point, moral, comment, remark, idea, fact, feature etc.</i> the clause may be introduced by <i>that, if, whether, as if, as though, how, why</i>. It's not separated by a comma and</p>	<p>34. Complex sentences with adverbial clauses.</p> <p>1)An adverbial clause of place defines the place or the direction of the action expressed in the principal clause. It may be introduced by the conjunctions <i>where, whence, wherever, everywhere (that)</i>. (<i>Everywhere I went, people were angry or suspicious</i>)</p> <p>3)An adverbial clause of time characterizes the action expressed in the main clause from the temporal point of view. An adverbial clause of time may be introduced by conjunctions: <i>as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, till, until, after, before, since</i> and frasal conjunctions: <i>the time (that), the day (that), the moment, the instant, next time, every (each) time, directly, immediately, instantly, once</i>. (<i>He saw her <u>as he was getting off f the bus</u></i>)</p> <p>3)An adverbial clause of manner characterizes actions, states, qualities, circumstances. The most common conjunctions to introduce them are <i>as</i> and <i>the way, in a way, in the way</i>. (<i>I don't understand why he behaves as he does.</i>)</p> <p>4)An adverbial clause of comparison characterizes the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause by comparing it with some real or hypothetical circumstance or action.They may be introduced by the conjunctions <i>as, like, as if, as though, than, the</i> correlative conjunctions <i>as...as, so...as, as-as if</i>. (<i>She's got longer hair than I have</i>)</p> <p>5)An adverbial clause of condition contains some condition (either real or unreal) which makes the action in the main clause possible. It may be introduced by conjunctions: <i>if, unless, once, in case</i>. There are also several conjunctions with <i>that: provided (that), providing (that), suppose (that), supposing (that, seeing (that)</i>. (<i>If he told you that, he was</i></p>	<p>-30 39. The compound sentence. Semantic relations between coordinate clauses.</p> <p>A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank which form one syntactic whole in meaning and intonation. Such clauses are called coordinate, or conjoins.</p> <p>Coordination can be asyndetic (with no special connector): <i>Two is company, three is a crowd.</i> or syndetic — expressed by special coordinators. (<i>One beats the bush, and another catches the birds</i>)</p> <p>There are four types of coordination:</p> <p>COPULATIVE COORDINATION</p> <p>The clauses are simply linked together to express two or more related facts by means of the following coordinators: <i>and, (and) neither, neither ...nor [rare], nor, not only ...but (also), also, either, too, indeed, plus, etc</i> (A man is as old as he feels, and a woman is as old as she looks)</p> <p>Usage Notes</p> <p>1.Tony <u>didn't</u> turn up for the meeting, and Keith didn't either.</p> <p>2.The second clauses of compound sentences opening with <i>neither, nor, and neither, and nor, and so</i> always have inverted word order. (<i>I don't blame you, and <u>neither</u> do I doubt your honesty</i>)</p> <p>DISJUNCTIVE COORDINATION</p> <p>Compound sentences with disjunctive coordination express an alternative, which is achieved with the help of the following coordinators: <i>or, or else, either...or, otherwise</i>. (Either the pump is broken or the drainage is clogged.)</p> <p>ADVERSATIVE COORDINATION</p> <p>In compound sentences with adversative coordination the statements expressed by the</p>	<p>32. Complex sentences with attributive clauses.</p> <p>Attributive clauses function as modifiers to a word of nominal character, which is generally called the antecedent. An attributive clause may be introduced by connectives — <i>relative pronouns (who, whose, whom, what, which, that, as)</i> or relative adverbs (<i>when, where, whence, wherein</i>). The choice of the relative word depends on the antecedent:</p> <p>a)If the antecedent denotes a living being, the relative pronoun, <i>whom, whose, or that</i> is used. (<i>Do you know the people who/that live here?</i>)</p> <p>b) If the antecedent denotes a thing or notion, the relative word <i>which, whose, or that</i> is used. (<i>They are producing a new computer, whose low cost will make it very attractive to students</i>)</p> <p>c) If the antecedent is expressed by <i>everything, something, anything or nothing</i> the relative pronoun <i>that</i> is generally used. (<i>I've forgotten everything (that) I learnt at school</i>)</p> <p>d)If the antecedent is modified by the demonstrative pronoun such ,the relative pronoun as is used. (<i>Such accommodation <u>as she could find</u> was expensive</i>)</p> <p>e)Attributive clauses Joined by the relative adverbs <i>when, where, whence</i> refer to antecedents denoting time or place. (<i>This is the building where I work</i>)</p> <p>TYPES OF ATTRIBUTIVE CLAUSES</p> <p>Restrictive/defining clauses identify more closely what the noun refers to. If you say <i>I met the woman-</i> not right. <i>I met the woman who/ that lives next door</i>. Restrictive relative clauses can be used after indefinite pronouns such as <i>someone, anyone, everything</i>. (<i>This is something I'm very</i></p>
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<p>cannot be joined asyndetically. (The reason why she didn't get the job was that her English was not very good)</p>	<p>lying)</p> <p>6)An adverbial clause of concession contrasts with the content of the main clause: the action or fact described in the main clause is carried out or takes place despite the action or state expressed in the subordinate clause. This type of clause is introduced by conjunctions: <i>although, though, if</i>; conjunctive pronouns or adverbs: <i>whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever</i>; or composite conjunctions: <i>no matter how, no matter what, for all that, despite that, in spite of the fact, despite the fact</i> (I had to accept the fact, improbable though/as it was)</p> <p>7)An adverbial clause of purpose expresses the purpose of the action which is stated in the principal clause. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by the conjunctions <i>that, so that, so, lest, in order that, for fear that</i>. (Bring it closer so (that) I can see it better)</p> <p>8)An adverbial clause of cause expresses the reason, cause, or motivation of the action expressed in the main clause or of its content as a whole. Causative clauses may be introduced by the conjunctions <i>as, because, since, so, that, lest, seeing (that), considering'</i>, or by the composite conjunctions <i>for the reason that, in view of the fact that, inasmuch as, insofar as</i>. (As she has no car, she can't get there easily)</p> <p>9)An adverbial clause of result denotes some consequences or result of the action expressed in the main clause. It may be introduced by the conjunctions <i>so that</i> or <i>that</i>. Result clauses always come after the main clause. (We turned the radio up, so that everyone heard the announcement)</p>	<p>clauses are contrasted in meaning. This is achieved with the help of the following coordinators: <i>but, however, nevertheless, nonetheless [formal], still, and/but, yet, whereas, while, whilst [formal, old-fashioned], only [informal]</i>. (Knowledge makes one laugh, but wealth makes one dance)</p> <p>CAUSATIVE-CONSECUTIVE COORDINATION</p> <p>Compound sentences with causative-consecutive coordination express the idea of cause and consequence. This is done with the help of the following coordinators: <i>for, hence [formal], consequently, then, therefore, thus [formal], accordingly, so [informal]</i>. (God help the poor, for the rich can help themselves)</p>	<p>proud of.)</p> <p>Non-defining relative clauses give further information which is not needed to identify the person, thing or group you are talking about. If you say <i>I saw June Fowler</i>, it is clear, but else: <i>I saw June Fowler, who was staying at the hotel opposite</i></p>
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