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Грамматика английского языка

МОРФОЛОГИЯ. СИНТАКСИС.

An English Grammar

Morphology. Syntax.

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ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Морфология. Синтаксис

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Авторы уделяют особое внимание тем грамматическим явлениям, которые не имеют аналогов в русском языке.

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ГРАММАТИКА АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Морфология. Синтаксис

Учебное пособие

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Настоящее пособие дает достаточно полное и систематическое описание строя современного английского языка, подробно излагая разделы грамматики, предусмотренные Программой Министерства просвещения СССР для студентов I-III курсов факультетов и отделений английского языка педагогических институтов. Задача пособия состоит в том, чтобы дать студентам практическое знание грамматического строя английского языка, необходимое для владения языком.

Основной материал учебника излагается с позиций современной английской литературной грамматической нормы, однако фиксируются и американские варианты, а также коллоквиализмы и архаические формы, используемые в поэзии.

Каждой новой теме предпосылаются краткие сведения, дающие общую характеристику описываемого явления.

Пройденный материал рекомендуется закреплять сериями упражнений, среди которых значительное место должны занимать упражнения коммуникативного типа.

Для удобства пользования весь материал учебника разделен на параграфы, имеющие сквозную нумерацию.

Основной иллюстративный материал почерпнут из англо-американской литературы последних десятилетий.

Пособие было апробировано в течение нескольких лет на английском отделении факультета иностранных языков РГПУ им. А. И. Герцена.

Авторы

INTRODUCTION

The grammatical system of English, like that of any other language, possesses its own peculiar features.

The English language has comparatively few grammatical inflections. They are the plural and the Genitive case endings of some nouns, the comparative degree endings of some adjectives and adverbs; personal inflections of verbs are confined to the third person singular and the opposition of the forms *was - were*. What is most characteristic of these inflections in comparison with Russian is that they are more unified. Thus the plural ending *-s* in nouns is used with the majority of count nouns. The few exceptions (such as *tooth - teeth, goose - geese, child - children, ox - oxen*) are regarded as obsolete forms.

In the sphere of the verb, however, many complications arise, as there is no such regularity among the past tense and participle II forms. Some of them are formed with the inflection *-ed* (*help - helped – helped*), others by means of root vowel change (*bring - brought - brought, come - came - come*). The latter are considered as irregular verbs.

Alongside synthetic forms, the verb has an elaborate system of analytical forms (most of the tense, aspect and perfect forms, the passive voice forms, most of the subjunctive mood forms). The analytical forms, include an auxiliary verb, as the bearer of the grammatical meaning, and a notional part: *has gone, was sent, would like, to be posted, being done, having been done,* etc.

Many words are not inflected at all: most adjectives and adverbs, modal words, statives, non-count nouns, conjunctions, prepositions, particles and interjections. Moreover, most words are devoid of any word-forming (derivational) morphemes which would show that they belong to a certain class. This lack of morphological distinctions between the classes accounts for the fact that a great number of words (both notional and functional words) may easily pass from one class to another, their status being determined mainly syntactically, by their function in the sentence. The prevailing role of syntax over morphology is also revealed in the fact that words, phrases and clauses may be used in the same functions.

The order of elements in the English sentence is fixed to a greater degree than in inflected languages (as the Russian language). The order *subject - predicate - object* is most characteristic of statements, and any modification of it is always justified by either stylistic or communicative considerations. Attributes may precede or follow head-word, the first pattern being more usual. The most mobile element in the sentence is the adverbial, but that can be explained by its reference to different parts of the sentence.

A most peculiar feature of English is a special set of words employed as structural substitutes for a certain part of speech: noun substitutes (one, that), the verb substitute (do), the adverbs and adjective substitute (so).

MORPHOLOGY

PARTS OF SPEECH

§ 1. All the words of the English language are grouped into different types of classes. This classification is based on three main principles:

1) their grammatical meaning;
2) their form and
3) their syntactical characteristics.

By the first we understand the meaning common to all the words of the class, such as thingness for the noun or either process or state for the verb.

By the second we mean the morphological characteristics of the class meant, such as the number of the noun or the voice of the verb.

By the third - the combinability and the syntactical functions of a type of word.

We distinguish between notional and functional parts of speech: the former denoting extralinguistic

phenomena such as things, actions, qualities, emotions and the latter - relations and connections between notional words or sentences. Thus there are 9 notional parts of speech and 3 functional ones.

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The notional parts
of speech are:

the noun
the adjective
the stative
the pronoun
the numeral
the verb
the adverb
the modal words
the interjection

The functional parts
of speech are:

the preposition
the conjunction
the particle

</div>

THE VERB

§ 2. Most *verbs* denote action or state. However, there are some verbs which have other meanings. They are **modal verbs, causative verbs,** some **impersonal verbs, relational** and **link-verbs**. They present a system of finite and non-finite forms, except for modal verbs, which have no non-finite forms.

The verb in its finite forms possesses the morphological categories of person, number, tense, aspect, perfect, voice and mood. Its syntactical function is that of the predicate.

The non-finite forms (or verbals) are four in number, they are: the infinitive, the gerund, participle I and participle II.

Non-finite verb forms possess the verbal categories of perfect, voice and to a certain extent aspect. Owing to the richness of its morphological categories, the flexibility of its syntactical functioning and wide combinability, the verb is of the greatest importance in the structure of the sentence.

The morphological categories of the verb are interrelated, that is every verb form expresses all these categories simultaneously.

Formation of verb categories

§ 3. English morphological categories are formed in two ways, synthetically and analytically.

Synthetic or simple forms are those the formal elements of which are to be found within one word from which they are inseparable. These are the present and the past indefinite affirmative (*sing, sings, sang*); the non-perfect common aspect forms of the infinitive, participle I, the gerund, participle II (*sing, singing, sung*); the imperative mood (*sing!*).

Analytical or compound verb forms consist of at least two verbal elements, an auxiliary verb and a notional verb; the latter is presented by participle I, participle II, or the infinitive.

An auxiliary verb is devoid of its lexical meaning, its role is purely grammatical. It may be finite or non-finite, thus showing whether the whole verb form is finite or non-finite as in:

Jane *is singing*.
Someone seems *to be singing* in the next room.

The auxiliary verbs in English are not numerous, they are seven: *to do, to be, to have, shall, will, should, would.*

The notional verb of a compound verb form is always non-finite, it carries the lexical meaning of the whole verb form.

The analytical verb forms are the forms of the continuous aspect, the perfect forms, the passive forms, the future forms, the future in the past forms, some forms of the subjunctive mood, the interrogative,

negative and emphatic forms of the present and past indefinite.

The meaning of the analytical form as a whole is the result of the complete fusion of the auxiliary and the non-finite form.

Morphological composition

§ 4. According to their morphological composition verbs can be divided into **simple, derivative, compound** and **phrasal.**

Simple verbs consist of only one root morpheme: *to ask, to build, to come.*

Derivative verbs are composed of one root morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes). The main verbforming suffixes are **-ize, -fy, -en, -ate**, as in: *to criticize, to justify, to blacken, to enumerate.*

Compound verbs consist of at least two stems: *to overgrow, to undertake.*

Phrasal verbs consist of a verbal stem and an adverbial particle, which is sometimes referred to as postposition. The adverbial meaning is evident in phrasal verbs of the type *to come in, to look out*, whereas it is quite lost in the verbs *to give up, to give in, to bring up.*

Basic verb forms

§ 5. Among the synthetic verb forms there are those which are used independently and those which are used to build other verb forms. They are four in number:

the infinitive	-	*work, rise;*
the past indefinite	-	*worked, rose;*
participle II	-	*worked, risen;*
participle I	-	*working, rising.*

The infinitive stem and participles I and II are employed to build other verbal forms.

The past indefinite is the only basic form that is not used to build other forms.

Regular and irregular verbs

§ 6. Owing to the historical development of the verb system the English verbs fall into two groups: **regular** and **irregular** verbs.

The regular verbs, which go back to the Germanic weak verbs, constitute the largest group. The past indefinite and participle II of these verbs are formed by means of the dental suffix **-ed** added to the stem of the verb. This is the productive pattern according to which all new verbs form their past indefinite and participle II.

The irregular verbs form their past indefinite and participle II according to some fixed traditional patterns going back partly to the Germanic strong verbs, partly to the weak verbs, which underwent some changes in the process of history.

The irregular verbs are about 250 in number. They can be arranged according to sound changes.

The list of irregular verbs arranged according to sound changes

Infinitive	Past Indefinite	Participle II	Translation
1	2	3	4
[ɪ]	[æ]	[ʌ]	

begin [bɪgɪn]	began [bɪ'gæn]	begun [bɪ'gʌn]	начинать
drink [dnɪŋk]	drank [dræŋk]	drunk [drʌŋk]	пить
ring [rɪŋ]	rang [ræŋ]	rung [rʌŋ]	звонить
shrink [∫rɪnk]	shrank [sræŋk]	shrunk [∫rʌŋk]	сокращать(ся)
sing [sɪŋ]	sang [sæŋ]	sung [sʌŋ]	петь
sink [sɪŋk]	sank [sæŋk]	sunk [sʌŋk]	тонуть
spring [sprɪŋ]	sprang [spræŋ]	sprung [sprʌŋ]	прыгать
stink [stɪŋk]	stank [stæŋk]	stunk [stʌŋk]	вонять
swim [swɪm]	swam [swæm]	swum [swʌm]	плавать
[ɪ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	
dig [dɪg]	dug [dʌg]	dug [dʌg]	копать
fling [flɪn]	flung [flʌŋ]	flung [flʌŋ]	кидать(ся)
spin [spɪn]	spun [spʌn]	spun [spʌn]	прясть
stick [stɪk]	stuck [stʌk]	stuck [stʌk]	втыкать
sting [stɪŋ]	stung [stʌŋ]	stung [stʌŋ]	жалить
swing [swɪŋ]	swung [swʌŋ]	swung [swʌŋ]	качать(ся)
win [wɪn]	won [wʌn]	won [wʌn]	побеждать
wring [rɪŋ]	wrung [rʌŋ]	wrung [rʌŋ]	скручивать
[ɪ]	[æ]	[æ]	
sit [sɪt]	sat [sæt]	sat [sæt]	сидеть
spit [spɪt]	spat [spæt]	spat [spæt]	плеватъ(ся)
[i:]	[e]	[e]	

bleed [bl:d]	bled [bled]	bled [bled]	кровоточить
breed [bri:d]	bred [bred]	bred [bred]	выводить, разводить (*животных*)
feed [fi:d]	fed [fed]	fed [fed]	кормить
lead [li:d]	led [led]	led [led]	вести
meet [mi:t]	met [met]	met [met]	встречать(ся)
read [ri:d]	read [red]	read [red]	читать
speed [spi:d]	sped [sped]	sped [sped]	спешить
[e] get [get]	[ɔ] got [gɔt]	[ɔ] got [gɔt]	получать
[æ] hang [hæŋ]	[ʌ] 1) hung [hʌŋ] 2) hanged [hæŋd]	[ʌ] hung [hʌŋ] hanged [hæŋd]	вешать вешать (*казнить*)
[aɪ] bind [baɪnd] find [faɪnd] grind [graɪnd] wind [waɪnd]	[au] bound [baund] found [faund] ground [graund] wound [waund]	[au] bound [baund] found [faund] ground [graund] wound [waund]	связывать находить молоть виться
[aɪ] light [laɪt] slide [slaɪd]	[ɪ] lit [lɪt] slid [slɪd]	[ɪ] lit [lɪt] slid [slɪd]	светить, зажигать скользить
[aɪ] shine [ʃaɪn]	[ɔ] shone [ʃɔ n]	[ɔ] shone [ʃɔn]	светить, сиять
[aɪ] fight [faɪt]	[ɔ:] fought [fɔ:t]	[ɔ :] fought [fɔ:t]	бороться
[aɪ] strike [straɪk]	[ʌ] struck [strʌk]	[ʌ] struck [strʌk]	ударять(ся)
[ou] hold [hould]	[e] held [held]	[e] held [held]	держать

[u:] shoot [ʃu:t]	[ɔ] shot[ʃɔt]	[ɔ] shot [ʃɔt]	стрелять
[i:] creep [kri:p] keep [ki:p] leap [li:p]	[e] crept [krept] kept [kept] leapt ⎤ [lept] leaped⎦	[e] crept [krept] kept [kept] leapt ⎤ [lept] leaped⎦	ползать держать прыгать
[i:] sweep [swi:p] sleep [sli:p] weep [wi:p]	[e] swept [swept] slept [slept] wept [wept]	[e] swept [swept] slept [slept] wept [wept]	мести, подметать спать плакать, рыдать
[e] sell [sel] tell [tel]	[ou] sold [sould] told [tould]	[ou] sold [sould] told [tould]	продавать говорить
[i:] flee [fli:]	[e] fled [fled]	[e] fled [fled]	бежать, спасаться бегством
[ɪə] hear [hɪə]	[ə:] heard [hə:d]	[ə:] heard [hə:d]	слышать
[eɪ] say [seɪ]	[e] said [sed]	[e] said [sed]	говорить, сказать
[i:] deal [di:l] dream [dri:m] feel [fi:l] kneel [ni:l] lean [li:n] mean [mi:n]	[e] dealt [delt] dreamt ⎤ [dremt] dreamed⎦ felt [felt] knelt [nelt] leant [lent] meant [ment]	[e] dealt [delt] dreamt ⎤ [dremt] dreamed⎦ felt [felt] knelt [nelt] leant [lent] meant [ment]	раздавать, распределять видеть сны; мечтать чувствовать преклонять колени наклоняться значить
[aɪ] buy [baɪ]	[ɔ:] bought [bɔ:t]	[ɔ:] bought [bɔ:t]	покупать
[i:] leave [li:v]	[e] left [left]	[e] left [left]	покидать
[u:] lose [lu:z]	[ɔ] lost [lɔst]	[ɔ] lost [lɔst]	терять

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[aɪ] drive [draɪv]	[ou] drove [drouv]	[ɪ] driven ['drɪvn]	вести, ехать *(в экипаже, автомобиле и т. д.)* ехать верхом
ride [raɪd]	rode [roud]	ridden ['rɪdn]	
rise [raɪz]	rose [rouz]	risen ['rɪzn]	подниматься, вставать
write [raɪt]	wrote [rout]	written ['rɪtn]	писать
[aɪ] fly [flaɪ]	[u:] flew [flu:]	[ou] flown [floun]	летать
[i:] freeze [fri:z] speak [spi:k] steal [sti:l] weave [wi:v]	[ou] froze [frouz] spoke [spouk] stole [stoul] wove [wouv]	[ou] frozen ['frouzn] spoken [spoukən] stolen ['stoulən] woven ['wouvən]	морозить разговаривать красть ткать
[eɪ] break [breɪk]	[ou] broke [brouk]	[ou] broken ['broukən]	ломать
[e] forget [fə'get]	[ɔ] forgot [fə'gɔt]	[ɔ] forgotten [fə'gɔtən]	забывать
[ɛə] swear [swɛə]	[ɔ :] swore [sw ɔ:]	[ɔ:] sworn [sw ɔ:n]	клясться рвать
tear [t ɛə]	tore [tɔ :]	torn [tɔ :n]	
[aɪ] lie [laɪ]	[eɪ] lay [leɪ]	[eɪ] lain [leɪn]	лежать
[aɪ] bite [baɪt]	[ɪ] bit [bɪt]	[ɪ] bitten ['bɪtn]	кусать(ся) прятать(ся)
hide [haɪd]	hid [hɪd]	hidden ['hɪdn]	
[u:] choose [tʃu:z]	[ou] chose [tʃouz]	[ou] chosen ['tʃouzən]	выбирать
[i:] see [si:]	[ɔ:] saw [sɔ:]	[i:] seen [si:n]	видеть
[i:] eat [i:t]	[e] ate [et]	[i:] eaten ['i:tn]	есть
[ɪ] forbid [fe'bɪd]	[eɪ] forbade [fo'beɪd]	[ɪ] forbidden [fə'bidən]	запрещать забывать давать
forgive [fə'gɪv]	forgave [fə'geɪv]	forgiven [fə'gɪvn]	
give [gɪv]	gave [geɪv]	given ['gɪvn]	

[eɪ] shake [ʃeɪk] take [teik]	[u] shook [ʃuk] took [tuk]	[eɪ] shaken ['ʃeɪkn] taken ['teɪkn]	трясти брать
[ɔ:] fall [fɔ:l]	[e] fell [fel]	[ɔ:] fallen [fɔ:lən]	падать
[ɔ:] draw [drɔ:]	[u:l drew [dru:]	[ɔ:] drawn [drɔ:n]	рисовать
[ou] blow [blou] grow [grou] know [nou] throw [θrou]	[u:] blew [blu:] grew [gru:] knew [nju:] threw [θru:]	[ou] blown [bloun] grown [groun] known [noun] thrown [θroun]	дуть расти знать бросать
[e] swell [swel]	[e] swelled [sweld]	[ou] swollen ['swoulən]	надувать(ся)
[eɪ] make [meɪk]	[eɪ] made [meɪd]	[eɪ] made [meɪd]	делать
[ɪ] bring [brɪŋ] think [θiŋk]	[ɔ:] brought [brɔ:t] thought [θɔ:t]	[ɔ:] brought [brɔ:t] thought [θɔ:t]	нести думать
[i:] teach [ti:tʃ]	[ɔ:] taught [tɔ:t]	[ɔ:] taught [tɔ:t]	учить
[æ] catch [kætʃ]	[ɔ:] caught [kɔ:t]	[ɔ:] caught [kɔ:t]	хватать
[æ] stand [stænd] understand [ʌnde'stænd]	[u] stood [stud] understood [ʌndə'stud]	[u] stood [stud] understood [ʌndə'stud]	стоять понимать
[d] build [bɪld] lend [lend] mend [mend] spend [spend] send [send]	[t] built [bɪlt] lent [lent] ment [ment] spent [spent] sent [sent]	[t] built [bɪlt] lent [lent] ment [ment] spent [spent] sent [sent]	строить одалживать, сдавать в аренду чинить тратить, расходовать посылать
bet [bet] burst [bə:st] cost [kɔst] cut [kʌt]	bet [bet] burst [bə:st] cost [kɔst] cut [kʌt]	bet [bet] burst [bə:st] cost [kɔst] cut [kʌt]	держать пари лопаться; взрываться (о снаряде) стоить, обходиться резать

hit [hɪt]	hit [hɪt]	hit [hɪt]	ударять
hurt [hə:t]	hurt [hə:t]	hurt [hə:t]	причинять боль
let [let]	let [let]	let [let]	позволять, разрешать
put [put]	put [put]	put [put]	класть, положить
shut [ʃʌt]	shut [ʃʌt]	shut [ʃʌt]	закрывать(ся)
split [splɪt]	split [splɪt]	split [splɪt]	раскладывать(ся)
spread [spred]	spread [spred]	spread [spred]	развертываться
upset [ʌp'set]	upset [ʌp'set]	upset [ʌp'set]	опрокидывать (ся) расстраивать, нарушать *(порядок)*

Pronunciation rules of the suffix –*ed*

The suffix **-ed** is pronounced in three ways:

1) **[id]** when the verb stem ends in the dental consonants [d] or [t]:
   skate - skated   decide – decided
   chat - chatted   end   - ended

2) **[d]** when the stem ends in any voiced sound except [d]:
   live – lived   stay   - stayed
   travel - travelled   change – changed

3) **[t]** when the stem ends in any voiceless sound except [t]:
   talk - talked   wish – wished
   stop - stopped   place – placed

Spelling rules of the verb forms with the suffix –*ed*

1) The letter **-d** is added to stems ending in **-e**:
   skate - skated   free – freed

2) In all the other cases the letters **-ed** are added:
   stay - stayed   talk – talked

The final consonant letter is doubled if it is single and follows a short vowel in a stressed syllable:
   nod - nodded   permit - permitted
   stop- stopped   refer - referred
   stir - stirred   compel- compelled

The final **- l** is doubled even in an unstressed syllable (British English):
   travel - travelled   cancel – cancelled

In some words the final **-p** is doubled in the same position:
   kidnap - kidnapped   worship – worshipped
   handicap – handicapped

The final **-y** is changed to **-i** if it is preceded by a consonant:

cry – cried   reply – replied

Formation of participle I

§ 7. Participle I of both regular and irregular verbs is composed by adding the suffix **-ing** to the stem of the verb. In writing the following rules of spelling are observed:

1) if the stem ends in a mute **-e**, the **-e** is dropped before adding **-ing**:

skate - skating

2) if the stem ends in a single consonant letter preceded by a short vowel of a stressed syllable, the consonant letter is doubled:

stop - stopping	permit – permitting
nod - nodding	refer - referring
stir – stirring	compel – compelling

3) if the stem ends in **-l** after a short vowel of an unstressed syllable, the **-l** is doubled (in British English):

travel – travelling   cancel – cancelling

The same refers to some words ending in **-p**:

kidnap - kidnapping	worship – worshipping
handicap- handicapping	

4) verbs ending in **-ie** drop the final **-e** and change **i** into **y** before taking the suffix -**ing**:

lie – lying   die – dying

Note:

The same rules apply to the formation of the gerund.

Semantic classifications of the verb

§ 8. Semantic classifications of the verb may be undertaken from different standpoints.
Grammatically important is the devision of verbs into the following classes:
Actional verbs, which denote a c t i o n s   p r o p e r (*do, make, go, read,* etc.) and **statal verbs**, which denote s t a t e (*be, exist, lie, sit, know,* etc.) or r e l a t i o n s (*fit, belong, have, match, cost,* etc.). The difference in their categorical meaning affects their morphological paradigm: s t a t a l   and r e l a t i o n a l   v e r b s have no passive voice (though some have forms coinciding with the passive voice as in *The curtains and the carpet were matched*). A l s o   s t a t a l and r e l a t i o n a l   v e r b s generally are not used in the continuous and perfect continuous tenses. Their occasional use in these tenses is always exceptional and results in the change of meaning.
From the syntactic standpoint verbs may be subdivided into **transivite** (переходные) and **intransitive** (непереходные) ones.
Without the object the meaning of the transitive verb is incomplete or entirely different. Transitive verbs may be followed:

a) by one direct object (**monotransitive verbs**);
Jane is helping **her sister**.

b) by a direct and an indirect objects (**ditransitive verbs**);
Jane gave **her sister an apple**.

c) by a prepositional object (**prepositional transitive verbs**):
Jane looks **after her sister**.

Intransitive verbs do not require any object for the completion of their meaning:

The sun is rising.

There are many verbs in English that can function as both transitive and intransitive.

Tom is writing a letter. (transitive)
Tom writes clearly. (intransitive)
Who has broken the cup? (transitive)
Glass breaks easily. (intransitive)
Jane stood near the piano. (intransitive)
Jane stood the vase on the piano. (transitive)

The division of verbs into **terminative** and **non-terminative** depends on the aspectual characteristic in the lexical meaning of the verb which influences the use of aspect forms.

T e r m i n a t i v e   v e r b s (предельные глаголы) besides their specific meaning contain the idea that the action must be fulfilled and come to an end, reaching some point where it has logically to stop. These are such verbs *as sit down, come, fall, stop, begin, open, close, shut, die, bring, find,* etc.

N o n - t e r m i n a t i v e , or d u r a t i v e   v e r b s (непредельные глаголы) imply that actions or states expressed by these verbs may go on indefinitely without reaching any logically necessary final point. These are such verbs as *carry, run, walk, sleep, stand, sit, live, know, suppose, talk, speak,* etc.

The end, which is simply an interruption of these actions, may be shown only by means of some adverbial modifier:

He slept till nine in the morning.

The last subclass comprises verbs that can function as both t e r m i n a t i v e   and n o n - t e r m i n a t i v e (**verbs of double aspectual meaning**). The difference is clear from the context:

Can you see well? (non-terminative)
I see nothing there. (terminative)

The finite forms of the verb

§ 9. The category of person expresses the relation of the action and its doer to the speaker, showing whether the action is performed by the speaker (the 1st person), someone addressed by the speaker (the 2nd person) or someone/something other than the speaker or the person addressed (the 3rd person).

The category of number shows whether the action is performed by one or more than one persons or non-persons.

For the present indefinite tense* of the verb *to be* there are three contrasting forms: the 1st person singular, the 3rd person singular and the form for all persons plural: *(I) am - (he) is - (we, you, they) are.*

* The other term used for indefinite tenses is "simple tenses". Accordingly there are *the simple present, "the simple past", "the simple future".*

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In the past indefinite tense it is only the verb *to be* that has one of these categories - the category of number, formed by the opposition of the singular and the plural forms: *(I, he) was - (we, you, they) were.* All the other verbs have the same form for all the persons, both singular and plural.

In the future and future in the past tenses there are two opposing forms: the 1st person singular and plural and the other persons: *(I, we) shall go - (he, you, they) will go; (I, we) should come - (he, you, they) would come.*

In colloquial style, however, no person distinctions are found either in the future or in the future in the past tenses. The only marker for the future tenses is **'ll** used with all persons, both singular and plural: *I'll do it; He'll do it; We'll do it,* etc. The marker for the future in the past tenses is **'d**, also used with all persons and numbers: *I said I'd come; He said he'd come; We said we'd come,* etc. Historically **'ll** is the shortened form of *will*, **'d** is the shortened form of *would.*

The categories of person and number, with the same restrictions, as those mentioned above, are naturally found in all analytical forms containing the present indefinite tense of the auxiliaries *to be* and *to have*, or the past indefinite tense of the auxiliary *to be*: *(I) **am** reading - (he) **is** reading - (we, you, they) **are** reading; (I) **am** told - (he) **is** told - (we, you, they) **are** told; (he) **has** come - (I, we, you, they) **have** come; (he) **has** been told - (I, we, you, they) **have** been told; (he) **has** been reading - (I, we, you, they) **have** been reading.*

A more regular way of expressing the categories of person and number is the use of personal pronouns. They are indispensable when the finite verb forms in the indicative as well as the subjunctive moods have no markers of person or number distinctions.

I stepped aside and they moved away.
They had been walking along, side by side, and she had been talking very earnestly.
If *you* were his own son, you could have all this.
If *she* were not a housemaid, she might not feel it so keenly.

The verb is always in the 3rd person singular if the subject of the predicate verb is expressed by a negative or indefinite pronoun, by an infinitive, a gerund or a clause:

Nothing *has happened.* Somebody *has come.*
To see him at last *was* a real pleasure. To shut that lid *seems* an easy task.
Seeing *is* believing. Visiting their house again *seems* out of the question.
What she has told me *frightens* me*.

* For further details see § on Agreement of the Subject and Predicate.

The category of tense

§ 10. The category of tense in English (as well as in Russian) expresses the relationship between the time of the action and the time of speaking.

The time of speaking is designated as present time and is the starting point for the whole scale of time measuring. The time that follows the time of speaking is designated as future time; the time that precedes the time of speaking is designated as past time. Accordingly there are three tenses in English - **the present tense, the future tense** and the **past tense** which refer actions to present, future or past time.

Besides these three tenses there is one more tense in English, the so-called **future in the past**. The peculiarity of this tense lies in the fact that the future is looked upon not from the point of view of the moment of speaking (the present) but from the point of view of some moment in the past.

Each tense is represented by four verb forms involving such categories as aspect and perfect. Thus there are four present tense forms: the present indefinite, the present continuous, the present perfect, the present perfect continuous; four past tense forms: the past indefinite, the past continuous, the past perfect and the past perfect continuous; four future tense forms: the future indefinite, the future continuous, the future perfect and the future perfect continuous; and four future in the past tense forms: the future in the

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past indefinite, the future in the past continuous, the future in the past perfect, the future in the past perfect continuous.

The category of aspect

§ 11. In general the category of aspect shows the way or manner in which an action is performed, that is whether the action is perfective (совершенное), imperfective (несовершенное), momentary (мгновенное, однократное), iterative (многократное, повторяющееся), inchoative (зачинательное), durative (продолженное, длительное), etc.

In English the category of aspect is constituted by the opposition of *the continuous aspect* and *the common aspect.*

The opposition the continuous aspect <——> the common aspect is actualized in the following contrasting pairs of forms:

Continuous	Common
is speaking	speaks
was speaking	spoke
will be speaking	will speak
has been speaking	has spoken

The forms in the left-hand column (whether taken in context, or treated by themselves) have a definite meaning: they describe an action as a concrete process going on continuously at a definite moment of time, or characteristic of a definite period of time (hence its name - the continuous aspect). The forms in the right-hand column, if treated by themselves, are devoid of any specific aspectual meaning. They denote the action as such, in a most general way, and can acquire a definite and more specified aspective meaning due to the lexical meaning of the verb and specific elements of the context in which they are used. Thus, for example, the verb form *sang*, when regarded out of context, has no specific aspectual characteristics, conveying only the idea of the action of singing with reference to the past. However when the same form is used in the context, it acquires the aspectual meaning conferred on it by that context. Compare the following sentences:

When he was young he *sang* beautifully (пел = умел петь).
He went over to the piano and *sang* two folk-songs (спел).
He went over to the piano and *sang* (запел).
While everybody was busy lighting a camp fire, he *sang* folk-songs (пел).

The fact that these forms may express different aspectual meanings according to the context, accounts for the term - **the common aspect.**

§ 12. Whereas all verbs can be used in the common aspect, there are certain restrictions as to the use of the continuous aspect. Some verbs do not usually have the forms of the continuous aspect. They are referred to as **statal verbs**. The most common of them are the following:

1. **Relational verbs** *have, be* and some link verbs:
become, remain, appear, seem, sound.

However, both *to be* and *to have* can be used in the continuous aspect forms where *to be* has the meaning *to act* and *to have* has a meaning other than *to possess.*

She *is* so foolish!	She *is being* so foolish (acting foolishly) today.
I *have* three brothers.	I *am having* dinner (am dining) now.

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Other verbs having the same meaning of relation are not used in the continuous aspect forms:

to apply to	to exist
to belong to	to hold
to compare (to)	to interest
to concern	to matter
to contain	to measure
to cost	to own
to depend on	to possess
to deserve	to remember
to differ from	to stand for
	to weigh

2. **Verbs expressing sense perception, that is involuntary reactions of the senses:**

to feel (чувствовать),
to hear (слышать),
to see (видеть),
to smell (чувствовать запах),
to taste (чувствовать вкус).

However these verbs as well as other statal verbs may be sometimes used in continuous and perfect continuous forms, especially in informal English.*

* These verbs will be considered in detail in § 22.

3. **Verbs expressing emotional state:**

to care, to detest, to envy, to fear, to hate, to hope, to like, to love, to prefer, to want, to wish.

4. **Verbs expressing mental state:**

to assume, to believe, to consider, to doubt, to expect, to find, to forget, to imagine, to know, to mean, to mind, to notice, to perceive, to remember, to suggest, to suppose, to think, to understand.

Note:

Care should be taken to distinguish between some of these verbs denoting a **mental state proper** and the same verbs used in other meanings. In the latter case continuous aspect forms also occur. Compare, for example, the following pairs of sentences:

I *consider* (believe) her to be a very good student.	I'*m still considering* (studying) all the pros and cons.
I *expected (*supposed, thought) you'd agree with me.	I could not come for I *was expecting* (waiting for) a friend at the time.
I *feel* (suppose) there is something wrong about him.	I'*m feeling* quite cold.
I *think* (suppose) you're right.	I *am thinking over* (studying) your offer.

I *am forgetting* things more and more now (beginning to forget).
She *is understanding* grammar better now (beginning to understand).

Moreover, all the verbs treated in § 12 can occur in the continuous aspect when the ideas they denote are to be emphasized:

Don't shout, I*'am hearing* you perfectly well!
Why are you staring into the darkness? What *are* you *seeing* there?
Are you still *remaining* my friend.
You see, she'*s knowing* too much.
They don't know that inside I know what they're like, and that all the time I'*m hating* them.

The category of perfect

§ 13. The category of perfect is as fundamental to the English verb as the categories of tense and aspect, whereas it is quite alien to the Russian verb.

The category of perfect is constituted by the opposition of **the perfect** to **the non-perfect**.

The perfect forms denote action preceding certain moments of time in the present, past or future. The non-perfect forms denote actions belonging to certain moments of time in the present, past or future.

To see the difference between the two categories compare the following pairs of sentences containing non-perfect and perfect forms:

Perfect	Non-perfect
I *have seen* the film, and I think it is dull.	I *see* you are tired.
At last you are here! I'*ve been* waiting for you so long!	Whom *are* you *waiting* for?
She *had left* by the 2nd of September.	She left on the 2nd of September.
She *had been sleeping* for half an hour when the telephone woke her up.	When the fire began, everybody *was sleeping*.
I *shall have returned* before you get the supper ready.	I *shall return* at 10.

§ 14. The perfect forms belong either to the continuous or to the common aspect and as such they have specific semantic characteristics of either one or of the other. Thus the perfect continuous forms denote continuous actions taking place during a definite period of time preceding the present moment or some moment of time in the past or future. The moment of time in question may be either e x c l u d e d or i n c l u d e d in the period of time of the action, as in the following:

Don't wake her up, she has only been sleeping *for half an hour*. (She is still sleeping at the moment of speaking.)	I've woken her up, she has been sleeping *ever since dinner*. (She is not sleeping at the moment of speaking.)
She had been living in St.-Petersburg *for 10 years when we met*. (She was still living there at that moment of past time.)	They had been living in St.-Petersburg *for 10 years when they moved to N*. (They were not living in St.-Petersburg any longer at that moment of past time.)
He will have been working here *for 20 years next autumn*. (He will still be working here at that moment of the future.)	He will have been working there *for 5 years before he returns to our institute*. (He will not already be working there any longer at that moment of the future.)

The perfect forms of the common aspect are devoid of any specific aspect characteristics and acquire them only from the lexical meaning of the verb or out of the context in which they are used. Thus terminative verbs in the perfect forms of the common aspect express completeness of the action:

She *had shut* the window and was going to sleep.

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The completed actions expressed by such forms may be **momentary or iterative**, as in:

He *had stumbled* and *fallen down* before I could support him.	He *had stumbled* and *fallen down* on his knees several times before he reached the bushes.

Non-terminative verbs may express both completed and incompleted actions:

She *had spoken* to all of them before she came to any conclusion.(поговорила)	I *have known* him all my life. (знаю)

They may also express iterative or durative actions:

He *had lived* in many little towns before he settled in St.-Petersburg.	She *had lived* here since the war.

Thus the difference between the perfect and the perfect continuous forms is similar to the difference between the indefinite and the continuous non-perfect forms.

Before passing on to a thorough study of all verb forms in detail it should be clearly understood that every one of them is a bearer of three grammatical categories, those of tense, perfect, and aspect, that is every form shows whether the action refers to the present, the past, the future or the future viewed from the past; whether it belongs to a certain moment of time within each of these time-divisions or precedes that moment, and whether it is treated as continuous or not.

Table I

Tense, aspect and perfect forms of the English verbs

Tense	Perfect / Aspect	Non-Perfect	Perfect
Present	Common	Takes	Has taken
	Continuous	Is taking	Has been taking
Past	Common	Took	Had taken
	Continuous	was taking	had been taking
Future	Common	will take	will have taken
	Continuous	will be taking	will have been taking
Future in the Past	Common	would take	would have taken
	Continuous	would be taking	would have been taking

Thus each tense is represented by four verb forms involving such categories as aspect and perfect. There are

four present tense forms:
the present indefinite (the simple present)
the present continuous

the present perfect
the present perfect continuous

four past tense forms:
the past indefinite (the simple past)
the past continuous
the past perfect
the past perfect continuous

four future tense forms:
the future indefinite (the simple future)
the future continuous
the future perfect
the future perfect continuous

four future in-the-past tenses:
the future in-the-past indefinite (the simple future-in-the-past)
the future in-the-past continuous
the future in-the-past perfect
the future in-the-past perfect continuous.

Present tenses

§ 15. All the present tenses (The present indefinite, the present continuous, the present perfect, the present perfect continuous) refer the actions they denote to the present, that is to, the time of speaking. The difference between them lies in the way they express the categories of aspect and perfect.

The present indefinite
(The simple present)

Meaning. The present indefinite refers the action which it denotes to the present time in a broad sense.
It bears no indication as to the manner in which the action is performed, that is whether it is perfective (complete) or imperfective (incomplete), momentary or durative (continuous), iterative or inchoative, etc. Any of these meanings can be imparted to the form by the lexical meaning of the verb or by the context. Neither does it bear any indication as to the precedence of the action it denotes to the moment of speaking.

§ 16. Formation. Some of the forms of the present indefinite are synthetic (affirmative forms), some - analytic (interrogative and negative forms).
Affirmative forms for all persons singular and plural except the 3rd person singular coincide with the infinitive stem: *to speak - I speak, you speak, they speak.*
The 3rd person singular form is built from the same stem by means of the inflexion **-s, -es:** to speak [spi:k] - he speaks [spi:ksj; to land [lænd] - he lands [lændz]; to wish [wIʃ] - he wishes [´wIʃIz].
As can be seen from the above examples, the pronunciation and spelling of the inflection of the 3rd person singular vary:

1. Verb stems ending in vowels and voiced consonants (except voiced sibilants and affricates) take the inflection -s which is pronounced [z]:

   to see [si:]   -   he sees [si:z]

   to play [pleɪ]   -   he plays [pleɪz]

to stir [stə]   -   he stirs [stə:z]

to come [kʌm]   -   he comes [kʌmz].

The 3rd person singular of the verb *to say* (*says*) is pronounced [sez].

In verb stems ending in the letter **y** and preceded by a consonant the letter **y** is replaced by the letters **ie**:

to try [traɪ]   - he tries [traɪz]

to carry ['kærɪ]   - he carries ['kærɪz].

The verbs *to go* and *to do* and their compounds (to forego, to overdo, etc.) take the inflexion [z] spelled as
  -es:

to go [gou] - he goes [gouz],

the verb *to do* (and its compounds) changes its root vowel:

to do [du:]   - he does [dʌz],

to overdo ['ouvədu]   - he overdoes ['ouvədʌz].

The 3rd person singular of the verb *to have* is *has* [hæz].

2. Verb stems ending in voiceless consonants (except voiceless sibilants and affricates) take the inflexion **-s** pronounced [**s**]:

to work [wə:k]   - he works [wə:ks]
to hope [houp]   - he hopes [houps]

3. Verb stems ending in sibilants and affricates take either the inflexion **-s** or **-es**. Both are pronounced [**ɪz**]:

a) **-es** if the final letters of the stem are **-s, -sh, -ss, -x, -z, -zz, -ch, -tch**:

to push [puʃ]   - he pushes ['puʃɪz]
to pass [pa:s]   - he passes ['pa:sɪz]
to box [bɒks]   - he boxes ['bɒksɪz]
to buzz [bʌz]   - he buzzes ['bʌzɪz]
to catch [kætʃ]   - he catches ['kætʃɪz];

b) **-s** if the final letters of the stem are -**se, -ce, -ze, -ge, -dge**
(i.e. sibilants and affricates plus the mute **e**):

to please [pli:z]   - he pleases ['pli:zɪz]

to place [pleɪs]   - he places ['pleɪzɪz]

to freeze [fri:z]   - he freezes ['fri:zɪz]

to stage [steɪdʒ]   - he stages ['steɪdʒɪz]

to sledge [sledʒ]   - he sledges ['sledʒɪz].

§ 17. Interrogative and negative forms of the present indefinite are analytical and are built by means of the present indefinite of the auxiliary to do and the infinitive of the notional verb.

Besides these there is one more type of forms, namely **negative-interrogative forms**, which has two possible patterns.

The paradigm of the verb in the present indefinite

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I speak	Do I speak?	I do not (don't) speak
He (she, it) speaks	Does he (she, it) speak?	He (she, it) does not (doesn't) speak
We speak	Do we speak?	We do not (don't) speak
You speak	Do you speak?	You do not (don't) speak
They speak	Do they speak?	They do not (don't) speak

Negative-interrogative

a)		b)	
	Do I not speak?		Don't I speak?
	Does he (she, it) not speak?		Doesn't he (she, it) speak?
	Do we not speak?		Don't we speak?
	Do you not speak?		Don't you speak?
	Do they not speak?		Don't they speak?

Note:

The auxiliary *to do* can occur in the affirmative form as well, if special emphasis is required. In this case the auxiliary is always stressed:

Ask him again, he '*does know* what it was.

She '*does help* me so much!

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§ 18. There are some verbs that form their present indefinite in a different way.

These are:

1) The verb *to be,* which has synthetic forms not only for affirmative, but also for interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative structures. Besides, it distinguishes the category of number and has in the singular the category of person*.

* See the table on p. 339.

2) The verb *to have* when meaning *to possess* also builds its interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms synthetically.

When the verb *to have* has a modal meaning or when it is used as part of a phrase verb it makes its interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms in the ordinary way, that is with the auxiliary *to do:*

When *do* you *have to get up* in order to catch the first morning train?

She *does not have* any lunch at home.

3) All the modal verbs do not take the inflexion **-s** in the 3rd person singular. They form their interrogative and negative forms without the auxiliary *to do.*

§ 19. The present indefinite.

1. **To state facts in the present.**

I *live* in St.-Petersburg.
Most dogs *bark*.
It'*s* a long way to Tipperary.

2. **To state general rules or laws of nature**, that is to show that something was true in the past, is true in the present, and will be true in the future.

It *snows* in winter.
Snow *melts* at 0°C.
Two plus two *makes* four.

3. **To denote habitual actions** or everyday activity.

They *get up* at 8.
On Sundays we *stay* at home.
Do you often *go* to the dancing hall?

4. **To denote actions and states continuing at the moment of speaking** (with statal and relational verbs, verbs of sense and mental perception.)

Who *does* the car *belong* to?
I *do not see* what you are doing.
Now I *hear* you perfectly well.
I *do not understand* you at all.

5. **To express declarations, announcements, etc. referring to the moment of speaking.**

I *declare* the meeting open.
I *agree* to your proposal.
I *offer* you my help.

6. **To denote a succession of action going on at the moment of speaking.**

Now watch me closely: I *take* a match, *light* it, *put* it into the glass and ... oh, nothing *happens*!

7. **To denote future actions.**

a) Mostly **with verbs of motion** (*to go, to come, to start, to leave, to return, to arrive, to sail* and some other verbs), usually if the actions denote a settled plan and the future time is indicated:

I go to Moscow **next week**.
They *start* on **Sunday**.
She *leaves* for England **in two months**.
What *do* you *do* **next Sunday**?

b) **In adverbial clauses of time and condition after the conjunctions** *when, till, until, as soon as, as long as, before, after, while, if, unless, in case, on condition that, provided*, etc.:

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When she *comes*, ring me up, please.
Do it **as soon as** you *are through* with your duties.
I promise not to tell her anything **if** you *help* me to get out of here.

However in object clauses introduced by the conjunctions *when* and *if* it is the future indefinite that is used to denote future actions:

I don't know **when** she *will come*.
I'm not sure **if** she *will come* at all.

8. **To denote past actions:**

a) in newspaper headlines, in the outlines of novels, plays., films, etc.:

Dog *Saves* Its Master.
Students *Say* No to New Weapon.
Then Fleur *meets* Little Jon. They *fall in love* with each other.

b) in narratives or stories to express past actions more vividly (the so-called historic present):

It was all so unexpected. You see, I came home late last night, turned on the light and - whom do you think I *see*? Jack, old Jack, sleeping in the chair. I *give a cry, rush* to him and *shake* him by the shoulder.

9. **To denote completed actions with the meaning of the present perfect** (with the verbs *to forget, to hear,*
     to be told).

I *forget* your telephone number.
I *hear* you are leaving for England?
I *am told* she returned from France last week.

The present continuous

§ 20. Meaning. The present continuous* denotes an action which is in progress at the moment of speaking.

* Nowadays it is sometimes called "the present progressive".

§ 21. Formation. All the forms of the present continuous are analytic. They are formed by means of the present indefinite of the auxiliary **to be** and **participle I** of the notional verb.
In the interrogative the corresponding form of the auxiliary *to be* is placed before the subject and participle I follows it.
In the negative the negation 'not' is placed after the auxiliary.

The paradigm of the verb in the present continuous

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I am speaking	Am I speaking?	I am not (I'm not) speaking
He (she, it) is speaking	Is he (she, it) speaking?	He (she, it) is not (isn't) speaking
We are speaking	Are we speaking?	We are not (aren't) speaking

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| You are speaking | Are you speaking? | You are not (aren't) speaking |
| They are speaking | Are they speaking? | They are not (aren't) speaking |

<center>Negative-interrogative</center>

a)	Am I not speaking?	b)	Aren't I speaking?
	Is he (she, it) not speaking?		Isn't he (she, it) speaking?
	Are we not speaking?		Aren't we speaking?
	Are you not speaking?		Aren't you speaking?
	Are they not speaking?		Aren't they speaking?

In spoken English contractions are commonly used (I'm, he's, it's, we're, etc.).

A reduced negative for the first person singular is *I'm not*, but is replaced by *aren't* in the negative - interrogative.

§ 22. The present continuous is used with all actional and some statal verbs (with the reservations destribed below):

1. **To denote continuous actions going on at the moment of speaking.**

Look, how happily they *are playing*!
Don't bother him, *he's working*.
Listen! The telephone *is ringing*. Go and answer it.
- Can I see Mary? - You must wait a little while, she *is having breakfast.*

The present indefinite, not the present continuous, is used to denote actions which though going on at the moment of speaking, are important as simple facts, rather than as actions in progress.

Why don't you answer?
Why don't you write? Where is your pen?
Stop talking! Why don't you listen?

I f   t w o   s i m u l t a n e o u s   a c t i o n s are in progress at the moment of speaking, three variants are possible:

a) one action is expressed by the verb in the present indefinite, the other - by the present continuous:

Do you *hear* what I *am saying*!

b) both the actions are expressed by verbs in the present continuous:

Are you *listening* to what I *am saying*?
At home he *is* always *sleeping* while I *am doing chores.*

c) both the actions are expressed by verbs in the present indefinite:

Several students *watch* carefully while he *writes* it on the board.

The use of the present indefinite instead of the present continuous is due to the semantic peculiarities of the verb.

The present continuous is not generally used with some verbs - **the verbs of sense perception**, **of**

mental or **emotional state** and with **relational verbs.** Still exceptions may occur with these verbs too.

With the verbs of sense perception the use of the tense form is closely connected with what kind of perception is meant - voluntary (deliberate) or involuntary. In case these verbs denote a voluntary action: **to listen** (слушать), **to look** (смотреть) or if they may denote both an involuntary and a voluntary action, such as: **to feel** (ощупывать), **to smell** (нюхать), **to taste** (пробовать на вкус), they can occur in continuous forms.

Voluntary actions	Involuntary actions
Why *are* you not *listening*?	Say it again, I *don't hear* you.
Why *are* you *looking* at me like that?	*Can* you *see* me now?
The man must be blind, he is *feeling* his way with a stick.	Take care! I *feel* the walls shaking.

In the same way verbs of mental and emotional states can acquire a different meaning and occur in the present continuous and other continuous forms.

I *consider* (=believe) her to be a very good student.	I*'m* still *considering* (studying) all the pros and cons.
I think (suppose) you are right.	I*'m* *thinking* over (studying) your offer.

In some cases it is not so much a change of meaning as a change in the quality or intensity of the idea expressed by the verb that makes it possible to use the continuous form.

> I *am forgetting* things more and more now.
> She *is understanding* grammar better now.
> Don't shout, I*'m hearing* you perfectly well.
> What *are* you *seeling* there in this complete darkness.
> You see, she *is knowing* too mucht.
> All this time I*'m hating* them.
> I *am feeling* quite all right.

The **relational verbs** (belong, cost, etc.) are not used in the continuous form.

2. **To denote actions characteristic of a certain period of present time, the moment of speaking included.** As a rule these actions are temporary.

> They *are spending* their holidays at the sea-side this summer.
> Your behaviour *is killing* your wife.
> It is autumn now. The birds *are flocking* together.

3. **To denote (for the sake of emphasis) actions in progress referring to all or any time, the moment of speaking included**. In this case the adverbials *ever, for ever, constantly, always* are obligatory.

> Our solar system together with the Milky Way *is* constantly *moving* towards Vega.
> The Volga *is* for ever *pouring* its waters into the Caspian Sea.
> Mankind *is* always *developing* its mental faculties.

4. To denote **actions characteristic of a certain person within more or less long periods of present time,** **the moment of speaking included and provoking certain emotions in the speaker** (inpatience, irritation, disapproval, praise, etc.). Sentences with such forms are always emotionally coloured.

Oh, I have no patience with you. Why *are* you always *losing* your things?
Though she is only ten, she is very kind-hearted, she *is* always *pitying* everybody.

In such sentences the adverbials *always* or *constantly* are also obligatory.

5. **To denote future actions.**

a) With verbs of motion *to arrive, to come, to go, to leave, to return, to sail, to start* and some others, usually

the actions are only intended or planned. The future time is usually indicated by some adverbials:

She *is leaving* **tomorrow**.
The boat *is sailing* **next week**.
He *is returning* **on Monday**.
What *are* you *doing* **tomorrow**?

Though the present continuous of the verb *to go + infinitive* is commonly used to denote an intention or plan, with some verbs the meaning is that of apprehention or presentiment.

He'*s going to get ill.*
The flowers *are going to wither.*
It *is going to snow.*
He'*s going to be hanged.*

b) In adverbial clauses of time and condition after the conjunctions *when, while, as long as, if, in case, unless*, etc:

I'll ring you up at 2, while you *are having* your break.
If he *is working* when I come, don't bother him, I'll wait.

As follows from the items enumerated above, the present continuous cannot occur in the context describing a succession of actions referring to the present. In such cases the present indefinite is used:

He comes up to the piano, opens the lid, and begins to play the first tune.

If several actions in a narrative have the form of the present continuous, it indicates that they are all simultaneous (and usually performed by different persons):

The boys *are playing* football on the lawn, Nell *is reading* in her room, and Father is *having his rest*.

In all its uses the present continuous is rendered in Russian by means of the present tense of the imperfective aspect.

The present perfect

§ 23. Meaning. The present perfect form denotes the action preceding the moment of speaking, though it is connected with it either directly or indirectly, that is: a) it continues up to the moment of speaking or b) takes place within a period of time before and including the moment of speaking, so it is relevant to the moment of speaking through its effect or virtually through its continuation at the moment of speaking. In

the first case it is called the **exclusive present perfect** (the moment of speaking is excluded), in the second - the **inclusive present perfect** (the moment of speaking is included).

Formation. The present perfect is formed analytically, by means of the auxiliary **to have** in the present indefinite and participle II of the notional verb.*

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* For the rules of the formation of participle II see § 5-6.

In the negative the corresponding negative forms of *to have* are used, participle II follows them.

The paradigm of the verb in the present perfect

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I have spoken	Have I spoken?	I have not (haven't) spoken
He (she, it) has spoken	Has he (she, it) spoken?	He (she, it) has not (hasn't) spoken
We have spoken	Have we spoken?	We have not (haven't) spoken
You have spoken	Have you spoken?	You have not (haven't) spoken
They have spoken	Have they spoken?	They have not (haven't) spoken

Negative-interrogative

a)	b)
Have I not spoken?	Haven't I spoken?
Has he (she, it) not spoken?	Hasn't he (she, it) spoken?
Have we not spoken?	Haven't we spoken?
Have you not spoken?	Haven't you spoken?
Have they not spoken?	Haven't they spoken?

§ 24. In all its uses the present perfect directly or indirectly refers actions to the moment of speaking. This connection with the moment of speaking predetermines its use; the present perfect is found in conversations and communications dealing with the state of things in the present and is never found in narratives referring to the past.

The present perfect is used:

1. **When the speaker means that he is interested in the mere fact that the action took place, but not in the time when it took place, nor in the circumstances.** The time of the action is either not indicated at all, or is indicated only vaguely, by means of adverbs of indefinite time (*yet, already, just, lately, recently, of late, ever, never, always,* etc.).

I don't know what he's going to do, I *haven't seen* him.
Has Mother *returned*?
I *haven't read* the letter yet.
Why are you so hard on him? What *has he done*?
Let's go, it *has* already *stopped raining*.
I'*ve* never *seen* him in this play.

2. **When the speaker means that, though the action is over, the period of time within which it was performed is not yet over at the moment of speaking** (with the words *today, this week, this year*, etc.).

I'*ve seen* her today.
She'*s returned* from England this week.
I'*ve had a splitting headache* this morning.

If the period of time is over or the action refers to some particular moment of time within that period

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the past indefinite, not the present perfect is used.

I *had* a bad headache this morning (said in the afternoon, in the evening, etc.).
She *was* at my party this month (at the time when the party was given).

In such cases (items 1 and 2) the exclusive present perfect is rendered in Russian by the past tense.

3. **The present perfect is also used to denote actions still in progress, (the inclusive present perfect) which began before the moment of speaking and go on up to that moment or into it.** In this case either the starting point of the action is specified (by means of the adverb *since,* a prepositional phrase with *since*, or an adverbial clause with the conjunction *since*), or the period during which it continued (by various adverbs or phrases with *for*). It is thus used in the following cases:

a)   with statal verbs which do not normally take continuous forms:

We met by chance last year, and I *haven't seen* her since.
I'*ve been* here since 8.
I love you. I'*ve loved* you ever since we met.
I'*ve known* you all my life.
I *haven't seen* you for ages.

b) with some actional (durative) verbs in which case the present perfect continuous is also possible. The
difference between the two forms lies in the following: in the case of the present perfect the logical stress
is laid rather **on the fact** than **on the process**, whereas in the case of the present perfect continuous it is
the process that is important.

I'*ve worked* here since 1960.
He *has played* football for five years already.

In such cases the inclusive present perfect is rendered in Russian by the present tense.

4. **The present perfect is also used in subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition introduced by the corresponding conjunctions to denote a future action taking place before a certain moment in the future.**

I'll stay with you until you'*ve finished* everything.
Wait till I'*ve written* the notice.

Sometimes adverbials of place and objects expressed by words describing situations may serve in an oblique way as past time markers, connecting the activities not only with places and situations, but also with the time when the actions took place, accordingly the past indefinite is used.

Did you meet him in London? (when you were in London)
Did you like his singing? (when he sang)

The same is true of special questions beginning with *where*:

Where did you see him?

Where did you buy this hat?

Note 1:

In spesial questions with when only **the past indefinite** is possible, though the answer can be either in the past indefinite or in the present perfect depending on the actual state of affairs:

- *When did* he *come*?

- He *came yesterday*.
- He *has just come*.

Note 2:

The present perfect, not the past indefinite is used with the verb *to be* in the sense of *to go, to visit* even though the adverbials of place are used:
  Have you *been* to London?
  She says she'*s been* to Paris three times.

The meaning of such statements is '*was there at a certain time, but is there no longer*'.

Although the time of the actions denoted by the present perfect is not specified, it is generally understood as more or less recent, not long past.

§ 25. The ways of translating the present perfect into Russian vary due to the peculiarities of its time orientation and the vagueness of its aspective meaning. It can therefore be translated into Russian either by the past tense (if it is exclusive present perfect) or by the present tense (if it is inclusive present perfect). The latter applies to statal verbs and some actional durative verbs.

She has gone home.	Она уже ушла домой. (The past tense, perfective.)
The red ballon has burst.	Красный шарик лопнул. (The past tense, perfective, momentary.)
He has hit me twice.	Он ударил меня два раза. (The past tense, perfective, iterative.)
I've already seen him.	Я его уже видел. (The past tense, imperfective.)
She has seen the film three times.	Она смотрела этот фильм три раза. (The past tense, imperfective, iterative.)
They've lived here for seven years.	Они живут здесь семь лет.
I've known her since 1975.	Я знаю ее с 1975 года. (The present tense, inaperfective, durative.)

The present perfect continuous

§ 26. Formation. The present perfect continuous is formed analytically by means of the auxiliary *to be* in the present perfect (have/has been) plus participle I of the notional verb.

In the interrogative the first auxiliary (have/has) comes before the subject, the second auxiliary (been) and participle I follow the subject.

In the negative the corresponding negative forms of the first auxiliary (have) are used, the second auxiliary (been) and participle I follow them.

The paradigm of the verb in the present perfect continuous

Affirmative

I have been speaking
He (she, it) has been speaking
We have been speaking
You have been speaking
They have been speaking

Interrogative

Have I been speaking?
Has he (she, it) been speaking?
Have we been speaking?
Have you been speaking?
Have they been speaking?

Negative

I have not been speaking
He (she, it) has not been speaking
We have not been speaking
You have not been speaking
They have not been speaking

Contracted negative

I haven't been speaking
He (she, it) hasn't been speaking
We haven't been speaking
You haven't been speaking
They haven't been speaking

Negative-interrogative

a) Have I not been speaking?
Has he (she, it) not been speaking?
Have we not been speaking?
Have you not been speaking?
Have they not been speaking?

b) Haven't I been speaking?
Hasn't he (she, it) been speaking?
Haven't we been speaking?
Haven't you been speaking?
Haven't they been speaking?

The present perfect continuous is used mainly in conversation.

§ 27. The present perfect continuous is used with actional verbs to denote:

1. **Actions in progress which begin at a certain moment in the past and continue into the present.** In this case either the starting point of the action or the period of time during which it has been in progress is usually specified.

I'*ve been writing* since morning, and so I'll soon stop.
They'*ve been living* here since 1970. Now they are going to move to N.
It *has been raining* ever since midnight, and it is still drizzling.
She's a fourth year student, so she'*s been learning* English for at least 3 years already.

All these forms denoting actions continuing into the present (the so-called present perfect continuous inclusive) are translated into Russian by the present tense, imperfective (in the sentences above: пишу, живут, дождь идет, учит).

2. **Actions in progress which begin in the past and continue up to the moment of speaking or till just before it.** It is the present perfect continuous exclusive.

Oh, here you are at last! I'*ve been waiting* for you all day!
It *has been snowing* since morning, but now it has stopped.

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You look so sad. *Have* you *been crying*?
It *has been raining* for at least two hours, but now the wind has driven the clouds away.

3. **Actions in progress that both begin and end at some indeterminate time before the moment of speaking, though connected with it through their importance for the present.**

My brother *has been using* my bicycle and has got the tyre punctured.
I *have been thinking* over your offer, but still can't tell you anything definite.
I hear she *has been calling* on you again?

The forms denoting actions that are over by the moment of speaking (the so-called present perfect continuous exclusive) are translated into Russian by means of the past tense, imperfective (in the sentences in items 2 and 3 they are: ждал, снег шел, плакала, дождь шел, катался, обдумывал, приходила).

4. **Future actions in progress before a certain moment in the future** (in subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition).

He will get accustomed to the surroundings after he *has been staying* here for a week or two.

§ 28. As is seen from above, the present perfect continuous cannot be used to denote a succession of actions and therefore cannot be used to describe the development of events. If two actions denoted by the present perfect continuous happen to come together it only means that they are simultaneous and are usually performed by two different persons:

I *have been living* here for two months while they *have been travelling* all over Europe. Now they are coming back, and I'll soon move back to my own place.

Past tenses

§ 29. All the past tenses (the past indefinite, the past continuous, the past perfect, the past perfect continuous) refer the actions they denote to the past. The difference between them lies in the way they represent the I categories of aspect and perfect.

Owing to their past time reference all of them are used both in the written language in narrative and description, and in conversation, especially the past indefinite.

The past indefinite
(The simple past)

§ 30. Formation. The affirmative forms of the past indefinite are synthetic, the interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms are analytic.

Affirmative (synthetic) **forms** are represented by the second of the basic verb forms.

Interrogative forms are built by means of the auxiliary *to do* in the past indefinite (*did*), which is placed before the subject, and the infinitive stem of the notional verb, which follows the subject.

Negative forms are built by means of the negative form of the auxiliary, which has two varieties: a) *didn't* (used in the spoken language) and b) *did not* (used in the written language) and the infinitive of the notional verb that follows it.

The paradigm of the verb in the past indefinite

<u>Affirmative</u>   <u>Interrogative</u>

| I
He (she, it)
We
You
They | spoke (played) | Did | I
he (she, it)
we
you
they | speak (play?) |

<u>Negative</u>

| I
He (she, it)
We
You
They | did not (didn't) speak (play) |

<u>Negative-interrogative</u>

a) Did | I
he (she, it)
we
you
they | Not speak? (play?)   b) Didn't | I
he (she, it)
we
you
they | speak? (play?)

The auxiliary *did* also occurs in affirmative forms in cases when the speaker wishes to emphasize his statement, as in:

But I assure you, he *did tell* me of it himself.
Actually, I *did see* him once last week.

There are a few verbs which form their past indefinite differently from the way described above. These are:

The verb *to be*, which has synthetic forms not only in the affirmative, but also in the interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative. It also distinguishes the category of number. The interrogative is formed by placing the verb before the subject.

The verb *to have*, which also has synthetic forms for all structures.

When having meanings other than 'possess' or when used as part of a phrasal verb (to have a look), *to have* forms its interrogative and negative in the ordinary way with the auxiliary *to do*.

§ 31. The past indefinite refers actions to past time quite cut off from the present, that is, these actions are in no way connected with the present).* The past indefinite can therefore be used only in contexts relating to the past. The past reference of the context can be shown:

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* This is very important for distinguishing the situations in which either only the past indefinite or only the present perfect are to be used.

a) by various adverbials of time pointing to the past, for example, *yesterday, the day before yesterday, last (that) Saturday (Sunday)*, etc., *last (that) week (month, year), an hour ago* (and other adverbials with ago), *in 1970, on the 1st of September*, and many others denoting certain moments and periods of time already past.

He left *yesterday.*
They married *in 1975.*
She returned *two hours ago*.

I saw them *last Monday.*
That night nobody slept.

b) by some other past actions (denoted by the verb in the past indefinite or past continuous).

He came *when I was already at home.*
They started *when the sun was rising.*

Thus the very fact that the past indefinite is used in a narrative or in a single sentence is generally an indication that some past time not connected with the present is referred to.

§ 32. The past indefinite is the verb form most frequently used; its range of application is immense, especially in all kinds of narratives.

The past indefinite is used:

1. **To state simple facts in the past.**

The house *stood* on the hill.
She *was beautiful*.
I *did not know* who the man *was*.
I *did not hear* your question.
I *did not see* you at the theatre.
What *did* you *say*?

The past indefinite, never the present perfect, is used in questions beginning with *when*, even though no indication of past time is made, because *when* implies a certain moment in the past. The answer can be either in the past indefinite or in the present perfect, depending on the situation: *When did you see him? - I saw him two days ago. - I have just seen him.*
Likewise, *the past indefinite*, not the present perfect, is used in questions beginning with *where* because in such questions the reference to some past moment is implied: *Where did you buy that hat?* The implication is: *when you were at the place where the action was performed.*

2. **To denote habitual actions in the past.**

All summer I *got up* at 7.
On Sunday evening he *took* her to the pictures.
He usually *took* the first morning train.

Note:

Besides the past indefinite there are other ways of expressing habitual actions in the past:
a) by means of the form *used to + infinitive*:
Some years ago he *used to call* on me, now he never does.

The negative construction of *used to* is formed in one of two ways: *didn't used to* and *didn't use to*.
She *didn't use to* knit in the evenings.

The interrogative construction is: *did (he) used to*? or did (he) use to...?
Did she used to write her articles at night?
Did he use to do it?

---

b) The other way to express habitual actions is by means of the verb *would + infinitive stem*. But unlike *used*

to, *would* always conveys an additional modal colouring of **will, insistance, perseverance.**
This used to be my mother's room, and I *would* sit there for hours.

3. **To denote a succession of past actions.**

He *got up, put on* his hat, and *left*.
The car *stopped*, the door *opened*, and a very pretty girl *got out* of it.

4. **To denote actions in progress at a certain moment in the past,** with verbs that cannot be used in continuous forms.

He was not listening but still *heard* what they were speaking about.
At that time he *was* on the watch.

5. **To denote future actions in subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition** depending on principal clauses with the predicate verb in a past tense.

She said she would come when the film *was over*.
She said she would do it if nothing unexpected *happened*.

§ 33. The ways of rendering the past indefinite in Russian are varied, owing to its aspective vagueness. Depending on the lexical meaning of the verb and on the context, it can be translated by Russian verbs in the past tense of both perfective and imperfective aspects with all possible shades of their meanings.

In the morning I wrote two letters.	Утром я написал два письма. (A perfective (completed) action.)
I got up from my chair and bowed.	Я встал и поклонился. (Two perfective (completed) momentary actions.)
He breathed hard and stopped every few minutes.	Он тяжело дышал и останавливался каждые несколько минут. (Imperfective (incompleted) and iterative actions.)
She lay on the sofa reading a detective story.	Она лежала на диване, читая детектив. (Imperfective, durative action.)
On hearing it he laughed.	Услышав это, он засмеялся. (A perfective, inchoative action.)

The past continuous

§ 34. Formation. The past continuous is formed analytically by the auxiliary verb **to be** in the past indefinite and **participle I** of the notional verb.
In the interrogative the auxiliary is placed before the subject and participle I follows the subject.
In the negative the corresponding negative forms of to be are employed, and participle I follows them.

The paradigm of the verb in the past continuous

Affirmative

I
He (she, it) } was speaking

We
You
They } were speaking

Interrogative

Was { I / he (she, it) } speaking?

Were { we / you / they } speaking?

Negative

I
He (she it) } was not (wasn't) speaking

We
You
They } were not (weren't) speaking

Negative-interrogative

a) Was { I / He (she, it) } not speaking?

Were { we / you / they } not speaking?

b) Wasn't { I / He (she, it) } speaking?

Weren't { we / you / they } speaking?

§ 35. The past continuous is used mostly in narrative although it may occur in conversation as well.
The past continuous is used with all actional verbs and some statal verbs:

1. **To denote a continuous action in progress at a certain moment in the past.**

> At 10 it *was* still *raining.*
> When I called him up, he *was* still *having breakfast.*
> The fire began at midnight when everybody *was sleeping.*
> At that time she *was* already *packing up.*

In these examples the moment of time is specified directly, by means of adverbials of time or indirectly by some other past action mentioned in the same sentence. The moment of time at which the action is in progress can also be shown by the previous context, or understood from the situation:

> He did not answer. His lips *were trembling.*
> I stood motionless, as if glued to the ground. The enormous black bull *was galloping* towards me at full
> speed.
> I told him that Ralph *was staying* at the Three Boars.

2. **To denote a continuous action in progress during a certain period of time in the past, marked by adverbials - prepositional phrases** (from ... till, from ... to) **or adverbs** (all day long, the whole night, etc.)

> We *were quarrelling* all day long yesterday.

She says she *was washing* from six till eight.

When actional durative verbs take the form of the past continuous the actions thus described do not actually differ from those in the form of the past indefinite, as both denote continuous actions in progress at some moment of time in the past:

When I saw him, he *was standing* by the door.
When I saw him he *stood* by the door.

Both examples may refer to the same situation. The difference between the two is that the past indefinite lays stress on *the fact*, while the past continuous emphasizes *the process*, thus presenting the action more vividly.

However in a complex sentence with a subordinate adverbial clause of time if the predicate verbs both in the principal and in the subordinate clauses express simultaneous continuous actions in progress it is usual (though not obligatory) to use the past indefinite in both the clauses:

While I *ate* and *drank*, I *looked up* the register.
She *looked* all the while at him as she *spoke* in her slow, deep voice.

But, the past continuous is rather frequent in adverbial clauses, introduced by the conjunction *while, as, when, as long as,* etc.:

While they *were talking*, the boy waited outside.
As he *was climbing up*, he all the while looked at the birds soaring high above him.
When I *was working* there, I played in the local jazz band.
She stayed in the car while I *was talking* to the nurse.

Sometimes the past continuous is found in the principal clause, while the past indefinite is in the subordinate:

They *were talking* inside while he stood watching the path.

The verbs *to stand, to sit, to lie* expressing actions in progress at a certain moment, or during a certain period of time in the past are commonly used in the past indefinite, if they are followed by participle I.

They *stood* by the door, *talking* loudly.
They *sat* beside their lorry, *drinking* soda water and eating sardines from a tin.
He *lay* in bed *trying* to forget what had happened.

However, the past continuous is also possible.

She *was standing, staring* at the open letter in her hand.

3. **The past continuous is sometimes used to denote actions characteristic of certain persons in the past.** In such sentences the adverbials always and constantly are generally included.

She had rather poor health and *was* constantly *complaining* of headaches.
As I remember her she *was* always *fussing* over something.
He seemed very absent-minded, he *was* constantly *loosing* things.

4. **To denote future actions viewed from the past, with verbs of motion** (*to arrive, to come, to go,*

to leave, to return, etc.), **usually if the action is planned or expected.** In this case adverbials of future time are generally used, or the future reference of the verb is clear from the context or situation:

> She said she *was leaving* in a week.
> Then I understood that they *were* not *returning* either that year or the next.
> The ship *was sailing* in a few hours.

If no future reference of the action is evident, it implies that though the action was planned, it was not and will not be carried out:

> "Listen", I said. "I've brought a little cousin of mine along. Joanna *was coming up* too but was prevented."
> I said quickly: "She was coming to tea yesterday afternoon." (was due to come, but did not).

§ 36. As follows from the meaning of the past continuous and from its uses described above, it cannot denote a succession of past actions. Two or more verbs having the form of the past continuous, whether used in the same or in adjoining sentences, always denote simultaneous actions performed by different persons or non-persons:

> Nash made periodic appearances in the town but what he *was doing* and what traps the police *were setting*, I had no idea.
> It was a glorious day. The sun *was shining* high in the sky. There was no wind. The larks *were singing* in the blue depth. Only far away, over the horizon, soft milky clouds *were moving* placidly towards the east.

In all its uses the past continuous is translated into Russian by means of the past tense of the imperfective aspect.

The past perfect

§ 37. Formation. The past perfect is formed analytically by the auxiliary **to have** in the past indefinite and **participle II** of the notional verb. The interrogative and negative forms and built in the way usual for all analytic forms.

The paradigm of the verb in the past perfect

<u>Affirmative</u>

I
He (she, it)
We
You
They
} had spoken

<u>Interrogative</u>

Had {
I
he (she, it)
we
you
they
} spoken?

<u>Negative</u>

I
He (she, it)
We
You
They
} had not (hadn't) spoken

<u>Negative-interrogative</u>

a)
Had {
I
he (she, it)
we
you
they
} not spoken?

b)
Hadn't {
I
he (she, it)
we
you
they
} spoken?

§ 38. In all its uses the past perfect denotes actions the beginning of which (always) and the end (usually) precede a certain moment of time in the past. The prepast period of time to which the actions in the past perfect refer is unlimited, that is, they may take place either immediately before some moment in the past or in the very remote past.

This tense is used with both actional and statal verbs. Its sphere of application is mainly that of narratives, though it is also used in conversation.

The past perfect is used:

1. **To denote an action of which both the beginning and the end precede some moment of time in the past. This moment can be specified by an adverbial of time, or by another action, or else by the situation.**

What should be borne in mind is that the use of the past perfect form is in itself a sufficient indication of the precedence of the denoted action to some moment in the past which therefore need not be specified.

He *had finished* his work by then.
I knew him a little: we *had met* in Rome a year before.
She felt wretched. She *had not slept* for two nights.
I opened the window. The rain *had stopped*, but the sharp east wind was still blowing.
After everybody *had left*, she rushed to her room and began packing hurriedly.

2. **To denote an action in progress which began before a certain moment of time in the past and went on up to that moment and sometimes into it.** In such cases either the starting point of the action is specified (by means of the adverb *since*, a prepositional phrase with *since* or an adverbial clause introduced by the conjunction *since*), or the period during which the action was in progress (by various adverbials):

a) with statal verbs, which do not normally allow of continuous forms:

He *had been away* **for some months** before his first letter came.

They *had thought* it over and over again **since that dinner.**
I could not believe the rumour. I *had known* him **for a good many years.**

b) with some actional durative verbs (in the similar way as with the past perfect continuous).

When we first met she *had lived* in the country for two years and was quite happy.
And thus he *had sat* in his chair till the clock in the hall chimed midnight.
Since her mother's death she *had slept* in the comer room.

In this case the past perfect continuous can also be used, though with a slight difference of meaning: while the past perfect lays the stress on *the mere fact* that the action took place, the past perfect continuous accentuates *the duration* of the action.

3. **To denote a succession of past actions belonging to the time preceding the narrative as a whole, thus describing a succession of events in the prepast time.**

I gave a slight shiver. In front of me was a neat square of grass and a path and the low gate. Someone *had opened* the gate, *had walked* very correctly and quietly up to the house, and *had pushed* a letter through the letter-box.

§ 39. The ways of rendering the past perfect in Russian are varied, owing to its aspective meaning of the verb or the context. It can be translated by Russian verbs in the past tense of both perfective and imperfective aspects with all possible shades of their meaning. These are mostly supported by lexical means:

|	
I had admitted everything before.	Я все это признал еще раньше. (A perfective (completed) action.)
He had banged his fist on the table two or three times before they turned to him.	Он стукнул кулаком по столу два или три раза, прежде чем они обернулись. (A perfective, iterative action.)
Of late years I had sometimes found him at parties.	В последние годы я иногда встречал его на вечерах. (An imperfective, iterative action.)
He had looked scared during the prolonged examination.	Во время этого затянувшегося экзамена он казался совсем испуганным. (An imperfective, durative action.)

The past perfect continuous

§ 40. Formation. The past perfect continuous is formed analytically by means of the auxiliary **to be** in the past perfect (had been) and **participle 1** of the notional verb.
In the interrogative the first auxiliary (*had*) comes before the subject, and the second auxiliary (*been*) and participle I follow the subject.
In the negative the corresponding negative forms of the first auxiliary (*had*) are used, the second auxiliary (*been*) and participle I follow the negation.
In the negative-interrogative the corresponding negative-interrogative forms of the first auxiliary are used first, the second auxiliary and participle I follow the subject.

The paradigm of the verb in the past perfect continuous

Affirmative

I
He (she, it)
We   } had been speaking
You
They

Interrogative

Had { I
he (she, it)
we
you
they } been speaking?

Negative

I
He (she, it)
We   } had not (hadn't) been speaking
You
They

Negative –interrogative

a) Had { I
he (she, it)
we
you
they } not been speaking?

b) Hadn't { I
he (she, it)
we
you
they } been speaking?

§ 41. The past perfect continuous denotes an action which began before a given moment in the past, continued for a certain period of time up to that moment and possibly still continued at that past moment.

The moment of time in the past before which the action begins is usually indicated by other past actions in the past indefinite or, rather rarely, by the past continuous. Sometimes it is indicated directly by adverbials (*by that time, by the 1st of August*, etc.).

The past perfect continuous is used with actional verbs to denote:

1. **Actions in progress that began before a certain moment of time in the past and continued up to that moment, but not into it.** As a rule no indications of time are present: the exact time of the beginning of the action is more or less clear from the situation, while the end, closely precedes the given moment of past time (the exclusive past perfect continuous).

Dick, who *had been reading* aloud Pit's letter, suddenly stopped.
I *had been feeling very tired*, but now I grew alert.
They *had been walking* rapidly and now they were approaching the spot.
Her eyes were red. I saw she *had been crying*.

2. **Actions in progress that began before a certain moment of time in the past and continued into it.** In this case either the starting point of the action or its duration is indicated (the inclusive past perfect continuous).

Ever since his return he *had been losing* strength and flesh.
She *had been acting* for a long time without a rest and she badly needed one.
Even now he could not stop, though he *had been running* all the way from the village.

The past perfect continuous is usually rendered in Russian by the past tense, imperfective.

Future tenses

§ 42. All the future tenses (the future indefinite (the simple future), the future continuous, the future perfect, the future perfect continuous) refer the actions they denote to the future. The difference between them is due to their different relation to the categories of aspect and perfect.

Their specific time reference limits their use in comparison with the present and the past tenses.

Among the future tenses the future indefinite is the most frequently used, while the use of the future continuous and the future perfect is rather limited, because the situations to which they are applicable seldom arise. As to the future perfect continuous, it is hardly ever used.

The future indefinite

§ 43. Formation. The future indefinite is formed analytically by means of the auxiliary verb **shall** for the first person singular or plural and **will** for the second and third person singular or plural and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle **to**.

The modern tendency is to use **will** for all the persons*.

* In modern spoken English no person distinctions are found in future tenses. The only marker for any future tense is **'ll** used for all persons singular and plural (I'll speak, He'll speak). Historically **'ll** is the contracted form of **will**.

The paradigm of the verb in the future indefinite

Affirmative

I shall speak
He (she, it) will speak
We shall speak ⎬ (I'll speak)
You will speak
They will speak

Interrogative

Shall I speak?
Will he (she, it) speak?
Shall we speak?
Will you speak?
Will they speak?

Negative

I shall not (shan't) speak
He (she, it) will not (won't) speak
We shall not (shan't) speak
You will not (won't) speak
They will not (won't) speak

Negative-interrogative

a) Shall I not speak?
    Will he (she, it) not speak?
    Shall we not speak?
    Will you not speak?
    Will they not speak?

b) Shan't I speak?
    Won't be (she, it) speak?
    Shan't we speak?
    Won't you speak?
    Won't they speak?

§ 44. The future indefinite is used to denote:

1. **Simple facts in the future.**

He *will return* tomorrow.
I *shan't stay* with them.
It *will be cold* in the evening.

2. **A succession of actions in the future.**

He'*ll ring* you *up* and *tell* you everything.
I'*ll take* her *up* to town, we'*ll* do some *shopping*, and *have lunch*, so we *shall be back* in late afternoon.

3. **Habitual actions in the future.**

So I'*ll see* you often in winter?
He *will stay* with us as often as possible.
I hope you *will write* regularly.

The future indefinite is not used in subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition introduced by the connectives *when, while, till, until, before, after, as soon as, if, unless, in case (that), on condition that, provided*, etc. In such clauses the present indefinite tense is used instead:

They will wait till it *grows* dark.
When she *comes*, ask her to type this letter.
Unless you'*re careful*, you'll get into trouble.

Care should be taken to distinguish between the adverbial clauses of time or condition and object clauses introduced by the conjunctions *when* and *if*, in the case of object clauses any tense required by the sense can be used:

I don't know when I'*ll come* again.
Ask him if he'*ll do* it at all.

§ 45. The Future indefinite can express various shades of aspective meaning, depending on the lexical meaning of the verb and the context. Therefore the ways of rendering it in Russian may be different. It can be translated by the future tense of both perfective and imperfective aspects with all possible shades of their meanings. Here are some examples:

I'll write this letter on Sunday.	Я напишу это письмо в воскресенье. (A perfective action.)
She will stay with them for a whole week.	Она будет гостить у них целую неделю. (An imperfective, durative action.)
I shall write to you every day.	Я буду писать тебе каждый день (An imperfective, iterative action.)
Don't be afraid, I shan't hit him.	Не бойся, я его не ударю. (A perfective, momentary action.)

The future continuous

§ 46. Formation. All the forms of the future continuous are analytic. They are formed with the future indefinite of the auxiliary **to be** (*shall be, will be*) and **participle I** of the notional verb.
In the interrogative the corresponding form of the first auxiliary (*shall/will*) is placed in front of the subject, the second auxiliary (*be*) and participle I follow the subject.

In the negative the corresponding negative forms of the first auxiliary (*shall/will*) are used, the second auxiliary (*be*) and participle I follow them.

In the negative-interrogative the corresponding negative-interrogativte forms of the first auxiliary (*shall/will*) are used, the second auxiliary (*be*) and participle I follow the subject.

The paradigm of the verb in the future continuous

Affirmative	Interrogative
I shall be speaking	Shall I be speaking?
He (she, it) will be speaking	Will he (she, it) be speaking?
We shall be speaking	Shall we be speaking?
You will be speaking	Will you be speaking?
They will be speaking	Will they be speaking?

Negative

I shall not (shan't) be speaking
He (she, it) will not (won't) be speaking
We shall not (shan't) be speaking
You will not (won't) be speaking
They will not (won't) be speaking

Negative-interrogative

a)		b)	
	Shall I not be speaking?		Shan't I be speaking?
	Will he (she, it) not be speaking?		Won't he (she, it) be speaking?
	Shall we not be speaking?		Shan't we be speaking?
	Will you not be speaking?		Won't you be speaking?
	Will they not be speaking?		Won't they be speaking?

§ 47. The future continuous is used to denote:

1. **An action in progress at a certain moment of time or during a certain period of time in the future** (compare the corresponding use of the past continuous).

   At that time she *will be having* her early morning cup of coffee.
   In an hour I'*ll be flying* over the sea.
   When she comes, I think I'*ll be packing* already.
   It will be too late. He *will be sleeping*.
   From ten till twelve he *will be writing* in his study.

As can be seen from the above examples, the moment (or period) of time at which the action is taking place is either indicated by special adverbials of time, or is implied by another future action, or else by the context or situation.

2. **An action the occurrence of which is expected by the speaker.**

   By the way, Megan *will be* coming to lunch.
   She says she'*ll be seeing* you tomorrow.

In all its uses the future continuous is rendered in Russian by means of the future tense of the imperfective aspect (будет пить, буду лететь, буду упаковываться, etc.).

The future perfect

§ 48. Formation. The future perfect is formed analytically by means of the auxiliary **to have** in the future indefinite (*shall/will have*) and **participle II** of the notional verb.

In the interrogative the corresponding form of the first auxiliary (*shall/will*) is used in the front position and the second auxiliary (*have*) and participle II follow the subject.

In the negative the corresponding negative forms of *shall/will* are used and the second auxiliary (*have*) and participle II follow them.

In the negative-interrogative the corresponding negative-interrogative forms of *shall/will* are used in the front position and the second auxiliary and participle II follow the subject.

The paradigm of the verb in the future perfect

Affirmative	Interrogative
I shall have spoken	Shall I have spoken?
He (she, it) will have spoken	Will he (she, it) have spoken?
We shall have spoken	Shall we have spoken?
You will have spoken	Will you have spoken?
They will have spoken	Will they have spoken?

<u>Negative</u>

I shall not (shan't) have spoken
He (she, it) will not (won't) have spoken
We shall not (shan't) have spoken
You will not (won't) have spoken
They will not (won't) have spoken

§ 49. The future perfect is very rarely used either in conversation or in writing.

It is used to denote:

1. **An action that both begins and ends before, a definite moment of time in the future** (the exclusive future perfect).

"I have no doubt," I said, "that I *shall have seen anybody* who is anybody by then."
You *will have got* my cable and I *shall have received* your answer long before this letter reaches you.

The moment in the future before which the action is to begin and end may be indicated by appropriate adverbials or other verbs denoting future actions, or by the whole context or situation.

2. **An action that begins before a certain moment of time in the future and goes up to it or into it.** This is the case when the action in question is expressed by statal verbs, which do not admit of continuous forms, or else by certain actional durative verbs, such as *to live, to study, to work*, etc., which denote a process (the inclusive future perfect).

She will have been in your service fifteen years next year.

The future perfect continuous

§ 50. Formation. The future perfect continuous is formed analytically by means of the auxiliary **to be** in the future perfect (*shall/will have been*) and **participle I** of the notional verb.

Their interrogative, negative and negative-interrogative forms are built similar to other future forms.

The paradigm of the verb in the future perfect continuous

Affirmative

I
We ⎬ shall have been speaking

He (she, it)
You
They ⎬ will have been speaking

Interrogative

Shall { I
we } have been speaking

Will { he (she, it)
you
they } have been speaking?

Negative

I
We ⎬ shall not (shan't) have been speaking

He (she, it)
You
They ⎬ will not (won't) have been speaking

§ 51. The future perfect continuous is very rarely used, because situations which require it very seldom arise. **It denotes actions which begin before a certain moment of time in the future and go on up to that moment or into it:**

I *shall have been living* there for five years next February.

Future in the past tenses

§ 52. There are four more future tense verb forms in English: the future in the past indefinite, the future in the past continuous, the future in the past perfect, the future in the past perfect continuous, which differ from the previously discussed forms. They refer the actions not to the actual future, but to the future viewed as such from the standpoint of past time.

The future in the past forms are dependent, as they are used mainly in object clauses in reported speech after verbs in the past tense forms.

The most frequently used is the future in the past indefinite (the past simple).

§ 53. Formation. All the future in the past forms are analytical. They are formed by means of the auxiliaries *should* and *would* and the corresponding form of the notional verb (*should speak, should be speaking, should have spoken, should have been speaking*)*.

* The contracted form for both 'would' and 'should' is 'd: *I'd speak...*

The paradigms of the verb in the future in the past
The future in the past indefinite

Affirmative

I
We ⎬ should speak

Interrogative*

Should { I
we } speak?

46

He (she, it)	would speak			he (she, it)	
You		Would	you		speak?
They			they		

<u>Negative</u>

I   }   should not speak
We

He (she, it)   would not speak
You
They

---

* The interrogative future in the past occurs only in sentences reproducing inner speech (conventional direct speech).

§ 54. The future in the past forms are mostly used in object clauses dependent on verbs in the past tense in the principal clause. None of them can be used in subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition introduced by the conjunctions *when, while, before, after, till, until, as soon as, as long as, if, unless, in case, on condition that, provided*, etc. In all these clauses the corresponding forms of the past tense are used.

However the conjunctions *when* and *if* may be used to open object clauses, then the future in the past forms can be used if required by the sense:

She didn't know *when* I *should return.*
I doubted *if* we *should see* him at all.

§ 55. The future in the past indefinite is used to denote simple facts, habitual actions and successions of actions in the future viewed from the past:

He said he *would* soon *fake* up French.
I knew she *would* still *see* him as often as she could.
He said they *would start* at dawn, *reach* the river in the afternoon and in an hour or two *would proceed* up
the road towards the cliffs.
The sun was setting. In an hour it *would be* quite *dark.*

§ 56. The future in the past continuous is used to denote an action in progress at a certain moment of time, or an action that is expected by the speaker as a result of a naturally developing situation, both referring to the future considered as such at a certain moment of time in the past:

And she thought, poor soul, that at this time next Sunday she *would be approaching* her beloved Paris.
Then she mentioned in a rather matter-of-fact way, that Jack *would be calling* the very next day.

§ 57. The future in the past perfect is used to denote an action completed before a certain moment of time in the future treated as such at some moment in the past:

He realized that he *would have accomplished* his task long before midnight.

In subordinate adverbial clauses of time and condition described above (§ 54) the past perfect is used to denote the same kind of action:

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He said he would do it after he *had seen* me.

§ 58. The future in the past perfect continuous denotes an action in progress that begins before a certain moment of time in the future viewed from the past and goes on up to that moment and into it. It is an exceptionally rare form, which is hardly ever found in any text.

He said lie *would have been living* here for ten years next year.

§ 59. Though the future in the past form refer the actions they denote to the future (viewed from the past), their actual time reference is broader than that of the future, for the actions thus expressed may refer not only to the actual future but also to the actual present or the past:

He said he *would call tomorrow*, and I'm going to stay in till he comes. (actual future)
I said I *should come today*, and so I'm here! (actual present)
I'm so upset. He said he *would come* the day before yesterday, but he didn't. (actual past)

The sequence of tenses

§ 60. The rules of the sequence of tenses are one of the peculiarities of English. The sequence of tenses is a dependence of the tense form of the predicate in a subordinate clause on the tense form of the predicate in its principal clause. The rules mainly concern object clauses depending on principal clauses with the predicate verb in one of the past tenses, though it holds true also for some other subordinate clauses (such as subject, predicative and appositive ones).

The rules are as follows:

1) **a present (or future) tense in the principal clause may be followed by any tense in the subordinate object clause:**

1.	I know	(that)	he plays tennis well.
			he is playing tennis in the park.
	I say		he has played two games today.
	I am just saying		he has been playing tennis since morning.
	I have always known		
	I've just been telling her		he played tennis yesterday.
	I shall tell her		he was playing tennis when the storm began.
			he had played two games before the storm began.
			he had been playing tennis for some time when the storm began.
			he will play tennis in summer.
			he will be playing tennis all day long.
			he will have played some games before you return.
			he will have been playing tennis for some time before you come.

2) **a past tense in the principal clause is followed by a past tense in the subordinate object clause.**

I knew	(that)	he played tennis well.
I said		he was playing tennis in the park.
I was just saying		he had played two games that day.
I had never known		he had been playing tennis since morning.
She had been telling		he had played tennis the day before.

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> he had been playing when the storm began.
> he had played two games before the storm.
> he had been playing tennis for some time before the storm.
> he would play tennis in summer.
> he would be playing tennis all day long.
> he would have played some games by the time you returned.
> he would have been playing tennis for more than an hour before you came.

Thus the past indefinite or the past continuous tense in the subordinate clause denotes an action, simultaneous with that of the pripcipal clause. They are translated into Russian by the present tense.

For a moment she did not know where she was.
Joanna noticed suddenly that I was not listening.
Had she not hinted what was troubling her?
He had thought it was his own son.
People had been saying he was a madman.
My first thought was where they were now.

The past perfect or the past perfect continuous in the subordinate clause denotes an action prior to that of the principal clause. Both of these forms are translated into Russian by the past tense.

I perceived that something had happened.
I wasn't going to tell her that Megan had rung me up.
I knew well enough what she had been doing.
Up to that moment I had not realized what they had been trying to prove.
The fact was that his sister Rose had married beneath her.
She had a feeling that she had been deceived.

The future in the past tenses in the subordinate clause denote an action following that of the principal clause.

I hoped she would soon be better.
I told Caroline that I should be dining at Fernley.
What she would say or do did not bother him.
The fact remained that none of us would see them till late at night.
The sudden thought that Nell would not come at all flashed through his head.

The fact that the action of the subordinate clause follows that of the action in the principal clause may be also indicated by other means.

She said she *was going* to see him the same night.

§ 61. The rules of the sequence of tenses concern subordinate clauses dependent not only on the predicate of the principal clause but also on any part expressed by a verb or verbal:

I received from her a letter *saying* that she *was passing* through Paris and *would like to have a chat* with
me.
She smiled again, *sure* that I *should come up.*
She turned her head slightly, well *aware* that he *was watching* her.

49

In complex sentences containing more than two subordinate clauses the choice of the tense form for each of them depends on the tense form of the clause to which it is subordinated:

I guess you *told* him where they *had come* from and why they *were hiding*.
As far as I *can see* he *did not realize* that very soon all *would be over*.

Besides the complex sentences described above the rules of the sequence of tenses are also found in all types of clauses and simple sentences reproducing inner speech (conventional direct speech).

§ 62. As already stated the rules of the sequence of tenses concern object, subject and predicative clauses. In all the other clauses (attributive and adverbial ones) the use of tenses depends wholly on the sense to be conveyed:

Clyde thought of all the young and thoughtless company of which he had been a part.
He lifted the heavy latch which held the large iron gate in place.
She only liked men who are good-looking.
I was thinking of the day which will come only too soon.
He was standing where the creek turns sharply to the east.
At the moment he was standing where he always had stood, on the rug before the living-room fire.
She felt gay as he had promised to take her to the pictures.
You see, I could not follow them as I'm rather shy.
Mr. Direck's broken wrist healed sooner than he desired.
He knew the job better than I do.
She had been a wife for even less time than you have.
In my youth life was not the same as it is now.

§ 63. The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in the following cases:

1) **when the subordinate clause describes the so-called general truth, or something which the speaker thinks to be one.**

Up to then Roy never realized that our Solar system *is* but a tiny speck in the infinite Universe.
The other day I read in a book that everything alive *consists* mostly of water.
She was very young and - and ignorant of what life really *is*.

2) **when the subordinate clause describes actions referring to the actual present, future, or past time, which usually occurs in dialogues or in newspaper, radio, or TV reports.**

Margaret, I was saying to you - and I beg you to listen to me – that as far as I *have known* Mrs. Erlynne,
she *has conducted* herself well.
"Before the flier crashed," the operator said ten minutes later, "he gave me information. He told me there
are still a few men alive in these mountains."
I did not know he *will be* here tomorrow.

3) **when the predicate verb of the subordinate clause is one of the modal verbs having no past tense forms.**

She said I *must come* at once.

I thought you *should come* too.

The category of voice

§ 64. Voice is the grammatical category of the verb denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person or non-person denoted by the subject of the sentence. There are two main voices in English: **the active voice** and **the passive voice**. There are also other voices which embrace a very limited number of verbs: reflexive (wash oneself), reciprocal (embrace one another), medial (the book reads well).

The active voice indicates that the action is directed from the subject or issues from the subject, thus the subject denotes the doer (agent) of the action:

We help our friends. - Мы помогаем нашим друзьям.

The passive voice indicates that the action is directed towards the subject. Here the subject expresses a person or non-person who or which is the receiver of the action. It does not act, but is acted upon and therefore affected by the action of the verb.

We were helped by our friends in our work.   В работе нам помогли наши друзья.

The contrast between the two voices can be seen from the following examples:

I *had asked* no questions, of course; but then, on the other hand, I *had been asked* none.
They *saw* but *were not seen.*

Я не задавал вопросов, но, с другой стороны, и мне не задавали вопросов.
Они видели, но их не видели.

The difference in the meaning of the forms *helped - were helped*, had *asked - had been asked, saw - was seen* illustrates the morphological contrast between the active and the passive voice.

Of all the verb categories voice is most closely related to the syntax of the sentence. The interrelation of the active and the passive voice on the syntactical level can be presented in the following way:

Subject	Predicate Verb	Object
John	helped	Pete

Pete	was helped	by John

A sentence containing a verb in the passive voice is called a passive construction, and a sentence containing a verb in the active voice is called an active construction, especially when opposed to the passive construction.

The subject of an active construction denotes the *agent* (*doer*) *of the action*, which may be a living being, or any source of the action (a thing, a natural phenomenon, an abstract notion).

The subject of a passive construction has the meaning of the *receiver of the action*, that is a person or non-person affected by the action.

The object of an active construction denotes the *receiver* of the action, whereas the object of the passive construction is the *agent* of the action. The latter is introduced by the preposition *by*. If it is not the agent but the instrument, it is introduced by the preposition *with*.

The cup was broken by Jim.

It was broken with a hammer.

Formation and the system of forms in the passive voice

§ 65. The active voice has no special means of formation. It is recognized by contrast with the passive voice, which is composed of the auxiliary verb **to be** and **participle II**. Thus the passive verb forms are analytical, the tense of the auxiliary verb *to be* varies according to the sense. The notional verb (participle II) remains unchanged and provides the whole analytical form with its passive meaning.

The category of voice applies to the whole system of English verb forms, both finite and non-finite.

Table II

The voice forms of the verb

Perfect	Tense / Aspect	The active voice			The Passive Voice		
		Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	Future
Non-perfect	Common	takes	took	will take	is taken	was taken	will be taken
	Continuous	is taking	was taking	will be taking	is being taken	was being taken	-----------
Perfect	Common	has taken	had taken	will have taken	has been taken	had been taken	will have been taken
	Continuous	has been taking	had been taking	will have been taking	------------	-----------	-----------

Note:

The verb *to get* occurs as a passive voice auxiliary, emphasizing the result of the action denoted by participle II.

They *got married* last year.
I *got hurt* in an accident.

The active voice

§ 66. The active voice is widely used with all kinds of verbs, both transitive and intransitive. The meaning of the active voice depends on the type of verb and the syntactical pattern of the sentence.

1. The active voice of transitive verbs presents an action as directed from the subject and passing over to the object, that is from the doer (agent) of the action to its receiver.

John made a boat for his brother.
They are building a new railway.
We are talking about the new film.

One of the characteristic features of English is that verbs which were originally intransitive may function as transitive verbs without changing their morphological structure, with or without changing their lexical meaning.

They *ran the distance* in five minutes.
Frank *will run your house.*
James *stood the lamp* on the table.

2. The active voice of intransitive verbs shows that the action, directed from the subject, does not pass over to any object, and thus the verb only characterizes the subject as the doer of the action.

> He came here yesterday.
> The boy can run very fast.
> You acted wisely.
> He slept eight hours.

3. The form of the active voice of some transitive verbs, often accompanied by an adverbial modifier, does not indicate that the subject denotes the doer of the action. This specific use of the transitive verb is easily recognized from the meaning of the subject, which is a noun denoting a non-person, and by the absence of a direct object after a monotransitive, non-prepositional verb. In such cases the verb is used in the medial voice.

> The bell rang.
> The door opened.
> The newspaper sells well.
> The novel reads easily.
> Glass breaks easily.
> The place was filling up.
> It said on the radio (in the article) that the weather forecast is favourable.

The passive voice

The use of tense, aspect and perfect forms in the passive voice

§ 67. As seen from table II, verbs in the passive voice may acquire almost all the aspect, tense and perfect forms that occur in the active voice, *except for the future continuous and perfect continuous forms.*

The examples below illustrate the use of the passive voice in different aspect, tense and perfect forms.

Common aspect, non-perfect

> Students *are examined* twice a year.
> They *were examined* in June.
> They *will be examined* next Friday.

Continuous aspect, non-perfect

> Don't be noisy! Students *are being examined.*
> The students *were being examined* when the Professor came.

Common aspect, perfect

> Our students have already *been examined*.
> They *had been examined* by 2 o'clock.
> Everybody *will have been examined* by 3 o'clock.

The passive voice of different verbs

§ 68. The passive voice in English may be found with different types of verbs (mostly transitive) in

various verb phrases; monotransitive (non-prepositional and prepositional) and ditransitive. The subject of the passive construction may correspond to a direct, an indirect object, or to a prepositional object in the active construction. Accordingly we discriminate **a direct passive construction, an indirect passive construction, and a prepositional passive construction.**

Monotransitive verbs are numerous and almost all of them can form a direct passive construction. These are the verbs: *to take, to do, to make, to build, to discuss, to translate, to hate, to love, to meet* and a lot of others.

A new railway *is being built* near our town.
"A Farewell to Arms" *was published* in 1929.
You *will be met* at the station.

Phrasal transitive verbs, that is, such verbs as *to blow up, to bring in, to bring up, to carry out, to put on, to see off, to turn down*, etc. are also often used in the passive voice.

The plan *was* successfully *carried out.*
The boats *are being brought in.*

Originally intransitive verbs may form a direct passive construction, as in these examples:

This distance *has* never *been run* in five minutes before.
He thought of the lives, that *had been lived* here for nearly two centuries.

In the vast majority of cases, English *transitive verb + object* corresponds to the same type in Russian. There are a number of transitive verbs in English, however, which correspond to Russian verbs followed by an indirect or a prepositional object, or sometimes an adverbial modifier. These verbs are:

To answer	to follow
To approach	to help
To assist	to influence
To address	to join
To admire	to need
To affect	to obey
To attend	to speak
To believe	to succeed
To contradict	to threaten
To enjoy	to trust
To enter	to watch

Sentences with these verbs are rendered in Russian by means of the indefinite personal constructions with the verb in the active voice, or if the doer of the action is mentioned of a personal construction with the verb in the active voice.

We are not trusted, David, but who cares if we are not innocent.	Нам не доверяют...
The British bicycle was much admired.	Этим английским велосипедом восхищались.
In the spring of 1925 Hemingway was approached by two Americans.	Весной 1925 года к Хемингуэю подошли два американца.

A direct passive construction is used in the sentences of the type:

1. J. F. Kennedy *was elected president* in 1960.
    The woman *was called Brome*.
    We *were kept busy* most of the time.
    The walls *were painted blue*.*

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* For details see in Syntax, § 55.

2. He *is said (believed, known, reported) to be* in town.
    He *was seen to enter* the museum.
    He *was seen leaving* the museum.*

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* For details see in Syntax, § 53.

3. The direct passive of verbs of speech, mental activity, and perception is used in complex sentences with the formal subject *it*.

It was suggested $\bigg\}$ that he was still in town.
It was reported

It was said
It was believed $\bigg\}$ that we should meet once more.
It was known
It was settled

Restrictions to the use of the passive voice

1. Though in many cases there is an evident correspondence of the active and the passive voice construction it is by no means a one-to-one correspondence. There is a certain group of monotransitive verbs which are never used in the passive voice at all, or in some of their meanings; they are: *to have, to lack, to become, to fit, to suit, to resemble.*

There are semantic reasons for this constraint, as these verbs denote not an action or process, but a state or relation.

John resembles his father. (John looks like his father.)
He lacks confidence. (There is no confidence in him.)
Will this suit you? (Will it be suitable for you?)

The verb *to hold* can be used in the passive voice only with reference to human activity; for example: *The conference was held in April*. However, in a sentence like *The auditorium holds 5000 people* the verb does not denote human activity. The sentence means *There can be 5000 people in this auditorium.*

2. No passive construction is possible, if the object is a that-clause, an infinitive or a gerund.

John said that everything was all right.
John enjoyed seeing his native town.

Passive constructions with ditransitive verbs

§ 69. Ditransitive verbs take two objects, usually one indirect and one direct. Accordingly they admit of two passive constructions.

The referee gave Mary the first prize.
Mary was given the first prize by the referee.

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The first prize was given to Mary by the referee.

The subject of the first passive construction (*Mary*) corresponds to the *indirect object* of the active construction, and the construction is therefore called the *indirect passive construction*. The direct object (*the first prize*) is retained unchanged after the passive verb and therefore, is called the *retained object*.

The subject of the second passive construction corresponds to the *direct object* of the active construction. In this case the indirect object becomes a prepositional one. The preposition *to* may be omitted.

The agentive by-object corresponding to the subject of the active construction is very rarely used in either type of construction. Of the two passive constructions the indirect passive is by far the most common. As there is no indirect passive construction in Russian, sentences with this construction are translated into Russian by means of the indefinite personal construction with the indirect object in the front position.

You will be given another ticket.	Вам дадут другой билет.
I was allowed an hour's rest.	Мне разрешили отдохнуть один час.

The indirect passive construction gives greater prominence to the direct object, whereas the direct passive construction emphasizes the indirect object: *The first prize was given to Mary* implies that it was not given to anybody else. The construction may be translated in two ways, by an indefinite personal active construction or by a passive construction: *Первую премию дали Мэри* or *Первая премия была дана (присуждена) Мэри*.

The presence of the by-object makes it of great communicative value.

I was given this watch *by my father*.	Часы эти мне подарил мои отец.
The watch was given (to) me *by my father*.	

Ditransitive verbs used in the passive construction

I	II
to allow	to ask
to give	to answer
to grant	to envy
to lend	to forgive
to offer	to refuse
to pay	
to promise	
to teach	
to tell	

Verbs in group I follow the usage explained in the previous part of this section. The same refers to group II with the difference that all the verbs of this group are followed by two direct objects, though in the passive the difference is not so distinct.

I was asked a lot of questions.

Restrictions on the use of the passive of ditransitive verbs

1. The indirect passive is impossible with verbs of benefaction, when the action is performed for the benefit of somebody.

They bought me a dictionary.	They bought a dictionary *for me*.

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The corresponding direct passive is: *A dictionary was bought for me.*

2. The same applies to the verbs with the obligatory *to* of the type *to explain something to somebody* (*to describe, to dictate, to suggest*, etc.). With these only the direct passive is possible:

The rule was explained to them once more.

3. In verb-phrases containing a non-prepositional and a prepositional object only the non-prepositional passive is possible.

I was told about their victory.
Oliver was accused of theft.

4. The infinitive cannot be used as the subject of the passive construction with a ditransitive verb.

§ 70. Passive constructions with prepositional monotransitive verbs

Active: The man *referred to* this book.
Passive: This book *was referred to* by the man.

In the passive construction the subject of the prepositional passive construction corresponds to the object of the active construction and denotes the receiver of the action. The peculiarity of the construction is that the preposition sticks to the verb.
Most verbs of this type denote the process of speaking, mental and physical perception.
The prepositional passive construction has no equivalent in Russian and is translated by an indefinite personal active construction.

Caroline *was* also *still being talked about*.	О Кэролайн тоже все еще продолжали говорить.
He *had* never *been spoken to* that way in his life.	С ним так никогда в жизни не разговаривали.
He's well *spoken of* as a man of science.	О нем хорошо отзываются как об ученом.

When the prepositional passive construction contains a modal verb, an impersonal active construction is used in Russian.

These pictures *must be looked at* again and again with sustained attention before they completely reveal their beauty.	На эти картины надо смотреть снова и снова с неослабевающим вниманием, прежде чем полностью раскроется их красота.

Here are some of the most important prepositional monotransitive verbs:

I	II	III
to account for	to catch sight of	to arrive at
to agree upon	to lose sight of	to come to
to appeal to	to find fault with	to live in
to call on	to make fun of	to sleep in
to comment on (upon)	to make a fuss of	to sit in (on)
to deal with	to make use of	
to decide on	to pay attention to	
to depend (up)on	to put an end (a stop) to	
to dispose of	to put up with	
to dwell upon	to set fire to	
to hear of	to take notice of	

to insist on	to take advantage of
to interfere with	to take care of
to laugh at	
to listen to	
to look at	
to look for	
to look into	
to object to	
to pay for	
to provide for	
to put up with	
to read to	
to refer to	
to rely on	
to send for	
to speak about (of)	
to speak to	
to talk about (of)	
to think about (of)	
to touch upon	
to wait for	
to wonder at	

Group I in the list contains the majority (but not all) of prepositional transitive verbs. The list could be continued, for a number of verbs of the kind are used occasionally, but the pattern itself is very productive.

Some prepositional monotransitive verbs have non-prepositional equivalents, e.g. *to account for* is a synonym for *to explain, to look on - to regard, to speak (talk) about - to discuss.*

Your absence must be accounted for. = Your absence must be explained.

Group II contains phraseological units based on the fusion of a monotransitive verb and a noun as direct object. These units express one notion and function as prepositional verbs. Many of them have synonyms among monotransitive verbs, prepositional and non-prepositional:

to take care of	*- to look after, to tend;*
to find fault with	*- to grumble at, about, to criticize;*
to put an end to	*- to stop;*
to put up with	*- to reconcile oneself to;*
to make fun of	*- to laugh at, to mock.*

Like single prepositional verbs the phraseological units with the verb in the passive voice are usually rendered in Russian by means of indefinite personal or impersonal constructions.

In hospital patients *are taken great care of.*	В госпитале за больными хорошо ухаживают.
The boy was the only child and *was made a lot of fuss of.*	Мальчик был единственным ребенком в семье, и с ним много возились.
I'm not prepared to think that I'*m being made a fool of.*	Мне не хочется думать, что меня дурачат.

Sometimes a phraseological unit is split and the original direct object becomes the subject of the passive construction (the direct passive).

No notice was taken of the boy at first. - Сначала мальчика не замечали.

Group III contains a short list of intransitive verbs used with prepositional nominal groups functioning as prepositional objects or adverbial modifiers. These may form passive constructions by analogy with other verbs used with prepositions:

No conclusion *was arrived at.*	Не пришли ни к какому заключению.
His bed *hasn't been slept in.*	В его постели не спали. (Она не смята)
Such a dress *can't be sat down in.*	В таком платье нельзя садиться.

The use of the passive voice

§ 71. The passive voice is widely used in English. It is used alongside the active voice in written and spoken English. Passive constructions are often used instead of active constructions in sentences beginning with an indefinite pronoun, a noun or a pronoun of indefinite reference.

Somebody left the dog in the garden.	= The dog was left in the garden.
Has anybody answered your questions?	= Have your questions been answered?
People will laugh at you for your trouble.	= You will be laughed at for your trouble.
They told me to go away.	= I was told to go away.

It is evident that in the process of speech passive constructions arise naturally, not as a result of conversion from the active into the passive.

A passive construction is preferable in case when the speaker is interested in what happens to the person or thing denoted by the subject. The verb or the whole verb phrase is thus made more prominent. The agent or the source of the action is not mentioned at all, either because it is unknown or because it is of no particular importance in the utterance, or else it is evident from the context or the situation. The predicate verb with its modifiers contains a new and most important item of information and is of great communicative value.

> We were brought up together.
> I am always being contradicted.
> Thank you for your help, but it is no longer required.
> You will be met as you leave the airport, and you will be given another ticket.
> In silence the soup was finished - excellent, if a little thick; and fish was brought. In silence it was handed.

There are a number of conventional expressions where the passive voice is constantly used.

> The novel was published in 1929.
> Shakespeare was born in 1564.

The use of the agentive *by-object*

§ 72. The use of the agentive by-object is highly restricted, it occurs in one case out of five, and even less frequently in colloquial speech and imaginative prose. However, when it does occur, the by-object is of great communicative value, and its elimination would often make the meaning of the verb incomplete and the sentence devoid of meaning.

The agent may be a living being, or any thing or notion that can be the source of the action.

> The whole scene was being enacted by puppets.

In some areas the picture has been barely touched by the brush.
I was wounded by a landmine.
The distant mountain had been formed by fire and water.
How much was she influenced by that fake idea?

Besides a noun and very rarely a pronoun, a by-object may be a gerundial phrase or complex, or a subordinate clause.

I was then awakened only by knocking on the window and Annie telling the person responsible to go off.
She didn't really know anything about people, she was always being taken in by what they told her.

Owing to its communicative value and the final position in the sentence, the by-object may be expanded, if necessary, to an extent that is hardly possible in the subject group, as in this commentary on Cezanne's painting:

"The Card Players." The subject of this painting of two peasants playing cards was probably inspired *by a similar composition by one of the brothers de Pack, French painters of the seventeenth century whose work Cezanne admired.*

The category of mood

§ 73. The meaning of this category is the attitude of the speaker or writer towards the content of the sentence, whether the speaker considers the action real, unreal, desirable, necessary, etc. It is expressed in the form of the verb.

There are three moods in English - **the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood.**

The indicative mood

§ 74. The indicative mood form shows that what is said must be regarded as a fact, as something which has occurred or is occurring at the moment of speaking or will occur in the future. It may denote actions with different time-reference and different aspective characteristics. Therefore the indicative mood has a wide variety of tense and aspect forms in the active and passive voice.

The imperative mood

§ 75. The imperative mood expresses a command or a request to perform an action addressed to somebody, but not the action itself. As it does not actually denote an action as a real act, it has no tense category; the unfulfilled action always refers to the future. Aspect distinctions and voice distinctions are not characteristic of the imperative mood, although forms such as, *be writing, be warned* sometimes occur.

The imperative mood form coincides with the plain stem of the verb, for example: *Come here! Sit down.* The negative form is built by means of the auxiliary **do** + the negative particle *not* (the contracted form is *don't*). This form is always addressed to the second person.

Do not take it away.
Don't worry about the child.
Don't be a *fool.*

Note:

Do is also used in commands or requests to make them more emphatic: ***Do come and stay*** with us. ***Do be quiet.***

In commands and requests addressed to a first or third person (or persons) the analytical form *let* + infinitive without the particle *to* is used. The verb *let* functions as an auxiliary, and it partly loses its lexical meaning. The person addressed is expressed by the personal pronoun in the objective case.

Let us go together.
Let him finish his dinner first.
Let Andrew do it himself.

In negative sentences the analytical forms take the particle **not** without an auxiliary.

Let us not argue on the matter.
Let him not overestimate his chances.
Let her not go any further.

Note:

In sentences like *Don't let him go* the negation refers to the verb *let*, which in this case fully retains its original meaning of permission.

The analytical forms differ in meaning from the synthetic forms, because their meaning is closely connected with the meaning of the pronoun included in the form. Thus *let us do smth* denotes an invitation to a joint action, not an order or a request. *Let him do it* retains to some extent the meaning of permission. In the form *let me (let me do it)* the first person singular does not convey any imperative meaning and should not therefore be regarded as the imperative. It conveys the meaning of *I am eager to do it, allow me to do it.*

The imperative mood form can't be used in questions.

The subjunctive mood

§ 76. The subjunctive mood is the category of the verb which is used to express non-facts: unreal or hypothetical actions or states. A hypothetical action or state may be viewed upon as **desired, necessary, possible, supposed, imaginary,** or **contradicting reality.**
Different forms of the verb are employed for this purpose.

The synthetic forms

§ 77. In Old English the subjunctive mood was expressed by a special system of forms with a special set of inflections, different from those of the indicative. In the course of time, however, most of the inflections were lost, and the difference between the forms of the subjunctive and those of the indicative has almost disappeared. In Modern English there remain only two synthetic forms of the old regular system of the subjunctive, which differ from the forms of the indicative. Although their meaning and use have changed considerably, they are often called by their old names: **the present subjunctive** and **the past subjunctive.**

I. **The present subjunctive** coincides with **the plain verb stem** (*be, go, see*) **for all persons** in both the singular and the plural. It denotes a hypothetical action referring to the present or future. Of these surviving forms only *be* is always distinct from the indicative forms and is therefore rather current.

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I
he
she
it   } be, take, resent, etc.
we
you
they

He required that all *be* kept secret.

Other verbs are rarely used in the subjunctive in informal style, because their subjunctive forms coincide with the indicative except in the 3rd person singular. They are confined mainly to formal style and formulaic expressions - prayers, wishes, which should be memorized as wholes.

It is natural enough the enemy *resent* it.
Heaven *forbid!* The devil *take* him!
Long *live* freedom! God *save* the king!

II. **The past subjunctive** is even more restricted in its usage; it exists in Modern English only in the form *were*, which is used for all persons both in the singular and plural. It refers the hypothetical action to the present or future and shows that it contradicts reality.

If I *were* you!
If you *were* there!
If it *were* true!

The modem tendency, however, is to use was and were in accordance with the rules of agreement (he was, they were).

The non-factual forms of the tenses

§ 78. Owing to the same process of the obliteration of distinctions between the old subjunctive and the indicative the same forms have come to be used for both purposes in Modern English. To differentiate those used to express hypothetical actions or states (non-facts) from tenses in the indicative they will be called **non-factual forms of the tenses.**

The non-factual past indefinite and past continuous are used to denote hypothetical actions in the present or future; the non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous denote hypothetical actions in the past. These two pairs of forms differ not only in their time-reference but also in their degree of improbability: *If I had only known* expresses greater improbability than *If I only knew* because it refers to a time which has already passed. In Russian this difference is not reflected in the form of the verb.

The wide use of the non-factual past indefinite (*If I knew, if he came...*) probably accounts for the strong tendency in Modern English to substitute *was* for the past subjunctive form *were*, at least in less formal style. This tendency makes the system of subjunctive mood forms more similar and comparable to the system of indicative mood forms: *if I knew..., if I was* (instead of *were*), *I wish I knew..., I wish I was* (instead of *were*).

On the other hand, were is often used instead of was in the non-factual past continuous.

He smiled as *if he were enjoying* the situation.

The analytical forms

§ 79. Most of the later formations are analytical, built by means of the auxiliaries which developed from the modal verbs **should** and **would**, plus any form of **the infinitive**. The auxiliaries, generally called *mood auxiliaries*, have lost their lexical meaning and are used in accordance with strict rules in certain patterns of sentences or clauses. In cases where *should* and *would* retain their original modal meaning or their use is not determined by any strict rules, they should be regarded as modal verbs, forming a compound verbal (or nominal) modal predicate. You *should be more palient* with the child.

Still, some modal verbs are regularly used to denote hypothetical actions in certain syntactic patterns - **may/might + infinitive, can/could + infinitive,** but to a certain degree retain their original meaning. These will be regarded as quasi-subjunctive forms.

> However much you *may argue*, he will do as he pleases (expresses possibility).
> I wish I *could help* you (expresses ability).
> If you *would agree* to visit my uncle, ... (expresses wish).

Analytic forms may be divided into three groups, according to their use and function.

I. The forms **should + infinitive** (for the first person singular and plural) and **would + infinitive** (for the other persons). This system coincides in form with the future in the past. These forms may be used either in a simple sentence or in the main clause.

There is a strong tendency in Modern English to use *would* for all persons, in the same way as *will* is used instead of *shall* in the indicative mood. Another tendency is to use the contracted form of *would – 'd* for all person in informal style. (Compare this usage with that of the contracted form *'ll* in the indicative.)

These forms denote hypothetical actions, either imagined as resulting from hypothetical conditions, or else presented as a real possibility.

> I *would not praise* the boy so much.
> *Would* you *help* me if I need your help?
> He *would smoke* too much if I didn't stop him now and again.

II. The form **would + infinitive for all persons,** both singular and plural. This form is highly specialised in meaning; it expresses a desirable action in the future. It may be used both in simple and complex sentences.

> Let us invite him. He *would gladly accept* the invitation.
> I wish you *would go* there too.

III. The form **should + infinitive for all persons.** This form stands apart in the system of the verb, as contrary to the general tendency to use either two forms - *should* and *would*, or else to use one form - *would* for all persons. The meaning of the form is rather broad - it depends on the context.

> It is important that all the students *should be informed* about it.
> It is strange that we *should have met* in the same place.

It can easily be seen that most of the forms used to express hypothetical actions are homonymous with the indicative mood forms, either with tense forms or with free combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive. Hence most forms are recognizable as subjunctive only under certain conditions:

1) when they are used in certain sentence or clause patterns. We shall regard such cases as structurally determined use of the subjunctive mood;

2) when their use is determined by the lexical meaning of the verb or conjunction (see below examples with the verb *wish* and the conjunction *lest*).

3) in some set expressions (formulaic utterances) which have to be learned as wholes and in which no element of the structure can be omitted or replaced. We shall regard these cases as *the traditional use of* the forms.

The first two conditions very often overlap.

The subjunctive mood and the tense category

§ 80. The category of tense in the subjunctive mood is different from that in the indicative mood: unlike the indicative mood system in which there are three distinct time-spheres (past, present, future), time-reference in the subjunctive mood is closely connected with the idea of unreality and is based on the following opposition in meaning:

Imagined, but still possible   **imagined, no longer possible**
(referring to the present or future indiscriminately)   (referring to the past)

The difference in meaning is expressed by means of the following contrasting forms:

1) The common or continuous non-perfect infinitive as contrasted with the perfect common or continuous infinitive in the analytical forms with *should, would*, and quasi-subjunctive forms with *may (might)*.

Referring to the Present or Future	**Referring to the Past**
I fear lest he *should escape.*	I fear lest he *should have escaped.*
He *would phone* you.	He *would have phoned* you.
I suppose he *should be working* in the library.	I suppose he *should have been working* in the library.

2) The forms of the non-factual past indefinite and past continuous contrast with the forms of the non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous in time reference:

Referring to the Present or Future	**Referring to the Past**
If I *knew.*	If I *had known*.
I wish I *were warned* when the time-table is changed.	I wish I *had been warned.*

In case these forms are used in subordinate clauses (as is usually the case) their time-reference is always relative. The non-factual past indefinite and past continuous indicate that the hypothetical action is regarded as simultaneous with the action expressed in the principal clause; the non-factual past perfect and past perfect continuous indicate actions prior to the action expressed in the principal clause.

We did things and talked to the people as if *we were walking* in our sleep.
His face was haggard as if he *had been working* the whole night.

The opposition of the non-perfect continuous infinitive and the perfect continuous infinitive is less distinct, as these forms are not so common: an imaginary action is usually presented as devoid of any aspective characteristics.
The old synthetic forms (*he be, he come, he were*) have no corresponding oppositions in time-reference.

Structurally determined use of subjunctive mood forms

§ 81. In Modern English the choice of the subjunctive mood form is determined by the structure of the sentence or clause even more than by the attitude of the speaker or writer to what is said or written. There exist strict rules of the use of the forms in different patterns of sentences and clauses.

The subjunctive mood in subject clauses

§ 82. 1. The use of the subjunctive mood forms **in subject clauses** in complex sentences of the type *It is necessary that you should come.*

Subject clauses follow the principal clause, which is either formal or has no subject (exclamatory). The predicate of the principal clause expresses some kind of modality, estimate, or some motive for performing the action denoted by the predicate in the subordinate clause. This close connection between the two predicates accounts for the nature of the subordinate clause, which completes, or rather gives meaning to general situation described in the principal clause.

Should + infinitive or *present subjunctive* is generally used in this pattern in the subject clause.

It is (was) necessary	
It is (was) important	
It is (was) only right	
It is (was) curious	
It is (was) funny	
It is (was) good (better, best)	
It is (was) cruel	
It is (was) shameful	that he should say so.
It is (was) a happy coincidence	(that he say so).
It is (was) considered strange	
It is (was) recomended	
It becomes (became) a custom	
It seems (seemed) to me prophetic	
How wonderful	
What a shame	
How strange	
etc.	

It is sad that *you should have heard* of it on the day of your wedding.
It is a happy coincidence that *we should meet* here.
It shocked him that *he should have been* so blind.
It was suggested that *somebody should inform* the police.
It was more important that *he should care for* her enough.

In American English the present subjunctive is predominant in this sentence pattern:

It is sad that you *be* here.

In exclamatory complex sentences:

How wonderful that she *should have* such a feeling for you!
What a scandal that Palmer and Antonia *should go* to the opera together!

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If the principal clause expresses *possibility (it is probable, possible, likely) may (might) + non-perfect infinitive* is used, because the action is referred to the future (*Возможно, что...; похоже, что...; видимо...*)

> It is likely the weather *may change.*
> It is possible the key *may be lost*.

In negative and interrogative sentences, however, *should + infinitive* is used:

It is not possible that he should have guessed it.	Невероятно, чтобы...
Is it possible that he should refuse to come?	Возможно ли, чтобы...

Note:

If in sentences introduced by it the reference is made to an existing fact or state of things, the indicative mood may be used in the subordinate clause.

> It is strange that he *behaves* like that.
> Is it possible that he *has taken* the key?

---

2. **After the principal clause expressing time** - *it is time, it is high time* -the past subjunctive or non-factual forms are used.

> It is time you *went* to bed.
> It is high time he *were more serious*.
> It was hight time he *had come to a decision*.

The subjunctive mood in object clauses

§ 83. The choice of the subjunctive mood form in object clauses depends on the meaning of the verb standing before the object clause.

1. In object clauses after verbs **expressing order** (*to order, to command, to give orders, to give instructions, to demand, to urge, to insist, to require*), **request** (*to request, to appeal, to beg*), **suggestion** (*to suggest, to recommend, to propose, to move, to advise*) either *should + infinitive* or *the present subjunctive* is used, the first form being more common than the second.

> We urged that in future these relations *should be more friendly*.
> Mr. Nupkins commanded that the lady *should be* shown in.

In American English the present subjunctive in this sentence pattern is predominant.

> People don't demand that a thing *be reasonable* if their emotions are touched.
> I suggested that she *give up* driving, but she looked too miserable.

The same form is used after the predicative adjectives *sorry, glad, pleased, vexed, eager, anxious, determined*, etc., if the action is regarded as an imagined one.

> I am sorry she *should take* such needless trouble.
> His brother's suggestion was absurd. He was vexed his relatives *should interfere* into his private matters.

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2. In object clauses after the verb **wish** and phrases expressing the same idea I **had better**, I **would rather**, or the contracted form **I'd rather** -different forms may be used, depending on the time-reference of the action in the object clause. If the action refers to the present or future, or is simultaneous with the action expressed in the principal clause, the non-factual past indefinite, past continuous, or past subjunctive is used. After *I'd rather* the present subjunctive is also possible.

I wish *I knew* something of veterinary medicine. There's a feeling of helplessness with a sick animal.
I wish *you came* here more often. I hardly ever see you.
I would rather *you went* now.
I'd rather you *didn't help* me, actually.

Note:

To express a *realizable wish* an infinitive, not a clause is generally used:

 I want him to come.
 I should like to discuss things in detail.
 He wished it to be true.

If the action refers to the past or is prior to the moment it is desired the non-factual past perfect or past perfect continuous is used, no matter in what tense the verb in the principal clause is. Thus in both the sentences *I wish I hadn't come* and *I wished I hadn't come* the non-factual past perfect denotes a prior imaginary action, contradicting reality.

We wished *we hadn't left* everything to the last minute.
I wish *I had been taught* music in my childhood.

If the desired action refers to the future the following subjunctive forms may be used:

would + infinitive (only when the subject of the subordinate clause and that of the principal clause do not denote the same thing or person). It denotes a kind of request.
could + infinitive
may (might) + infinitive

The form *would + infinitive* is used when the fulfilment of the wish depends on the will of the person denoted by the subject of the subordinate clause. If the fulfilment of the wish depends more on the circumstances, the quasi-subjunctive form *may (might) + infinitive* is preferable, to show that the realization of the action is very unlikely.

I wish *you would treat* me better.
I wish *I could help* you.
I wish he *might have helped* me.

When rendering wish-clauses into Russian it is possible to use a clause with the opposite meaning, introduced by the impersonal «жаль», «как жаль», «какая жалость» or by the finite form of the verb «сожалеть».

I wish I knew it.   - Жаль, что я этого не знаю.
I wish I didn't know it!   - Какая жалость, что я это знаю!

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I wish I had known about it!   - Жаль, что я не знал об этом!

3. In object clauses after verbs expressing **fear, apprehension, worry** (*to fear, to be afraid, to be terrified, to be anxious, to worry, to be fearful, to be troubled, to be in terror, to tremble, to dread*, etc.) two forms are used, depending on the conjunction introducing the clause:

a) after the conjunction *that* or if the clause is joined asyndetically, the quasi-subjunctive ***may/might*** + ***infinitive*** is used. The choice of either *may* or *might* depends on the tense of the verb in the main clause.

They trembled (that) they *might be discovered*.   Они дрожали, что их могут обнаружить.
I fear (that) he *may forget* about it.   Боюсь, как бы он не забыл об этом.

b) after the conjunction *lest* the form ***should*** + ***infinitive*** is used.

The passengers were terrified lest the ship   Пассажиров охватил ужас, как бы корабль не
should catch fire.   загорелся.

The indicative forms are also possible in clauses of this type if the action is regarded as a real one:

She was afraid that he *had changed* his mind.

4. In object clauses after verbs and phrases expressing **doubt** (*to doubt, to disbelieve, to have doubts, to greet with scepticism*, etc.) and after some other verbs in the negative form the past subjunctive may be used. The subordinate clause is introduced by *if* or *whether*.

We had doubts if *it were possible* to cross the river at this time of the year.
I doubted she *had* even *been* there.

5. In object clauses referring to the formal **it** + ***objective predicative***, expressing opinion of some situation, the choice of the form depends on the general meaning of the principal clause:

We found ***it strange*** that he *should speak* so calmly after the events (the principal clause expresses the
idea of disbelief, hence the form *should speak* is used).
We regard ***it as highly probable*** that he *may return* soon (the principal clause expresses the idea of
probability, hence the form *may return* is used).

The subjunctive mood in appositive and predicative clauses

§ 84. The choice of the form in these clauses is determined by the lexical meaning of the words these clauses follow or refer to.

The **order** that *we should come* surprised me. (appositive clause)
The **order** was that *we should come*. (predicative clause)
His **suggestion** that *we stop* and *have* a look round the castle was rather sudden. (appositive clause)
His **suggestion** was that *we stop* and *have* a look round the castle. (predicative clause)

1. The forms *should* + *infinitive* or *the present subjunctive* are used after nouns expressing *wish, advice, desire, proposal, doubt, hesitation, fear, apprehension*, etc. After the last two nouns the conjunction lest is used.

Mary's **wish** was that *we should stay* at her place as long as possible. (predicative clause)
Your **advice** that *he wait* till next week is reasonable. (appositive clause)
Our **fear** lest *he should give away* our secret was great. (appositive clause)
Our **fear** was lest *we should get lost* in the forest. (predicative clause)

2. In predicative clauses joined by the link verbs *to be, to seem, to look, to feel, to taste, to smell*, etc. the past subjunctive or non-factual tense forms are used. In this case the clause has a comparative meaning and is accordingly introduced by the comparative conjunctions *as if, as though*. If the action in the subordinate clause is simultaneous with the action in the principal clause the past subjunctive or non-factual past indefinite is used. If the action is prior to that in the principal clause, the non-factual past perfect is used.

He looked *as if he were ill* (his being ill is simultaneous with the time when his looks are commented upon).
He looked *as if he had been ill* (his being ill was prior to the time his looks are commented upon).
The house looked *as if it had been deserted* for years.
I felt *as though I were talking* to a child.
It was *as if I were being attacked* by an invisible enemy.

> **Note:**
>
> There is a tendency in informal style to use the indicative forms instead of the subjunctive ones, especially if one is confident of the exactitude of the comparison.
>
> Ingrid looks *as if she has a bath every morning.*
> You sound *as if you've got the whole world on your shoulders.*

The subjunctive mood in complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition

§ 85. Complex sentences may include conditional clauses expressing real condition and unreal condition. In the first case the indicative mood is used, in the second the subjunctive. Both conditions may refer to the past, present or future.
In sentences with real condition any form of the indicative may be used.

If she *heard it, she gave no sign.*
Why *did he send* us matches, *If he knew* there was no gas?
If I *have offended you*, I *am very sorry.*
You *may go away if* it *bothers* you.
Now it was serious. *If I had laughed about it before*, I *wasn't laughing* now.
If he *was lying*, he *was a good actor.*

Since the majority of conditional clauses are introduced by *if* they are often called *if-clauses*. Other conjunctions used to introduce conditional clauses are *unless, in case, supposing (that), suppose (that), providing (that), provided (that), on condition (that).* Each of them expresses a conditional relation with a certain shade of meaning, and their use is restricted either for semantic or stylistic reasons. Thus *unless* has a negative meaning, although it is not identical with *if not*. Clauses introduced by *unless* indicate the *only condition* which may prevent the realization of the action in the main clause. *Unless* can be rendered in Russian by 'если только не'.

He is ruined *unless he can get a million to pay off his debts.*

The Russian conjunction with negation «если не» cannot be rendered by *unless* if the negation refers only to the part of the compound predicate. In this case *if not* should be used.

Оденься теплее, если не хочешь заболеть.
Put on a warm coat, *if you don't want to catch cold.*

The conjunction *in case* has a specific shade of meaning, combining condition and purpose and may be translated into Russian as 'на тот случай если'.

Take an umbrella *in case if rains.*

The conjunctions *suppose (that)* and *supposing (that)* retain their original meaning of supposition. The conjunctions *provided (that)* and *providing (that)* imply that the supposed condition is favourable or desirable.

Suppose you get lost in the city, what will you do?
Providing (that) there is no opposition we will hold the meeting here.

These conjunctions may also introduce clauses of unreal condition.
In complex sentences containing an unreal condition the subjunctive mood is used in both the conditional clause and in the principal clause, because the action expressed in the principal clause depends on the unreal condition and cannot be realized either. The choice of forms depends on the time-reference of the actions.

1. If the unreal actions in both the if-clause and the main clause refer to the present or future *the non-factual past indefinite*, or *past continuous*, or *the past subjunctive* is used in the subordinate clause and *should/would + non-perfect common or continuous infinitive* in the main clause.

If I *were* a young man now, you *wouldn't be looking* for a porter.
You *wouldn't be talking* that way unless you *were hurt.*
I *shouldn't speak* to you unless *I were determined.*

2. If both actions refer to the past and contradict reality *the non-factual past perfect* or *past perfect continuous* is used in the if-clause and *should/would + perfect* or *perfect continuous infinitive* in the main clause.

If he *had not insisted* upon her going there, nothing *would* ever *have happened.*
Unless he had been grinning happily at us, I *should have sworn he was* mortally *wounded.*

Clauses of unreal condition with the verb in the non-factual past perfect, past perfect continuous, past subjunctive (also should + infinitive and could + infinitive, see below) may be introduced asyndetically. In this case inversion serves as a means of subordination.

Had the world *been watching, it would have been startled.*
Were you in my place *you would behave* in the same way.

§ 86. The actions in the main and subordinate clauses may have **different time-reference**, if the sense of the clauses requires it. Sentences of this kind are said to have **split condition**. The unreal condition may refer to the past and the consequence - to the present or future.

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If we *hadn't been* such fools *we should all still be together*.

How much better *I should write* now if in my youth *I had had* the advantage of sensible advice!

I *shouldn't be bothering* you like this if they *hadn't told* me downtown that he was coming up this way.

Split condition is possible for sentences with real condition as well:

If you saw him yesterday you know all the news.
If you live in this part of the city you knew of the accident yesterday.

The condition may refer to no particular time, and the consequence may refer to the past.

She *wouldn't have told* me her story if she *disliked* me.
John *wouldn't have lost* the key unless he *were so absent-minded*.

§ 87. There are three more types of conditional clauses with reference to the future.

1. In the first type **should + infinitive** for all the persons is used in the conditional clause and *the future indefinite indicative* or *the imperative mood* in the principal clause.

If *you should meet* him, *give* him my best regards.
If *you should find* another way out, *will you inform* me?

Conditional clauses of this type are sometimes joined to the main clause asyndetically, by means of inversion.

Should he ask for references, *tell* him to apply to me.
Should anything change, you will return home.

In these sentences the action in the conditional clause is presented as possible, but very unlikely. Such clauses are called clauses of *problematic condition*. They may be rendered in Russian as «случись так, что... », «если случайно...», «если так случится, что...», «вдруг что-нибудь», etc.

2. In the second type **would + infinitive** for all the persons in the singular and plural is used in the conditional clause and *should/would + infinitive* or *the indicative mood* in the main clause. *Would* retains its original meaning of willingness or consent (если бы вы согласились, изъявили желание, захотели бы).

If you would only come to our place, *we'll be very glad* (we should be very glad).

3. In the third type *the past subjunctive* of the modal verb *to be + (to) infinitive* is used in the conditional clause and **should/would + infinitive** or *the imperative mood* in the principal clause. Both actions have future or present time-reference.

If you *were to undertake* it, everything *would be different* (if by chance you undertook it).
If I *were to tell* you everything, you *would be amazed.* - Если бы мне пришлось рассказать вам все, вы
бы удивились.

The form *were + to* implies greater remoteness and improbability of the action, but does not imply a rejection of it.

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Sentences and clauses of implied condition

§ 88. An implied condition is not openly stated in a clause, but is suggested either by an adverbial part of the sentence, or else by the context -from the preceding or following sentence, or coordinated clause.

1. The form ***should/would + infinitive*** is used in simple sentences with an adverbial modifier of condition introduced by *but for, except for (если бы не...)* which imply an unreal condition with an opposite meaning:

But for luck he would be still living alone. - Если бы не удача, он бы все еще жил в одиночестве.

The implication is: if it had not been for luck, he would be still living alone. (In fact he was lucky and he is not living alone.)

These people *would long ago have been forgotten, but for* the artist's genius.
That's all I can remember. I *wouldn't have remembered* anything at all *but for you.*
Except for the sound of his breathing, I *wouldn't have known* he was there.

2. As stated above a condition may be implied by the preceding or following sentence or coordinated clause:

- What *would you do* if *you had* money?
- Oh, I *should do* many things!

This was the sort of thing *he would have liked to explain* to someone, only no one wanted to hear.
(If anyone had wanted to hear, he would have explained this sort of thing to them.)

They had no desire to spread scandal. Otherwise they *would have demanded their due*.
(Had they had the desire to spread scandal, they would have demanded their due.)

I *would have gone* too, but I was tied up to Joseph.
(If I had not been tied up to Joseph, I would have gone too.)

On the whole the non-factual use of tenses is rather rare in simple sentences, although they do occasionally occur.

As a child *I'd given* anything for that - В детстве я бы все отдал за это.

Modal verbs or phrases in conditional clauses

§ 89. The modal verbs *can, will, may/might* are freely used in the non-factual past indefinite to express unreality in conditional and principal clauses. Like the mood auxiliaries *should, would* they may be combined with different infinitives:

a)   **in main clauses**

If I had time
{
I could go there
I would go there
I might go there
I should go there

b)   **in subordinate clauses**

If I could translate this
article
If he might translate this
article
If I would translate this   } it would be nice.
article
(if I consented to do it)
If I translated this article

There may be a modal phrase in both clauses of the sentence, or in one clause only.

If you *would be frank* with me I *might perhaps be of more help.*
... and had he so desired he *might have been persona grata* with the diplomatic set.
If she *could have been compressed* to about three quarters of her actual width, she would have been very
attractive.
Anselmo grinned in the darkness. An hour ago he *could not have imagined* that he would ever smile again.
I *would have kept on going*, if I hadn't had to leave Paris.

The subjunctive mood in adverbial clauses of comparison

§ 90. Several forms of subjunctive are used in clauses of comparison depending on the time-reference.

1. If the action in the comparative clause is simultaneous with that in the main clause, the non-factual past indefinite or past subjunctive is used.

2. If the action in the comparative clause is prior to that in the main clause, the non-factual past perfect is used.

The usual conjunctions introducing comparative clauses are *as if* and *as though*.

His eyes wandered *as if he were at a loss.*
He paid no attention to us, *as though we did not exist*.
Miss Handforth was holding a tea-pot *as if it were a hand grenade*.
And so we faced each other after three years of letter-writing *as if we had been having a beer* every afternoon for years.

3. If the action in the subordinate clause is presented as following the action in the main clause ***would + infinitive*** is used.

He was whistling gaily *as if his heart would break* for joy.

The subjunctive mood in adverbial clauses of purpose

§ 91. In clauses of purpose the form used depends on the conjunction introducing the clause.

1. After the conjunctions **that, so that, in order that, so** the quasi-subjunctive forms *may (might) +*

infinitive or *can (could) + infinitive* are used. Only *might* and *could* are used if the action in the subordinate clause, though following the action in the main clause, refers to the past. But when the action refers to the present or future, both forms of each verb are possible (*may* or *might, can* or *could*).

I tell you this *so that you may understand* the situation.
She left the lamp on the window-sill, *so that he might see* it from afar.
She gave him the book *that he might have* something to read on the journey.

2. After the negative conjunction **lest** (чтобы не) ***should + infinitive*** is generally used.

The girl whispered these words *lest somebody should overhear* her.
He was afraid to look behind *lest he should see* something there which ought not to be there.

The subjunctive mood in adverbial clauses of concession

§ 92. Concessive clauses may either be joined to the main clause asyndetically, or else be introduced by a connective *(however, whoever, whatever, whenever)*, a conjunction *(though, although, even if, even though)*; also by a phrase, such as *no matter how, no matter when*.

If the action refers to the present or future the quasi-subjunctive form ***may + infinitive*** or ***present subjunctive*** is used in the subordinate clause. If the action refers to the past ***may + perfect infinitive*** or ***perfect continuous infinitive***, or ***might + infinitive*** is used. Forms with ***should + infinitive***, ***would + infinitive***, and non-factual tense forms are also possible, though less typical.

He can be right, *no matter whether his arguments be convincing or not.*
Tired as he may be he will always help me.
Though he might have been suspicious he gave no sign.
No matter how he might try he couldn't do it.
Much as I would like to help, I didn't dare to interfere.

When a concessive clause is joined asyndetically, there is usually inversion. The front position is occupied by the part, that states the circumstance despite which the action in the main clause is carried out. Thus it lends a concessive meaning to the clause. In the following sentences the concessive meaning is focused on the part of the predicate:

Come what may, we shall remain here.	- Чтобы ни случилось ...
Cost what it may, I'll give you the sum you ask.	- Сколько бы это ни стоило...
Tired as he might be, he continued his way.	- Как бы он ни устал ...

The focus of the concessive meaning may fall on the nominal or adverbial part of the clause.

Whoever he may be, he has no right to be rude.	- Кто бы он ни был ...
Whatever you may say, our decision remains unchanged.	- Чтобы ты ни говорил ...
Whichever of the two roads we may take, the distance is great.	- По какой бы из двух дорог мы ни пошли ...
Wherever we might go, we found the same gloomy sight.	- Куда бы мы ни пошли ...
Whenever I may ask him a question, he always has a ready answer.	- Когда бы я ни задал ему вопрос ...
He will not convince us *however hard he should try*.	- ... как бы сильно он ни пытался.

Concessive clauses introduced by *even if, even though* are built up on the same pattern as conditional clauses and the same subjunctive mood forms are used in the subordinate clause.

Even if it were true, he couldn't say so.
Even though he had proposed, nothing has changed since that day.

Concessive meaning may be rendered by the indicative mood in the same patterns of clauses, if the fact despite which the action is carried out is a real one.

Cold as it is, we shall go out. (it is really cold)
Tired as he was, he continued his work.
Though he was 36, he looked very old.
It was not meant to offend you, no *matter how ironic it sounded*.

The subjunctive mood in simple sentences

§ 93. Besides cases when the subjunctive mood forms are used in simple sentences to express an unreal action as a consequence of an implied condition (see § 88), these forms are also used in simple sentences of the following kind:

1. In exclamatory sentences beginning with **if only** to express a wish. They follow the same pattern as conditional clauses, and *would + infinitive, past subjunctive*, non-factual tense forms are used.

If only it were true!
If only I knew what to do!
If only I had listened to my parents!
If only it would stop raining!
If only we could have stopped him!

2. In exclamatory sentences to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts (surprise and disbelief). Here *should + infinitive* is used.

And this should happen just on this day!
That it should be you of all people!

3. In questions expressing astonishment or indignation the analytical form *should + infinitive* is used:

Why should you and I talk about it?
How should I know?
Why should you suspect me?
Why should you not do it?

The traditional use of the subjunctive mood in formulaic expressions

§ 94. These forms remained as survivals of old usage and they are used as wholes, in which no element of structure can be omitted or replaced.
Most of them have a religious origin and express a wish or a prayer: *God bless you! (Bless you!) God save the king! Heaven forbid! The Devil take him!*
In many cases, however, formulaic expressions may be expanded by variable elements (parts of the sentence or clauses), thus making productive patterns in Modern English. They vary in their meaning, although mostly express a wish. Among them are:

1. **Forms used in slogans:** *Long live the Army! Long live patriotism! Long live the fighters for peace! Long live heroes!;*

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2. **Forms used in oaths, curses, and imprecations:** *Manners be hanged! Confound* your ideas! *Confound* the politics!

Far be it from me to spoil the fan!	- Чтобы я хотел испортить вам настроение!
Far be it from me to conceal the truth!	- Чтобы я скрывал правду!
Far be it from me to argue with you!	- Чтобы я стал спорить!
Far be it from me to talk back!	- Чтобы я грубил!

Forms with *may + infinitive*, unlike modern forms with the same verb, retain the old word order:

May success attend you! May you be happy! May he win!

The subjunctive mood forms with *had better, had best, would rather, would sooner* are used in sentences denoting wish, admonition, preference, advice. Very often they are used in a contracted form: *You'd better* go at once. *You had best* take note of my direction if you wish to make sure of it.

Formulaic expressions with concessive meaning are used in complex sentences as concessive clauses:

Happen what may,
Come what will,
Come what may,   we shall not yield.
Cost what it may,

The formulaic expression *as it were* (так сказать) is used as parenthesis, emphasizing that the content of the sentence is highly figurative or non-real:

... there is, *as it were*, a transparent barrier between myself and strong emotion.
He is my best friend, my second self, *as it were*.

Table III

The subjunctive mood forms

Types of Sentences	Synthetic Forms	Analytical Forms	Non-Factual Tense Forms
Simple sentence	Ideas be hanged! If only that were true!	May it come true! I should like to see this film.	If I only knew!
Complex sentence with a subject clause	It is required that all be present.	It is important that all should come. It is likely he may come.	It is time the boy came.
Complex sentence with a predicative clause	He looks as if he were surprised.	It looks as if the weather may change. The order is that we should move.	It seems as if everybody knew. It looks as if he had known it long ago.
Complex sentence with an appositive clause		The order that we should move surprised us.	
Complex sentence with an object clause	I wish he were here.	He ordered that we should come. We feared lest he should find it out. I wish he would come.	I wish I knew it. I wish I had never met him.
Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison	The stranger looked at me as if he were surprised.		He glanced at me as if he knew. The girl spoke as if she had learned it all by heart.

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Complex sentence with an adverbial concessive clause	It is true whether it be convincing or not.	Tired as he might be, he continued his way. Though he might be tired, he his way. He will not manage it however hard he should try. Whatever faults the book may have, it is interesting enough. He would not have come	even if we had warned him.
Complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose		I tell you this so that you may understand the situation. We put the matches away lest the baby should find the box.	
Complex sentence with an adverbial conditional clause	If I were you ...	I should not object to it. I should come ... I should have called on you yesterday ... Should I meet him, I shall tell him about it.	if I knew the address if I had known the address

NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB (VERBALS)

§ 95. There are four non-finite forms of the verb in English: the infinitive (to take), the gerund (taking), participle I (taking), participle II (taken). These forms possess some verbal and some non-verbal features. The main verbal feature of the infinitive and participles I and II is that it can be used as part of analytical verbal forms (*is standing, is built, have come, will do*, etc.)

Lexically non-finites do not differ from finite forms. Grammatically the difference between the two types of forms lies in the fact that non-finites may denote a secondary action or a process related to that expressed by the finite verb.

Non-finites possess the verb categories of voice, perfect, and aspect. They lack the categories of person, number, mood, and tense.

None of the forms have morphological features of non-verbal parts of speech, neither nominal, adjectival or adverbial. In the sphere of syntax, however, non-finites possess both verbal and non-verbal features. Their non-verbal character reveals itself in their syntactical functions. Thus, the infinitive and the gerund perform the main syntactical functions of the noun, which are those of subject, object and predicative. Participle I functions as attribute, predicative and adverbial modifier; participle II as attribute and predicative. They cannot form a predicate by themselves, although unlike non-verbal parts of speech they can function as part of a compound verbal predicate.

Syntactically the verbal character of non-finites is manifested mainly in their combinability. Similarly to finite forms they may combine with nouns functioning as direct, indirect, or prepositional objects, with adverbs and prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers, and with subordinate clauses.

Non-finites may also work as link verbs, combining with nouns, adjectives or statives as predicatives, as in: *to be/being a doctor (young, afraid).* They may also act as modal verb semantic equivalents when combined with an infinitive: *to have/having to wait, to be able/being able to stay.* So the structure of a non-finite verb group resembles the structure of any verb phrase.

All non-finite verb forms may participate in the so-called **predicative constructions**, that is, two-component syntactical units where a noun or a pronoun and a non-finite verb form are in predicative relations similar to those of the subject and the predicate: I heard *Jane singing*; We waited for *the train to pass*; I saw *him run*, etc.

The Infinitive

§ 96. The infinitive is a non-finite form of the verb which names a process in a most general way. As

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such, it is naturally treated as the initial form of the verb, which represents the verb in dictionaries (much in the same way as the common case singular represents the noun).

In all its forms and functions the infinitive has a special marker, **the particle to**. The particle **to** is generally used with the infinitive stem and is so closely connected with it that does not commonly allow any words to be put between itself and the stem. Occasionally, however, an adverb or particle may be inserted between them:

She doesn't want *to even see* me once more.

The infinitive thus used is called **the split infinitive**, and is acceptable only to give special emphasis to the verb.

Although the particle to is very closely connected with the infinitive, sometimes the **bare infinitive stem** is used. The cases where the infinitive loses its marker are very few in number.

The use of the Infinitive without the Particle to
(Bare Infinitive)

	Words and phrases followed by a bare infinitive	Bare infinitive	The rest of the sentence
1	2	3	4
I They	**Auxiliary verbs:** *Don't* *Will*	like see	Jogging. you to-morrow.
You I You	**Modal verbs:** *(except ought to, have to, be to)* *can't* *must* *needn't*	play go worry.	football in the street. there to-morrow.
You I She You	**Modal expression:** *had better* *would rather* *would sooner* *'d sooner* *had better*	die come	than come back at once.
I He	**Verbs of sense perception:** (*see, watch, observe, notice, hear, listen to, feel*, etc.) felt somebody heard the door	touch close.	me.
What	**Verbs of inducement:** (*let, make, have, bid*) Let me makes you	help think	you. so?
	Phrases with but:		

	cannot but,		
	do anything but		
	do nothing but		
	couldn't but		
Did you	do anything but	ask	questions?
	Why-not sentences:		
	Why not	begin	at once?

Like other non-finite forms of the verb the infinitive has a double nature: it combines verbal features with those of the noun.

The **verbal features** of the infinitive are of two kinds: morphological and syntactical.

1) M o r p h o l o g i c a l : the infinitive has the verb categories of voice, perfect and aspect:

The evening is the time *to praise* the day. (active)
To be praised for what one has not done was bad enough. (passive)
She did not intend *to keep* me long, she said. (non-perfect)
I am so distressed *to have kept* you waiting, (perfect)
She promised *to bring* the picture down in the course of ten minutes. (common)
At that time I happened *to be bringing* him some of the books borrowed from him two days before, (continuous)

2) S y n t a c t i c a l : the infinitive possesses the verb combinability:
 a) it takes an object in the same way as the corresponding finite verbs do;
 b) it takes a predicative if it happens to be a link verb;
 c) it is modified by adverbials in the same way as finite verbs:

Infinitive	**Finite verb**
a) *To tell him about it* the same night was out of the question.	She *told me about it* only yesterday.
She did not mean *to depend on her father*.	You see, *I depend on his word* only.
b) She wanted *to be a teacher.*	He *was a teacher* of French.
I don't want *to look pale* tonight.	She *looked pale* and *haggard*.
c) To draw his attention I had *to speak very loudly*.	He *spoke loudly*, turning his head from side to side.

The nominal features of the infinitive are revealed only in its function:

To understand is to forgive. (subject, predicative)
That's what I wanted *to know.* (object)
I saw the chance *to escape* into the garden. (attribute)
I merely came back *to water* the roses, (adverbial modifier of purpose)

The Grammatical Categories of the Infinitive

§ 97. As has already been stated the infinitive has three grammatical categories, those of perfect, voice, and aspect.
The system of grammatical categories of the infinitive is shown in the table below.

Table IV

Perfect	Voice Aspect	Active	Passive
Non-Perfect	Common	to go to take	- to be taken
	Continuous	to be going to be taking	- (to be being taken)
Perfect	Common	to have gone to have taken	- to have been taken
	Continuous	to have been going to have been taking	- -

It is seen from the table, that the passive voice is found only with transitive verbs and there are no perfect continuous forms in the passive voice. As for the non-perfect continuous passive, forms similar to the one in brackets, do sometimes occur, although they are exceptionally rare.

The category of perfect

§ 98. The category of perfect finds its expression, as with other verb forms, in the opposition of non-perfect and perfect forms.

The non-perfect infinitive denotes an action simultaneous with that of the finite verb (I am glad to take part in it, I am glad to be invited there),

The perfect infinitive always denotes an action prior to that of the finite verb - the predicate of the sentences. The meaning of priority is invariable with the perfect and perfect continuous infinitive.

I am glad
I was glad   to have seen you again.
I shall be glad

The non-perfect infinitive is vaguer and more flexible in meaning and its meaning may easily be modified by the context. Thus, it may denote an action preceding or following the action denoted by the finite verb. It expresses succession, that is indicates that the action follows the action denoted by the finite verb, as in the following cases:

1) When used as an adverbial modifier of purpose:

She bit her lip *to keep back* a smile.
I came here *to help you, not to quarrel* with you.

2) When used as part of a compound verbal predicate:

You must *do* it at once.
You know, she is beginning *to learn* eagerly.

3) When used as an object of a verb of inducement:

He ordered the man *to come* at three.
She always asks me *to help* her when she is busy.
He will make you *obey*.

The category of aspect

§ 99. The category of aspect finds its expression in contrasting forms of the common aspect and the continuous aspect. The difference between the category of aspect in finite verb forms and in the infinitive is that in the infinitive it is consistently expressed only in the active voice:

to speak	- to be speaking
to have spoken	- to have been speaking

The passive voice has practically no aspect oppositions. (See Table IV). The semantics of the category of aspect in the infinitive is the same as in the finite verb: the continuous aspect forms denote an action in progress at some moment of time in the present, past, or future; the meaning of the common aspect forms is flexible and is easily modified by the context.

The two aspects differ in their frequency and functioning; the continuous aspect forms are very seldom used and cannot perform all the functions in which the common aspect forms are used. They can function only as:

1) subject (*To be staying with them* was a real pleasure.);
2) object (I was glad *to be waking*.)
3) part of a compound verbal predicate (Now they *must be getting back*; The leaves *begin to be growing yellowish*.)

The continuous aspect forms do not occur in the function of adverbial - modifiers and attributes.

The category of voice

§ 100. The infinitive of transitive verbs has the category of voice, similar to all other verb forms:

to say	-	to be said
to have said	-	to have been said

The active infinitive points out that the action is directed from the subject (either expressed or implied), the passive infinitive indicates that the action is directed to the subject:

Active

He expected ⌐to find⌐ them very soon.

Passive

They expected ⌐to be found⌐ by night fall.

She was born ⌐to love⌐ .

She born ⌐to be loved⌐

I know I ought ⌐to have told⌐ you everything long ago.

She ought ⌐to have been told⌐ of what had actually happened.

However, there are cases where the active form of the non-perfect infinitive denotes an action directed towards the subject, that is although active in form it is passive in meaning:

His to blame.

The house is to let.

The question is difficult to answer.

There was only one thing to do.
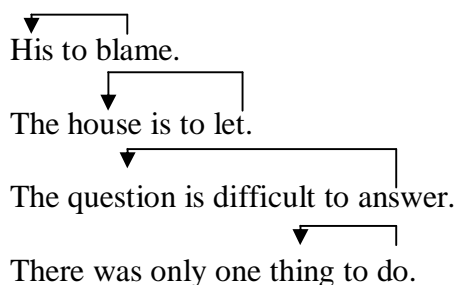
The active infinitive thus used is called **retroactive.**

The retroactive infinitive is rather productive although in nearly all cases it can be replaced by the corresponding passive form:

He is to blame —> He is to be blamed.
There was only one thing to do ——> There was only one thing to be done.

Syntactical functions of the infinitive

§ 101. The infinitive performs almost all syntactical functions characteristic of the noun, although in each of them it has certain peculiarities of its own. In all syntactical functions the infinitive may be used:

1) alone, that is, without any words depending on it:

She would like *to dance.*

2) as the headword of an infinitive phrase, that is, with one or more words depending on it:

She would like *to dance with him tonight.*

3) as part of an infinitive predicative construction, that is, as a logical predicate to some nominal element denoting the logical subject of the infinitive:

She would like *him to dance with her*.
She waited for *him to dance first.*

As to the functioning of single infinitives and infinitive phrases, they are identical in this respect and therefore will be used without distinction in illustrations. However it should be noted that in fact the infinitive phrase is much more common than the single infinitive.

The infinitive as subject

§ 102. The infinitive functioning as subject may either precede the predicate or follow it. In the latter case it is introduced by the so-called introductory *it*, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence:

To be good is to be in harmony with oneself.
It's so silly *to be fussy and jealous.*

The second of these structural patterns is more common than the first, and the subject in this pattern is more accentuated (compare for example: *It's impossible to do it* and *To do it is impossible*). The other difference is that in the second case the sentence can be both declarative and interrogative, while in the first one the sentence can only be declarative:

D e c l a r a t i v e s e n t e n c e s

It's nice *to see you again.*   *To find him still at home* was a relief.
It was not a good idea *to bring her here*   *To see her again* did not give him the usual pleasure.

I n t e r r o g a t i v e s e n t e n c e s

Is it bad *to love one so dearly*?
Wasn't it a waste of time *to sit there*?

The infinitive subject in both structural patterns is a "to" - infinitive. If there are two or more homogeneous infinitive subjects in a sentence, all of them keep the particle **to**:

To be alone, to be free from the daily interests and cruelty would be happiness to Asako.
It was awfully difficult *to do* or even *to say nothing at all.*

The function of the subject can be performed by the infinitive of any voice, aspect and perfect form, although the common aspect non-perfect active forms are naturally far more frequent.

To expect too much is a dangerous thing.
To be walking through the fields all alone seemed an almost impossible pleasure.
To have seen her was even a more painful experience.
To be recognized, to be greeted by some local personage afforded her a joy which was very great.
To have been interrogated in such a way was a real shock to him.

§ 103. The predicate of the subject expressed by an infinitive always takes the form of the *3rd person singular.* As to its type, it is usually a compound nominal predicate with the link verb *to be,* although other link verbs may also occur, as well as a verbal predicate.

To acquire knowledge and to acquire it unceasingly *is the first duty* of the artist.
To understand *is to forgive.*
To talk to him *bored* me.
To see the struggle *frightened* him terribly.
To write a really good book *requires* more time than I have.

The infinitive as part of the predicate

The infinitive is used in predicates of several types, both nominal and verbal.

The infinitive as predicative

§ 104. In the function of a predicative the "to"-infinitive is used in compound nominal predicates after the link verb **to be**:

His dearest wish **was** to have a son.

With homogeneous predicatives the use of the particle **to** varies. If the infinitives are not linked by conjunctions, the particle is generally used with all of them:

My intention **was to** see her as soon as possible, **to** talk to her, **to** calm her.

If they are linked by the conjunctions *and* or *or* the particle **to** is generally used with the first infinitive only:

Your duty **will be to** teach him French and play with him.
His plan **was to** ring her up at once, or even call on her.

The use of the infinitive as a predicative has some peculiarities.

1) In sentences with an infinitive subject the predicative infinitive denotes an action that follows, or results from, the action of the subject infinitive.

To see her was *to admire her.*
To come there at this hour was *to risk one's life.*

Sentences in which both the infinitives are used without any modifiers are usually of aphoristic meaning:

To hear is *to obey.*
To see is *to believe.*
To define is *to limit.*

The predicative function is generally performed by the common non-perfect active forms of the infinitive. Still passive forms sometimes occur:

To be born in poverty was *to be doomed* to humiliation.

2) The set of nouns that can function as the subject of a compound nominal predicate with an infinitive predicative is very limited. It includes about 50 nouns describing situations:

action	function	order
advice	habit	plan
aim	happiness	principle
ambition	hope	problem
attempt	idea	purpose
business	ideal	reason
consequence	instruction	risk
custom	intention	role
desire	job	rule
difficulty	method	task
duty	need	thing
experience	object	wish, etc.

A predicative infinitive phrase may be introduced by the conjunctive, adverbs and pronouns *how, when, where, what, whom,* the choice depending on the lexical meaning of the noun:

Now the question was *what* to tell him.
The problem was *how* to begin.

3) The function of the subject may be also performed by the pronoun *all* or the substantivized superlatives *the most* and *the least* with an attributive clause attached to them:

All he wanted was to be left alone.
The least I can expect is to have this day all to myself.

In such cases the predicative infinitive can lose its marker **to:**

All I can do is get you out of here.

4) Occasionally the function of the subject can be performed by a gerund or a what-clause:

Living with hemophilia was to live off balance all the time.
"What we want to do," said Brady, "is to fight a world."

The infinitive as simple nominal predicate

§ 105. The infinitive as simple nominal predicate may be used in exclamatory sentences expressing the speaker's rejection of the idea that the person to whom the action of the infinitive is ascribed is likely to perform this action, or belong to such sort of people*, as in:

* For details see Syntax § 41.

You - of all men - *to say such a thing!*
Me - *to be your lover!*

As a rule the infinitive in exclamatory sentences is used with the particle **to,** although it occasionally occurs without it:

Me - *marry him*! Never!

The infinitive may be also used as predicate in interrogative infinitive why-sentences, both affirmative and negative, where it expresses a suggestion:

Why *let* him *sleep* so long?
Why *not go away*?

In such sentences the infinitive is always used without the particle **to.**

The infinitive as part of a compound verbal predicate

§ 106. The infinitive is used in compound verbal predicates of three types.

I. **In a compound verbal modal predicate** after the modal verbs *can, may, might, ought, must, shall, should, will, would, need, dare, to be, to have*, and expressions with modal meaning *had better, would rather.*

I *can tell* you nothing at all about him.
She *ought to have told* me before.

II. **In a compound verbal phasal predicate** after verbs denoting various stages of the action, such as its beginning, continuation, or end. These verbs (*to begin, to come, to start, to continue, to go on, to cease*, etc.) followed by a "to"-infinitive form a compound verbal phasal predicate.

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Now I *begin to understand you.*
Then she *came to realize* what it all meant.
They *continued to whisper.*

The verbs *to begin, to continue* and *to start* can also be followed by a gerund, although with a certain difference in meaning. Thus the verb *to stop* followed by a gerund means *to put an end to an action, to interrupt*, whereas followed by an infinitive means *to pause in order to do something*. So the infinitive after the verb *to stop* is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of purpose.

He *stopped to see* what it was.
Он остановился, чтобы посмотреть, что это такое.

He *stopped seeing* her.
Он перестал с ней встречаться.

III. **The compound verbal predicate of double orientation*** has no analogy in Russian. The three subtypes of this predicate can be distinguished according to the expression of the first part:

* For details see Syntax § 53.

1. The first part is expressed by one of the following intransitive verbs in the active voice: *to seem* - казаться; *to appear* - оказаться, казаться; *to prove, to turn out* - оказаться; *to happen, to chance* - случаться. After the verbs *to prove* and *to turn out* the infinitive is mostly nominal, that is presented by *to be + noun or adjective*. After the verbs *to seem, to appear, to happen* all types and forms of the infinitive are possible.

Simple sentences with this type of predicate are synonymous with complex sentences of a certain pattern:

He seems to be smiling.
She appeared to have said all.

It seems that he is smiling.
It appeared that she had said all.

Sentences with compound verbal predicates of double orientation are translated into Russian in different ways depending on the meaning of the first verbal element:

The strange little man *seemed to read* my thoughts.
Странный человечек, казалось, читал мои мысли.

The man *seemed to have come* from far off.
Казалось, этот человек приехал откуда-то издалека.

Nothing *appeared to be happening* there.
Казалось, что здесь ничего не происходит.

He *appeared to have been running* all the way.
Казалось, что он пробежал всю дорогу бегом.

He *proved to be a healthy child*.
Он оказался здоровым ребенком.

The night *turned out to be cold.*
Ночь оказалась холодной.

Don't you *happen to know her*?
Ты ее случайно не знаешь?

2. The first part of the predicate is expressed by the passive voice forms of certain transitive verbs. They are:

a) verbs of saying: *to announce, to declare, to report, to say, to state*, etc.

She *was announced to be the winner.*
Было объявлено, что победила она.

He *is said to have returned* at last.
Говорят, что он наконец вернулся.

b) verbs of mental activity: *to believe, to consider, to expect, to find, to known, to mean, to presume,*
        to regard, to suppose, to think, to understand, etc.

He's *supposed to be leaving* tonight.	Предполагают (предполагается), что он уезжает сегодня вечером.
She *is believed to be a clever girl*.	Ее считают умной девушкой. (Считается, что она умная девушка.)
Her father *was thought to have died* long ago.	Считалось (считали, думали, полагали), что ее отец давным-давно умер.

  c) verbs of sense perception: *to feel, to hear, to see, to watch*.

Soon he *was heard to open* the front door.	Вскоре услышали, как он открыл парадную дверь.
She *was* often *seen to walk* all alone.	Часто видели, как она гуляет совсем одна.

  d) the verb *to make*.

He *was made to keep silent*.	Его заставили молчать.

  3. The first part is expressed by the phrases: *to be likely, to be unlikely, to be sure, to be certain*. In this case only the non-perfect forms of the infinitive are used, with future reference.

  She *is likely to be late*.
  He *is sure to become your friend*.
  They *are sure to be wanted as evidence*.

  In all these three subtypes the "to" - infinitive is always used.

The infinitive as object

  § 107. The infinitive can have the function of object after verbs, adjectives, adjectivized participles and statives.
  After verbs the infinitive may be either the only object of a verb or one of two objects.

  1. Verbs that take only one object are: *to agree, to arrange, to attempt, to care* (to like), *to choose, to claim, to consent, to decide, to deserve, to determine, to expect, to fail, to fear, to forget, to hesitate, to hope, to intend, to learn, to like, to long, to love, to manage, to mean, to neglect, to omit, to plan, to prefer, to pretend, to refuse, to regret, to remember, to swear, to tend*, etc.

  She agreed *to come at ten*.
  He planned *to spend the day* in town.
  You'll soon learn *to read*, sonny.

  Among these verbs two groups can be distinguished:

  a) the verbs *to claim, to fail, to forget, to hate, to like, to omit, to regret, to remember, to swear*, with which the perfect infinitive denotes actions prior to those of the finite verbs. It can be accounted for by the fact that semantically these verbs denote an action or state following or resulting from that of the infinitive (you can regret only what was or has been done).

  I regret *to have said it to her*.
  I remembered *to have met him once*.
  She claims *to have seen him before*.

b) The verbs *to attempt, to expect, to hope, to intend, to mean, to plan, to try*, when followed by the perfect infinitive imply that the action of the infinitive was not fulfilled.

I hoped *to have found him at home.*
He intended *to have reached the coast long before.*

In this case the finite verb can be used only in the past tense.

Note:

As most of these verbs (item la) and b)) denote an attitude to the action expressed by the infinitive, the verb + infinitive may be treated syntactically as one whole. Thus the succession of two verbs (... *like to help* ..., ... *expect to arrive* ..., ... *plan to do* ...) allow of two modes of analysis, as a verb + its object or as a compound verbal predicate with the first element expressing attitude.

Besides the above-mentioned verbs there are also some rather common phrases used with the infinitive-object. They are the phrases *can afford, can bear* in the negative or interrogative and such phrases as *to make sure, to make up one's mind, to take care, to take the trouble.*

Can you afford *to buy it yourself*?
I can't bear *to hear of it again.*
At last he made up his mind *to answer Sibyl's letter.*

2. Verbs that take two objects, the first of which is a noun or a pronoun and the second an infinitive. These are *the verbs of inducement;* they all have the general meaning *to persuade, to cause to do something*.

to advise	to direct	to induce	to permit
to allow	to encourage	to instruct	to persuade
to ask	to forbid	to invite	to recommend
to beg	to force	to leave	to request
to cause	to have	to let	to require
to command	to impel	to make	to tell
to compel	to implore	to order	to urge

Tell him *to hurry.*
He asked her *to keep an eye on the clock.*
What would you recommend me *to do*?

With all these verbs, except *to have, to let* and *to make*, a "to"- infinitive is used. After the verbs *to have, to let* and *to make* it loses the particle "to".

She'll *have* you *do* it at once.
Don't *let* it *bother* you.
Soon she *made* me *see* where I was wrong.

The object, which is a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case, denotes a person (or, very seldom, a non-person) who is to perform the required action expressed by the infinitive.

The verb *to help* can be used either with one or with two objects:

She helped *to pack.*
She helped *me to make up my mind.*

In either case a "to"- infinitive or a bare infinitive can be used.

And she actually *helped find* it.
I'*ll help* you *do* it.

With some verbs the function of object may be performed by a conjunctive infinitive phrase. These verbs are very few in number and fall into two groups:

a) Verbs that can take either an infinitive or a conjunctive infinitive phrase as their object. These are: *to advise, to decide, to forget, to learn, to remember.*

They advised me to go on.	He advised me at last how to settle the matter.
He decided to begin at once.	He could not decide whether to come at all.
I forgot to tell you about the last incident.	I forgot how to do it.

b) Verbs that can take only a conjunctive infinitive phrase as their object: *to know, to show, to wonder.*

She did not know *what to say.*
I know well enough *where to stop.*
Will you show me *how to do it?*

The infinitive can have the function of object after certain adjectives (adjectivized participles), mostly used as predicatives. Semantically and structurally these fall into two groups.

1. The most frequent adjectives of the first group are: *anxious, apt, bound, careful, curious, determined, difficult, eager, easy, entitled, fit, free, hard, impatient, inclined, interested, keen, liable, powerless, prepared, quick, ready, reluctant, resolved, set, slow, worthy.*

She's **determined** *to go on*.
I am **powerless** *to do anything.*
He's fully **prepared** *to meet them* any time they choose.
I was so **impatient** *to start.*

When used with these adjectives, the infinitive denotes actions either simultaneous with, or posterior to, the states expressed by the predicates, and cannot therefore be used in perfect forms.

2. The most frequent adjectives (adjectivized participles) of the second group are: *amused, annoyed, astonished, delighted, distressed, frightened, furious, glad, grateful, happy, horrified, pleased, proud, puzzled, relieved, scared, sorry, surprised, thankful, touched.*

He was **amused** *to hear it.*
I'm **delighted** *to see you again*, darling.
She is **proud** *to have grown such a son.*
Mother was **furious** *to see them together again.*

These adjectives and participles express certain psychological states which are the result of the action expressed by the infinitive object, so the latter therefore always denotes an action slightly preceding the

state expressed by the predicate, and can have both non-perfect and perfect forms. The non-perfect forms are used to express immediate priority, that is, an action immediately preceding the state:

I'm *glad to see you* (I see you and that is why I am glad).

The perfect forms are used to show that there is a gap between the action and the resulting state.

I am glad *to have seen you* (I saw/have seen you and that is why I am glad).

3. After certain statives denoting psychological states, such as *afraid, agog, ashamed:*

He was ashamed *to tell us this.*
I'd be afraid *to step inside a house* that Rupert had designed all by himself.

In such cases the infinitive points out the source of the state expressed by the stative.

The infinitive as attribute

§ 108. The English infinitive functioning as an attribute is far more frequent than the Russian infinitive. This is because in Russian the infinitive attribute can combine with abstract nouns only, while in English it is used with a much wider range of words. In this function the infinitive always denotes a not yet fulfilled action, which is regarded as *desirable, possible, advisable, necessary*, etc. The modal meaning of the infinitive attribute is generally rendered in Russian by modal verbs or expressions, as is shown by the translations below.

The infinitive attribute can modify:

1. n o u n s , b o t h a b s t r a c t a n d c o n c r e t e :

Because of his quarrel with his family he was in no *position to get* the news. (... не мог получить известий)
The best *thing to do* would be to go back. (самое лучшее, что можно было сделать ...)
He is just *the man to do it.* (он как раз тот человек, который может/должен это сделать)
I suppose there was *nothing to he done, but depart.* (ничего нельзя было сделать, оставалось только
удалиться)

2. i n d e f i n i t e , n e g a t i v e a n d u n i v e r s a l p r o n o u n s i n *- b o d y , - t h i n g , -*

o n e (o n e) :

Have you *anything to offer me*? (Вы можете мне что-нибудь предложить?)
He was *someone to admire.* (... тот, кем можно восхищаться)
He had *everything to make his life a happy one.* (...что могло сделать его счастливым)

Occasionally the infinitive can have the function of an attribute to personal negative and reflexive pronouns or pronominal adverbs:

I've only *you to look to.*
Oh, but you have only *yourself to praise.*
Now I had *nobody to see, nowhere to go.*

3. s u b s t a n t i v i z e d   *o r d i n a l   n u m e r a l s*   (especially *first*),
   s u b s t a n t i v i z e d   a d j e c t i v e s   (*next* and *last*).

   Jack was *the first to come.*
   She was *the last to reach* the hall.

4. s u b s t a n t i v i z e d   q u a n t i t a t i v e   a d j e c t i v e s   *much, little, (no) more,*
   (no) less, little more, enough:

   A man in your position has *so much to lose.*
   I've *no more to add.*

5. t h e   n o u n - s u b s t i t u t e   *o n e:*

   I am not *the one to run about and discuss my affairs with other people.* (... кто может ...)

§ 109. The most common form of the infinitive functioning as an attribute is the non-perfect common aspect active voice form and non-perfect common aspect passive form.

When performing the function of an attribute a "to"- infinitive is always used. If there are two or more homogeneous attributes the second (and the following) retain **to** if joined asyndetically, but drop it if joined by conjunctions.

   There was, however, my little Jean *to look after, to take care of.*
   Did he give you any small parcel *to bring back and deliver to anyone in England?*

§ 110. The infinitive as an attribute may be introduced by conjunctive pronouns or adverbs:

   He had sought in vain for inspiration *how* to awaken love.
   I had now an idea *what* to do.

The conjunctive infinitive phrase may be preceded by a preposition:

   They had no knowledge *of* how to live on.
   He's got no information *about* when to start.

The infinitive as adverbial modifier

§ 111. The infinitive can be used as an adverbial modifier of: *purpose, subsequent events, consequence, attendant circumstances, comparison, condition, exception, time, cause, or motivation.* In all these functions but that of the adverbial modifier of exception, a "to"- infinitive is used.

1. **The adverbial modifier of purpose.** In this function the action denoted by the infinitive is always a hypothetical one following the action denoted by the predicate. As such it can be expressed only by non-perfect common aspect forms of the infinitive (both active and passive):

   I think I will go to England *to improve my English.*
   We stood in the rain and were taken out one at a time *to be questioned and shot.*

In this function a "to"- infinitive is used, but if there are two or more homogeneous adverbials of purpose joined by *and*, usually, though not necessarily, only the first of them has the particle **to.** Compare

the following sentences:

Mary, looking pale and worried, left him *to go down* to the kitchen *and start* breakfast.
Then I went upstairs *to say how-do-you-do* to Emily, *and* into the kitchen *to shake hands* with Mary-Ann,
and out into the garden *to see* the gardener.

The position of the infinitive used as an adverbial modifier of purpose varies. It usually stands after the predicate, though the position at the beginning of the sentence is also possible:

To occupy her mind, however, she took the job given her.

In both positions the infinitive may be preceded by the conjunction *in order, so as* or by limiting particle (just, only):

I keep a diary *in order to enter the wonderful secrets of my life.*
In order to see her better he had to turn his head.
I'm here *just to see you off.*
He came down *only to say good-night to you.*

2. **The adverbial modifier of subsequent events.** In this function the infinitive denotes an action that follows the one denoted by the predicate. The position of this adverbial in the sentence is fixed - it always follows the predicate. The only forms of the infinitive occurring in this function are those of the non-perfect common aspect, usually active.

He arrived at three o'clock *to hear that Fleur had gone out with the car at ten*. (He arrived and heard ...)
I came down one morning *to find Papa excited to the point of apoplexy*. (I came down and found ...)
He hurried to the house only *to find it empty*. (He hurried and found ...)

In this function the infinitive may be preceded by the particles *only, merely, simply,* which change the meaning of the whole sentence: the action denoted by the infinitive preceded by these particles makes the action denoted by the predicate pointless or irrelevant.

She returned to London in a few days, *only to learn that Bess* had gone to the continent. (She returned ...,
and learnt...)

3. **As an adverbial modifier of consequence** the infinitive depends on a) adjectives and adverbs modified by *too*; b) adjectives, adverbs and nouns modified by *enough*; c) adjectives modified by *so*, and nouns modified by *such*. In the last two cases the infinitive is introduced by *as:*

a) He was *too tired to argue*. (= He was so fired, that is why he couldn't arque)
The story was *too interesting to be passed over lightly*.
He had gone *too far to draw back*.

b) He's *old enough to learn this*. (= He is old enough, so he can learn this)
I thought I liked Letty *well enough to marry her*. (=1 liked Letty, so I wanted to marry her)
He was *fool enough to enjoy the game*.
He had seen *enough blasted, burned out tanks to have no illusions*.

c) She was *so kind as to accept my proposal.* (= She was so kind, therefore she accepted my proposal)
Do you think I am *such a fool as to let it out of my hands*?

In all these cases the infinitive denotes an action, which would become or became possible (enough, so, such) or impossible (too) due to the degree of quality or quantity expressed in the words it refers to.

The position of the infinitive is fixed, it always follows the words it modifies. The form of the infinitive is non-perfect, common aspect, usually active.   .

4. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances** shows what other actions take place at the same time as the action of the predicate.

He left the house never to come back.
I am sorry to have raised your expectations only to disappoint you.

The infinitive thus used always follows the predicate verb it modifies. As to its form, it is a non-perfect, common aspect, active voice form.

5. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of comparison** refers to predicate groups including adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree. The infinitive itself is introduced by *than*:

To give is more blessed *than to receive.*
Soon she realized, that it was much more pleasant to give *than to be given.*
He knew better *than to rely on her.*

Although the infinitive of comparison is generally used with **to**, it may also occur without it:

I was more inclined to see her safely married *than go on watching over her.*

6. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of condition** denotes an action which pre-conditions the action expressed by the predicate.

To look at Montmorency you would imagine that he was an angel sent upon earth ... (If you looked ...,
you would imagine ...)
To touch it one would believe that it was the best of furs. (If one touched it, one would believe ...)
I'll thank you to *take your hands off me*. (I'll thank you, if you take ...)

The position of this infinitive as can be seen from the examples above varies; it may either precede or follow the predicate verb it modifies. The only possible form of the infinitive is the non-perfect, common aspect, active voice form.

7. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of exception** denotes the action which is the only possible one in the situation. The infinitive is generally used without *to* and is introduced by the prepositions *but* and *except.* It is found in *negative* and *interrogative* sentences:

I had nothing to do *but wait.*
What could I do *but submit?*
There is nothing to do *except turn back.*

8. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of time** denotes an action which marks out the moment of time up to which or at which the action of the predicate is performed. Very often it has a

secondary meaning of condition.

His father lived *to be ninety.* (lived till he was ...)
I may not live *to reach the airstrip this afternoon.* (may not live till I reach ...)
Go away! I shudder *to see you here.* (I shudder when I see ..., if I see ...)

The position of the infinitive is fixed, it always follows the predicate it modifies. Its form is non-perfect, common aspect, active.

9. The infinitive used as **an adverbial modifier of cause or motivation** refers to a compound nominal predicate with the predicative expressed by an adjective, a noun, or a prepositional phrase denoting someone's qualities (intellectual qualities, morals, etc.)
The infinitive denotes an action which serves as a cause or a motivation on which this or that charaterisation is based.

What an idiot I was *not to have thought of it before!* (I had not thought of it before, therefore I can justly
be called an idiot.)
She was silly *to come here.* (She came here, and it was silly of her.)
They're out of their mind *to have sent you here!* (They have sent you here, so one can think them out of
their minds.)

The infinitive in this function follows the predicate. All the forms of the infinitive are possible.

The infinitive as parenthesis

§ 112. The infinitive used as parenthesis is usually part of a collocation, as in: *to begin with, to be (quite) frank, to be sure, to make matters worse, to put it mildly, to say the least, to tell the truth, needless to say, strange to say, so to speak, to make a long story short, to crown all, to be more precise, to say nothing of ...,* etc.

To begin with, you have been lying to me all the time.
To be quite frank, I don't like him at all.
He was, *strange to say,* just an ordinary little chap.

Predicative constructions with the infinitive

§ 113. The infinitive is used in predicative constructions of three types: **the objective with the infinitive construction,** and the so-called **for-to-infinitive construction***. Traditionally they are called the complex subject, the complex object, and the for-to-infinitive complex.

* It is possible, however, to distinguish one more infinitive construction generally called the subjective infinitive construction or the nominative infinitive construction. (See § 123 on the Subjective predicative construction).

In all these constructions the infinitive denotes an action ascribed to the person or non-person, though grammatically this relationship is not expressed in form: the doer of the action may be represented by *a noun in the common case, a pronoun in the objective case* (I saw **him** *cross* the street, it is **for him** *to decide* this) and the verbal element which is *not in a finite form.* Still, due to their semantics and because of the attached position the nominal and the verbal elements are understood as forming a complex with subject-predicate relationship.

The for-to-infinitive construction

§ 114. In the for-to-infinitive construction the infinitive (usually an infinitive phrase) is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case introduced by the preposition *for*. The construction is used where the doer of the action (or the bearer of the state), expressed by the infinitive, is different from that of the finite verb (the predicate):

The doer of the action of the finite verb and of the infinitive is the same:	The doer of the action of the finite verb and of the infinitive is not the same:
He longed to see the truth. - Он очень хотел узнать правду. All **I** want is to get out of here for good. - Единственное, чего я хочу, - это навсегда уехать отсюда.	**He** longed for **me** to see the truth.- Он очень хотел, чтобы я узнал правду. All **I** want is for **Jack** to get out of here for good. - Единственное, чего я хочу, - это чтобы Джек навсегда уехал отсюда.

The for-to-infinitive construction has the same functions as a single infinitive, though with some restrictions.

1. **Subject.** The for-to-infinitive construction in the function of the subject usually occurs in sentences with the introductory **it**, though it is occasionally placed at the head of the sentence:

It was difficult *for him to do anything else.*
For me to hear him was disturbing.

2. **Predicative.** In this function the construction is mostly used with the link verb **to be**:

The best thing is *for you to do it now.*

3. **Object.** The construction functions as object of both verbs and adjectives:

a) She watched *for the door to open.*
   I don't think I should care *for it to be known.*

b) His family were anxious *for him to do something.*
   I'm so glad *for you to have come at last.*

4. **Attribute:**

There was no need *for him to be economical.*

5. **Adverbial modifier of purpose and consequence:**

She paused *for him to continue.*
The wall was too high *for anything to be visible.*
He had said enough *for me to get alarmed.*

In all its uses this construction is generally rendered in Russian by a subordinate clause.

The objective with the infinitive construction

§ 115. In the objective with the infinitive construction the infinitive (usually an infinitive phrase) is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case (hence the name of the construction). The whole construction forms a complex object of some verbs. It is rendered in Russian by an object clause.

The objective with the infinitive construction is used in the following cases:

1. **After verbs of sense perception** (*to see, to hear, to feel, to watch, to observe, to notice* and some others). In this case t h e   o n l y   p o s s i b l e   f o r m   o f   t h e   i n f i n i t i v e   i s   t h e   n o n - p e r f e c t   c o m m o n   a s p e c t   a c t i v e   v o i c e   f o r m, used *without* the particle **to**:

No one *has* ever *heard her cry.*
I paused a moment and *watched the tram-car stop.*

The verb *to listen to,* though not a verb of sense perception, is used in the same way, with a bare infinitive:

He *was listening* attentively *to the chairman speak*.

If the verb *to see* or *to notice* is used with the meaning *to realize,* or the verb *to hear* with the meaning *to learn,* the objective with the infinitive construction cannot be used. Here only subordinate object clause is possible:

I *saw that he did not know anything.*	Я *видел (понимал)*, что он ничего не знает.
I *hear you have dropped the idea of leaving him.*	Я *слышала (узнала)*, что ты отказалась от мысли уйти от него.
He only had time *to notice that the girl was unusually pretty.*	Он только успел заметить (осознать), что девушка была необычайно хорошенькой.

2. **After verbs of mental activity** (*to think, to believe, to consider, to expect, to understand, to suppose, to find* and some others). Here the infinitive is used in any form, though the non-perfect forms are the most frequent (always with the particle *to*).

I know *him to be an honest man.*
She believed *him to have left for San Francisco.*
I believed *her to be knitting in the next room.*
I should expect *my devoted friend to be devoted to me.*

3. **After verbs of emotion** (*to like, to love, to hate, to dislike* and some others). Here non-perfect, common aspect forms of the "to"- infinitive are the most usual.

I always liked *him to sing.*
She hated *her son to be separated from her.*
I'd love *you to come with me too.*
I hated *him to have been sent away.*

4. **After verbs of wish and intention** (*to want, to wish, to desire, to intend, to mean* and some others). After these verbs only non-perfect common aspect forms of the infinitive with the particle **to** are used:

He only wished *you to be near him.*

I don't want *him to be punished.*

5. **After verbs of declaring** (*to declare, to pronounce*):

I declare *you to be out of your mind.*
He reported *the boat to have been seen not far away.*

6. **After verbs of inducement** (*to have, to make, to get, to order, to tell, to ask*, etc.) of which the first two take a bare infinitive. In the construction some of them acquire a different meaning: *make* - заставить, *get* - добиться, *have* - заставить (сказать, чтобы ...)

I can't get *him to do it properly.*
She made *me obey her.*

7. The objective with the infinitive construction also occurs after certain **verbs requiring a prepositional object,** for example *to count (up)on, to rely (up) on, to look for, to listen to, to wait for:*

I rely on *you to come in time.*
Can't I count upon *you to help me*?

The gerund

§ 116. The gerund is a non-finite form of the verb with some noun features. It is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb.

The grammatical meaning of the gerund is that of a process. Thus to some extent it competes with nouns of verbal origin, e.g. *translating -translation, describing - description, arriving - arrival, perceiving - perception, helping - help.* Nouns, however, tend to convey the fact or the result of an action, which in certain circumstances may be something material, whereas gerunds convey the idea of action or process itself.

Show me your *translation*: it is neatly done, and there, are no mistakes in it.
You will enrich your vocabulary by *translating* from English into Russian and vice versa.

If the meaning of the gerund is nearly the same as that of the noun, the former emphasizes the process, and the latter - the fact:

Thank you for *helping* me.
Thank you for your *help.*

It is natural that the verbal character of the gerund is more prominent in transitive verbs, owing to their combinability and their passive forms.

Morphologically the verbal character of the gerund is manifested in the categories of voice and perfect (see table V) and syntactically in its combinability. Thus the gerund may combine: a) with a noun or pronoun as direct, indirect or prepositional object, depending on the verb it is formed from; b) with an adjective or a noun as a predicative; c) with an infinitive.

Gerunds can be modified by adverbs and prepositional phrases functioning as adverbial modifiers.

Gerund	**Finite verb**
I remember your *telling* me the story five years ago.	You *told* me the story five years ago.

It's no use *arguing* about trifles. I never *argue* about trifles.

John dreams of *becoming* a sailor. John *became* a sailor.

There is some chance of his *being able* to join us. We hope he *will be able* to join us.

We enjoyed *walking slowly along the silent streets.* We *walked* slowly along the silent streets.

The nominal character of the gerund reveals itself syntactically, mainly in its syntactical function, partly in its combinability.

Like a noun, it can function as subject, object, or predicative.

Seeing you is always a pleasure. (subject)
I remember *seeing you somewhere.* (object)
I am thinking *of seeing the film again.* (prepositional object)
Peter's hobby is *seeing all new films.* (predicative)

When it is an attribute or an adverbial modifier, a gerund, like a noun is preceded by a preposition.

There is a chance *of catching the train.*
Don't forget to call me up *before leaving London.*
I reached my goal *in spite of there being every reason against it.*

The fact that the gerund can associate with a preposition is a sure sign of noun features.
Like a noun, but unlike the other non-finites, it can combine with a possessive pronoun and a noun in the genitive case denoting the doer of the action expressed by the gerund.

Excuse *my interrupting you.*
I insist on *John's staying with us.*

It combines with the negative pronoun no in the idiomatic construction of the type: *There is no getting out of it.*

The grammatical categories of the gerund

§ 117. As already stated the gerund has only two grammatical categories, those of voice and perfect.

Table V

The Grammatical Categories of the Gerund

Voice \ Perfect	Active	Passive
Non-Perfect	running taking	- being taken
Perfect	having ran having taken	- having been taken

The category of perfect

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§ 118. The category of perfect finds its expression, as with other verb forms, in the contrast of non-perfect (indefinite) and perfect forms.

The non-perfect gerund denotes an action simultaneous with that expressed by the finite verb.

Students improve their pronunciation	
John improved his pronunciation	*by listening* to tape recordings.
You will improve your pronunciation	

The perfect gerund denotes an action prior to the action denoted by the finite verb.

I regret	
I regretted	*having uttered* these words.
I will always regret	

The perfect gerund is invariable in indicating priority, whereas the meaning of the non-perfect gerund is vaguer and more flexible and may easily be modified by the context. Thus according to the context the action denoted by the non-perfect gerund may precede or follow the action denoted by the finite verb. The non-perfect gerund may denote a prior action thanks to the lexical meaning of the verb or the preposition suggesting priority, so the non-perfect gerund is generally used *after verbs of recollection, gratitude, blame, reproach, punishment and reward.*

I shall never forget *taking this exam.*
I remember *talking to him once.*
Thank you *for helping me.*

The non-perfect gerund is to be found in gerundial phrases introduced by the prepositions *on* and *after.* The preposition on suggests immediate priority and an instantaneous action.

On reaching the end of the street we turned towards the river.
Tom, *after reflecting a little*, gave a long sigh.

The lexical meaning of the above-mentioned verbs and prepositions makes the use of the perfect form redundant. It is used, however, when the priority is emphasized, as in following examples:

And all of a sudden David remembered *having heard* the name before.
He came back *after having been away* for about ten years.

The non-perfect gerund expresses a succeeding action after verbs, adjectives and prepositions implying reference to a future event (such as *to intend, to insist, to object, to suggest, to look forward to*) and after the preposition *before:*

I insist on *your staying with us.*
We are looking forward to *visiting new places.*
Ann suggested *going to the cinema.*
I'm not keen on *getting myself into trouble.*
We met once more *before parting.*

The same form occurs after nouns suggesting futurity such as *plan, intention, hope, prospect:*

There is some hope of *catching the last train.*

The category of voice

§ 119. The gerund of transitive verbs possesses voice distinctions. Like other verb forms, the active gerund points out that the action is directed from the subject (whether expressed or implied), whereas the passive gerund indicates that the action is directed towards the subject.

Active gerund	**Passive gerund**
I hate *interrupting people.*	- I hate *being interrupted.*
I am not used *to talking* in that way.	- I am not used *to being talked to* in that way.
On telling me the time, he turned away.	- On *being told* some impossible hour, he turned away.
He entered *without having knocked* at the door.	- The door opened *without having been knocked on.*

The perfect passive gerund is very rarely used.

There are some verbs *(to need, to want, to require, to deserve)* and the adjective worth which are followed by an active gerund with passive meaning.

Your hair *needs cutting.*
This house *wants painting.*
Your suggestion *is worth talking over.*

Syntactical Functions of the Gerund

§ 120. The gerund can perform any syntactical function typical of a noun, although in each case it has peculiarities of its own. It may function (a) alone, without modifiers, or (b) as the headword of a gerundial phrase, or (c) as part of a gerundial predicative construction. Since the functions of gerundial constructions are identical with those of single gerunds or gerundial phrases, we shall treat them together. The gerundial constructions are usually translated by clauses.

a) I like *driving.*
b) I like *playing the piano.*
c) I like *John's (his) playing the piano.*

A gerundial phrase consists of a gerund as headword and one or more words depending on it.

A gerundial construction contains some nominal element denoting the doer of the action expressed by the gerund and the gerund itself with or without some other words depending on it. The nominal element can be a noun in the genitive case or a possessive pronoun (if it denotes a living being), or a noun in the common case (if it does not denote a living being).

I remember *John's telling me that story once.*
I remember *the weather being extremely fine that summer.*
We are absolutely against *grown-up children being treated as babies.*

There is a growing tendency, especially in informal speech, to use the pronoun in the objective case and a noun in the common case to denote the doer of the action expressed by the gerund with reference to living beings too.

They were all in favour of *Tommy playing the main part.*

The gerund as subject

§ 121. As a rule the gerund as subject stands in front position.

John('s) coming tomorrow will make all the difference.
Growing roses, collecting postage stamps or old swords are hobbies.

The subject stands in postposition in sentences opening with an introductory *it*, which happens when the meaning of the subject is accentuated and the predicate is a phrase such as *to be (of) no use (no good, useless), to make all the (no) difference.*

If you want me to help, it's no good *beating about the bush.*
It will make no difference *your being quiet.*

In American English the pattern *There is no use **in** doing it* is preferable to *It is no use doing it.* In sentences with the introductory *there* the gerund is preceded by the negative pronoun *no.* Such sentences are usually emphatic.

Well, there's *no avoiding* him now.
There is *no accounting* for his strange behaviour.

The gerund as part of the predicate

The gerund is used in compound predicates of both types - verbal and nominal.

The gerund as part of the compound nominal predicate (predicative)

§ 122. As predicative the gerund expresses either characterization or identity. In the latter case the predicate reveals the meaning of the subject.

John's hobby is *collecting all sorts of bugs and butterflies.*

The gerund as part of the compound verbal predicate

§ 123. In combination with phasal verbs the gerund forms a compound verbal phasal predicate. The finite phasal verb denotes a phase of the action expressed by the gerund. The most common phasal verbs followed by the gerund are: *to begin*,* to burst out, to start*, to cease, to continue*, to give up, to go on, to finish, to keep on, to leave off, to stop.*

* The verbs marked by an asterisk may also be followed by the infinitive.

Again you *start arguing.*
On hearing the joke everybody *burst out laughing.*
They *kept on arguing.*
Your health will improve as soon as you *give up smoking.*

This is the only function of the gerund that is not characteristic of the noun, for it is caused by the verbal character of the gerund.
A gerundial predicative construction cannot form part of a compound verbal predicate.

The gerund as object

§ 124. The gerund can be used as a direct or a prepositional object. As a direct object it follows a number of monotransitive verbs, some of which take only the gerund, while others may be followed

either by the gerund or by the infinitive. The gerund is also used after the adjective *worth*.

The following verbs are followed only by the gerund:

to admit	to postpone
to appreciate	to practise
to avoid	to put off
to deny	to recollect
to detest	to resent
to enjoy	to resist
to excuse	to risk
to fancy	to suggest
to imagine	to understand
to mention	
to mind	can't help
to miss	can't stand

We all appreciate *your helping us.*
Avoid *using very long sentences.*
Fancy *us (our) having to walk a mile in a wind like this!*
I'm sorry that I missed *seeing you!*
Do you mind *Ann's joining us?*
Practise *listening to tape recordings.* It's good practice!
I find the book worth *reading.*

Verbs followed by either the gerund or the infinitive.

to have	to remember
to forget	to regret
to intend	
to like (dislike)	can't bear
to plan	can't afford*
to prefer	

* On the difference between the use of the gerund and the infinitive with some verbs see § 127.

I can't bear *your (you) being so sad.*
We can't afford *going to the cinema* too often now, we are revising for our exams.
I prefer *walking home* (to taking a bus).

After verbs taking an object and an objective predicative the gerund, or rather a gerundial phrase or construction, is preceded by an introductory object *it.*

I find *it* strange *our going without you.*
I think *it* no use *your (you) arguing about trifles.*

As a prepositional object the gerund may follow (a) monotransitive prepositional verbs, (b) ditransitive verbs taking a direct and a prepositional object, (c) adjectives and statives and (d) participle II, generally when used as a predicative.

a)   to agree ⎫   to count ⎫
     to object ⎬ to   to depend ⎬ on
     to look forward ⎭   to rely ⎭

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to hear
 to learn   of
to think

to persist ⎫
to consist ⎬ in
to succeed ⎭

We all agree *to your opening the discussion.*
Happiness consists largely *in having true friends.*
All depends *on the doctor being sent for in time.*
They are thinking *of doing something for him.*

b)   to accuse ⎫ of   to thank ⎫
      to suspect ⎭   to blame ⎪
      to prevent ⎫ from   to praise ⎬ for
      to stop ⎭   to punish ⎪
                                           to sentence ⎭

to assist ⎫
to help in ⎬ in
to have no difficulty ⎭   to congratulate smb. on

Roy accused me *of disliking him.*
What prevented you *from becoming a professional actor?*
Who will help me *in hanging these pictures?*
You should blame yourself *for getting such a low mark.*
I had no difficulty *in getting the tickets for the concert.*

Note:

As is seen from above a prepositional *for-object* has a shade of causal meaning.

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c)   to be afraid ⎫   to be ignorant ⎫
      to be aware ⎪   to be proud ⎬ of
      to be conscious ⎬ of   to be sure ⎭
      to be capable ⎪   to be responsible for
      to be fond ⎭   to be sorry about
                                         to be keen on

I don't have the TV too loud, because I'm afraid *of disturbing the neighbours.*
We are all proud *of our citizen's getting the first prize.*
Ned will be responsible *for arranging the farewell party.*
Don't be sorry *about missing the first scene*, it was rather dull.

d)   to be accustomed ⎫ to   to be (dis)pleased with (at)
      to be used ⎭   to be surprised at
      to be absorbed ⎫ in   to be tired of
      to be engrossed ⎭

I'm not used *to being talked to in that rude way.*
The teacher was displeased *with the boys being noisy.*
We were surprised *at your leaving the party.*
A teacher shouldn't get tired *of explaining things to his pupils.*

The gerund as attribute

§ 125. When used as an attribute, the gerund modifies nouns, mainly abstract nouns. It is always preceded by a preposition, in the vast majority of cases by *of*, as in the following combinations: *the art of teaching, the habit of speaking, a certain way of walking, a chance of seeing somebody, a hope of getting a ticket, an idea of going to the cinema, an intention of learning another foreign language,* etc.

There is a chance *of catching the train.*
Professor N spoke about new methods *of teaching English to foreign students.*
The idea *of him being in Paris* was not a pleasant one.
Lucy had the impression *of being carried upstairs.*
Isn't there any hope *of your being able to go with us at all*?

In some cases the choice of the preposition depends on the requirements of the modified noun, as in *surprise at, experience in, skill in, apology (excuse) for, objection to.*

The boy showed his skill *in building model boats.*
Imagine his surprise *at seeing me.*

When a gerund modifies a concrete noun it is preceded by the preposition *for* and the whole gerundial phrase as attribute expresses the purpose or destination of the thing mentioned.

The barometer is an instrument *for measuring the pressure of the air.*

A gerund as attribute may precede the noun it modifies in phrases bordering on a compound noun. A premodifying attribute is used without a preposition, as in *a dancing master, a diving suit, a reading lamp, a spending habit, a working method, a writing career, a swimming pool, a walking stick*, etc.*

* See §132.

The gerund as adverbial modifier

§ 126. Owing to the variety of prepositions which may precede the gerund in the function of an adverbial modifier, a gerund may have different meanings.

1) **As an adverbial modifier of time** it may characterize the main verb from the viewpoint of priority, simultaneity, or posteriority. It may also indicate the starting point of the action. The prepositions used are *on, after, in, before, since.*

One day, *on returning to his hotel*, he found a note in his room.
At first he couldn't understand. *After thinking it over* he hit upon the explanation.
And I'll wash the dishes and clean *up before coming to bed*.
I had had a lot of thoughts *since leaving the office.*

2) As **an adverbial modifier of reason** it is introduced by the prepositions *because of, for, from, for fear of, on account of, through.*

So you see I couldn't sleep *for worrying*.
We lost ourselves *through not knowing the way*.
He (Jolyon) took care not to face the future *for fear of breaking up his untroubled manner*.

3) As an adverbial modifier of manner the gerund generally occurs with the prepositions *by* or *without*.

You will achieve a lot *by felling the truth*.
She dressed *without making a sound*.

4) As **an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances** it requires the preposition *without*.

They danced *without speaking*. (= They danced and didn't speak)
The door opened *without having been knocked on*.

5) As **an adverbial modifier of concession** it is preceded by the preposition *in spite of*:

I don't ask any questions *in spite of there being a lot of questions to ask*.

6) As **an adverbial modifier of condition** it takes the prepositions *without, but for, in case of*.

You won't enrich your vocabulary *without making use of an English dictionary*. (= if you don't make use
of...)
But for meeting John, I shouldn't have become an English teacher.

7) As **an adverbial modifier of purpose** it is introduced by the preposition *for*, though this pattern is rather rare.

They took her to the station *for questioning*.

The gerund and the infinitive compared

§ 127. The gerund and the infinitive have much in common since they both have some nominal and some verbal features. However, in the infinitive the verbal nature is more prominent, whereas in the gerund the nominal one.

The basic difference in their meaning is that the gerund is more general, whereas the infinitive is more specific and more bound to some particular occasion. When they combine with the same verb the difference in their meaning and use should be fully realized.

1. With the verbs *to like, to hate, to prefer* the gerund expresses a more general or a habitual action, the infinitive a specific single action:

I *like swimming* (I am fond of swimming).   I *shouldn't like to swim* in this lake.
I *hate interrupting* people.   I *hate to interrupt* you, but I have to.
They *prefer staying* indoors when the weather is cold.   I'*d prefer to stay* at home in this cold weather.

2. With the verbs *to begin* and *to start* either form may generally be used, but again the gerund is preferable when the action is more general.

She *began singing* when a child.   She went over to the piano and *began to sing*.

No **gerund is used:**

a) when the finite verb is in the continuous form.

He *is beginning to study* French.
It's beginning to rain.

b) with the verbs *to understand* and *to see* (meaning *to understand*).

He began *to understand* how it was done.

c) when the subject denotes a thing, not a living being.

The doors began *to creak*.
The clock began *to strike*.

3. The verb *to remember* is followed by a gerund when it means a prior action (*to recall, to keep in one's memory some past event*), and by an infinitive when it means a simultaneous action (the working of one's memory).

I *remembered posting* the letters.
(Я помнил, что опустил письмо).

I *remembered to post the* letters. =
I remembered and posted.
(Я не забыл опустить письмо).

The same refers to the verb *to forget*.

I shall never *forget hearing* him sing
(Я никогда не забуду как он пел).

Don't forget to post the letters!
(Не забудь опустить письма).
I *didn't forget to post* the letters.
(Я не забыл опустить письма).

4. The verb *to regret* is followed by the gerund to suggest priority, whereas the infinitive suggests a simultaneous action.

I *regret not having worked* harder at the language as a boy.
(Я сожалею, что не учил как следует языка в детстве).
I *regret following* his advice.
(Я сожалею, что последовал его   совету).

I *regret to inform* you.
(С сожалением сообщаю вам это).
I *regret to have to inform* you.
(Сожалею, что вынужден сообщить вам это).

5. a) after *to stop* the gerund is used when it suggests the end of the action denoted by the gerund, whereas the infinitive is used as an adverbial of purpose.

Stop arguing!
(Перестань спорить!)
I *stopped talking.*
(Я замолчал).

I *stopped to talk* to a friend of mine
(Я остановилась, чтобы поговорить с другом).

b) The phrasal verb *to go on* with a gerund suggests the continuation of the action, denoted by the gerund and forms part of a compound verbal predicate; an infinitive points out a new stage in the sequence of actions.

The teacher *went on explaining* the use of verbals (continued). (... продолжал объяснять ...)	The teacher *went on to explain* he use of the gerund after some verbs. (... объяснял одно правило за другим .... т. е. употребление герундия после разных глаголов).

6. The verb *to allow* is used with a gerund when it is not followed by an indirect object.

They *don't allow smoking* here. (Здесь курить запрещено).	They *allowed us to smoke.* (Они разрешили нам курить).

The gerund and the verbal noun compared

§ 128. Although formed in the same way as the gerund, the verbal noun is another part of speech and has no verbal features at all. The following table shows the main differences between the gerund and the verbal noun.

Table VI

The characteristics of the gerund and the verbal noun

Grammatical characteristics / Forms		The gerund	The verbal noun
M o r f o l o g y	Voice and perfect	being done, having done	-
	The plural form	-	sufferings, comings and goings
S y n t a x	Direct object	*I like doing morning exercises.*	-
	Of-phrase and adjectival attributes	-	*The doing of morning Exercises* was very good for me. The *regular* doing of morning exercises
	Adverbs as a modifier	Doing morning exercises *regularly* will improve your health.	-
	Articles	-	The doing of morning exercises. The acting was perfect.

From the table we can see that the distinctive features of the gerund are its verbal categories in the sphere of morphology and its verbal combinability. The distinctive features of the verbal noun are its nominal category of number and its noun combinability. It must be taken into consideration that a verbal noun is an abstract noun, and the use of the article and the plural form is determined by the requirements of the meaning and context.

It is more difficult to discriminate between a gerund and a verbal noun in cases where the verbal characteristics of the gerund are not apparent. This happens mainly when an *-ing* form is used as a single word without any modifiers or with such modifiers as occur with both the gerund and the verbal noun (*His coming was unexpected. Her acting was perfect*). In such cases the meaning of the form should be taken into account. Thus a gerund suggests a process, an activity, whereas a verbal noun denotes kinds of occupation (*skating* as compared to hockey), an art form (*acting, painting*), a branch of knowledge

(*engineering, spelling* as opposed to pronunciation and as a synonym for orthography).

It goes without saying that an *-ing* form is a pure noun when it denotes an object, often the result of activity (a *building* - a house; a *drawing*, a *painting* - a picture). In such cases a noun unlike a gerund, may also combine with numerals, as in *two drawings, four buildings*, etc.

The participle

The participle is a non-finite form of the verb. There are two forms of the participle - participle I and participle II.

Participle I

§ 129. Participle I is a non-finite form of the verb with some adjectival and adverbial features. It is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb.*

* For rules of spelling and pronunciation see § 7. 138

The verbal character of participle I is manifested morphologically in the categories of voice and perfect (see table VII) and syntactically in its combinability. Thus, like the other non-finites, it may combine: a) with a noun or a pronoun as direct, indirect or prepositional object; b) with an adverb or a prepositional phrase as an adverbial modifier; c) with a noun or adjective as a predicative.

a) *Seeing Jane*, I rushed to greet her.
   We didn't utter a word while *listening to the story*.

b) *Rising early*, you'll make your days longer.
   Do you know the man *sitting in the middle of the first row*?

c) *Being absent-minded*, he went into the wrong room.

Participle I is used as a pure verb form in the formation of the continuous aspect forms.

The adjectival and adverbial features of participle I are manitested in its syntactical functions as an attribute and an adverbial modifier.

Arriving at the station, she saw him at once, *leaning agains the railing*.
(adverbial modifier of time, detached attribute).

Non-perfect participle I active has synonymous adjectives formed from the same verb stem, such as *resulting - resultant, convulsing - convulsive, abounding - abundant, deceiving - deceptive*. Some participles border on adjectives when used as attributes or predicatives, and have qualitative adjectives as synonyms; for example *amusing - funny, boring - dull, deafening - (very) loud*. There are even some deverbal adjectives that have completely lost their verbal meaning, for example *interesting, charming*.

When they lose their verbal character, participles may be modified by adverbs of degree used with adjectives, such as *very, so, too, as* in *very (greatly, exceedingly*, etc.) *amusing, too boring, most exciting*.

My job is with one of the ministers - *too boring and distasteful to discuss*.
All this was *extremely gratifying*.

Like an adjective, participle I forms adverbs with the suffix **-ly:** *laughingly, jokingly, surprisingly, admiringly, appealingly, feelingly*.

You surprise me, she said *feelingly*.

The grammatical categories of participle I

Table VII

Perfect \ Voice	Active	Passive
Non-Perfect	going taking	– being taken
Perfect	having gone having taken	– having been taken

The category of perfect

The category of perfect in participle I finds its expression in the contrast of the non-perfect and perfect forms.

The non-perfect form suggests that the action denoted by participle I is simultaneous with that of the finite verb. Thus the time-reference of the action expressed by participle I can be understood only from the context, that is it is not absolute, but relative.

Learning foreign languages ⎰ you know your native tongue better.
⎱ I used to begin my day with repeating new words.
⎱ you will learn a lot about your native tongue.

The perfect form of participle I indicates that the action denoted by the participle is prior to that denoted by the finite verb.

Having learnt the elements of English ⎰ I shall start upon French.
⎱ our students start upon French or German.
⎱ we started upon French.

The meaning of priority may be accompanied by the notion of completion or duration, depending on whether the meaning of the verb is terminative or durative.

Dinny took the little packet, and *having brought* no bag, slipped it down her dress.
Having waited several hours in the snow to see me, he was not likely to show much patience when the
house was thrown into darkness.

Like that of the other non-finites, the perfect form of participle I invariably expresses priority, whereas non-perfect participle I varies in its meaning according to the context, expressing either a prior or a simultaneous or a posterior action.

Non-perfect participle I regularly expresses immediate priority and denotes an instantaneous action if it is formed from terminative verbs, such as verbs of motion (*to come, to enter, to arrive, to turn, to leave*), of sense perception (*to see, to hear, to find*) and verbs of certain specific actions associated with motion (*to put, to put on, to take, to take off, to seize, to grasp, to open*).

Arriving at the station, he found his train gone.
Leaving the house, Andrew continued his round.

Turning the comer, you'll see the house you are looking for.
Hearing a noise in the garden, I looked out of the window.
Taking off our shoes, we tiptoed into the nursery.

The perfect participle of the same verbs is used when there is a lapse of time between the two actions, or when the action denoted by the participle is durative. Compare the following examples:

Seeing Jane, I rushed to greet her. But: *Having seen* tine girl only once, I didn't recognize her.
Not having seen her for a long time, I didn't recognize her.

Sometimes the perfect participle is used to emphasize priority. Compare these examples:

Her husband, *finding the right key*, fits it into the lock of the bureau.
Having found the place he sought, Bateman sent in his card to the manager.

Non-perfect participle I may denote a posterior action, immediately following the first action, forming its part or being its result, as in:

Lizzy left the room, *banging the door shut.*
John fell, *hurting his knee.*

There may be a lapse of time between the first and the second (posterior) action. This is evident from the context.

I then hired a car and went home, *arriving just before twelve o'clock.*
We left at dawn, *returning late.*

As seen from the above examples non-perfect participle I denoting a prior action usually precedes the predicate verb. When it denotes a posterior action, it stands always after the predicate verb. In both cases it corresponds to the Russian perfective adverbial participle (деепричастие) (приехав, повернув, услышав, сняв, поднявшись, найдя, хлопнув, вернувшись).

The category of voice

§ 130. Participle I of transitive verbs, both non-perfect and perfect, has voice distinctions, which are realized in the contrast of active and passive forms:

Translating from English into Russian, she should know well both languages.	*Being translated* into many languages, the novel is known all over the world.
Having translated the text into Russian, we handed it to the teacher.	*Having been translated* long ago, the novel is likely to be re-translated.

Participle I active denotes an action directed from the doer of the action, while participle I passive denotes an action directed towards it.

The carrier of the action may coincide with the subject of the sentence, as in the above examples. It may also be a noun modified by participle I used attributively, in whatever function the noun is used:

Do you know *the students translating* the text?
Have you read *the text being translated* by the students?

The doer of the action may be expressed by the nominal element of a predicative construction:

I heard *someone mentioning your name.*
I heard *your name being mentioned* at the conference.

Non-perfect participle I active of transitive verbs can be contrasted not only with participle I passive, but also with participle II:

taking   - being taken   - taken
mentioning   - being mentioned - mentioned
teaching   - being taught   - taught
holding   - being held   - held

According to the syntactical function of participle I and the aspectual character of the verb, non-perfect participle I passive may denote process, as in:

Have you heard anything of the conference *being held* at the University? (of the conference which is
being held at the University)

The phrase *The conference held at the University* is ambiguous, because it might be understood as *The conference that has been held* or *-was held* or *is being held.*

Syntactical functions of participle I

§ 131. Participle I performs the syntactical functions characteristic of the adjective and the adverb, and can therefore be used as attribute, predicative, or as adverbial modifier.
It may be used (a) alone or (b) as headword of a participial phrase, or else (c) as part of a predicative construction:

a) Let *sleeping* dogs lie.
   He drank his coffee *standing*.

b) There are some other people *waiting for you.*
   The youth looked at him curiously, *never having seen a Forsyte with a beard.*

c) We found *him working in the garden.*

Participle I as attribute

§ 132. This function is peculiar to non-perfect participle I in its main sense, that of a process simultaneous with the action denoted by the main verb or with the moment of speech. It corresponds to the Russian imperfective participle, usually active: *leading* - ведущий, *asking* - спрашивающий, *sleeping* - спящий. The passive participle I corresponds to the Russian imperfective passive participle: *being asked* - спрашиваемый, *being translated* -переводимый, *being built* - строящийся.
When a participial phrase is used as attribute it follows the modified noun. Its verbal character is evident from its verbal combinability and sometimes from the passive form itself. A participial phrase may be (a) non-detached or (b) detached:

a) We went along the street *leading to the seashore.*

Emma sat in the armchair *facing the door*.
Another factor concerns the formality of the language *being taught*.

b) Once a month Tommy, *arriving separately*, came in for a brief drink.

A detached participial phrase is set off from the modified noun by a comma (or commas) in writing and by a pause (or pauses) in speech.

When a single participle is used as attribute, it generally functions as a premodifier. Here we usually find only participle I active of intransitive verbs. Its verbal character is clear from the processual meaning of the verb itself: *living people, a sleeping dog*.

Participle I as a premodifying attribute differs from the gerund in the same function. The noun serves as the subject of the action expressed by the participle, as in *a living man = a man who lives, a burning house = a house that is burning, a dancing girl == a girl who is dancing* (or dances). The gerund suggests the destination of the object or a person's occupation, as in *writing paper =paper for writing, dancing hall = a hall for dancing, a singing teacher = a teacher of singing*. Note also the difference in stress patterns. There are two stresses in the pattern with the participle (*a 'burning 'house*), the second being the main stress, while in the pattern with the gerund only the first (gerundial) element is stressed (*a ' dancing hall*); if there are two stresses, the first component has the main stress, as in *a 'speaking 'habit, a 'writing 'career*.

When a prior action is meant no participle I can be used as attribute, only an attributive clause is used. Thus when we translate sentences with the Russian perfective participle active with the suffix-вш into English we must use an attributive clause: спроси<u>вш</u>ий - *who has asked*, переводи<u>вш</u>ий (ранее) - *who has translated* or *who has (had) been translating*, уеха<u>вш</u>ий -*who has gone*, верну<u>вш</u>ийся - *who has (had) returned* or *who returned*, depending on the context or situation:

Я разговаривал со студентами, верну<u>вш</u>имися с практики. – I've just talked to the students *who have come back from their teaching practice.*

Я разговаривал со студентами, верну<u>вш</u>имися с практики на прошлой неделе. – I've talked to the students *who came back from their school practice last week.*   .

Женщина, стоя<u>вш</u>ая на крыльце, вошла в дом. - The woman *who had been standing on the porch* went into the house, (the action expressed by the participle is prior to that of the finite verb) But: Я обратился к женщине, стоя<u>вш</u>ей на крыльце. - I addressed the woman *standing* on the porch (simultaneous actions).

Participle I as adverbial modifier

§ 133. All the four forms of participle I can function as adverbial modifiers of different semantic types (time, reason, manner, attendant circumstances, and sometimes condition, concession, comparison).

The semantic type of the adverbial modifier is clear from the context and the predicate group, as in:

Being a newcomer, he felt ill at case. (adverbial modifier of reason)

In some cases, however, the functional meaning is not so obvious. For example, there may be **a combination of causal and temporal meaning** as in:

Seeing her, he stopped (he stopped *because* he saw her, or *when* he saw her).

or **of causal and conditional meaning:**

Living alone, one becomes self-centred (*as* one lives alone, or *if* one lives alone).

Very often to make the semantical relationship clearer, certain conjunctions are employed, such as: *when, while, though, as if, as though, if.*

1) Participle I as **adverbial modifier of time** may denote a simultaneous or a prior action. Here it corresponds to the Russian *adverbial participle* (деепричастие).

Non-perfect participle I active, when used as an adverbial modifier of time, usually conveys the meaning of the motion or state. Most often it is a participle of the verbs of motion (*come, walk, go*), or position in space (*sit, lie, stand*).

Walking along the track, Bowen burst into song.
Returning to London, Arthur had thrown himself into the work.
Standing there now on the corner of the stage, he went on as before.
Lying in the hospital with his rotting wound, he dictated his farewell letter to his brother.

The notion of simultaneity may be expressed more explicitly by the conjunctions *when* and *while.*

He felt horrible *while saying this.*
Don't forget articles *when speaking English.*

Participle I passive in this function usually denotes priority.

He enquired hurriedly whether Mrs. Forsyte was at home and *being informed that she was not*, heaved a
sigh of relief.
Being left alone, Paulina and I kept silence for some time.

Perfect participle I as adverbial modifier of time, always denotes a prior action.

They wrote because they had to, <u>and having written,</u> thought only of what they were going to write next.

2) Participle I as **adverbial modifier of reason** can be expressed by all the four forms. The most frequently used non-perfect participles I are those of verbs denoting mental perception and emotions, for example, *knowing, realizing, remembering, expecting, hoping, fearing*; also the participles *being* and *having.*

Hoping to catch the train, we took a taxi.
She knew that we were guilty. *And knowing it*, the child in her was outraged.
Being there, I could see all.
He's very conceited, you know, *having parades and things all the time.*
Having decided on this course of action some time ago, I was unable to stay at home.

Another characteristic feature of participles functioning as adverbials of reason consists in their combinability with negation (no matter what it is expressed by).

I turned back, *not knowing where to go.*
Even then he hadn't been able to watch her, *not having eyes in the back of his head.*

3) The adverbial modifier **of attendant circumstances** is one of the most characteristic of participle I - it is considered to be the main grammatical meaning of non-perfect participle I. In this case participle I denotes some action or event parallel to the action or state denoted by the finite verb.

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Deb was silent, *fidgeting with the spoon in her saucer.*
I laughed, and *still laughing* turned away eastward.

4) Participle I as **an adverbial modifier of manner** is akin to an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances. The difference consists in the fact that an adverbial modifier of manner characterizes the action of the finite verb, whereas that of attendant circumstances denotes a parallel action or event.

He came in *carrying a big parcel.*

5) Occasionally participle I occurs as **an adverbial modifier of comparison, concession or condition.**
As an adverbial of comparison the participle is always preceded by the conjunction *as if, as though:*

As if obeying him, I turned and stared into his face.

When participle I is used as an adverbial modifier of concession the conjunction is not obligatory and then the idea of concession may be understood from the context. However the conjunction *though* will make the semantic relationship clearer.

Somebody was waiting: a man who, *though moving irregularly*, was making quite a speed in my direction.

In the same way participle I as an adverbial modifier of condition is recognized by its syntactical surroundings. It is either the subjunctive mood or the future tense form which allows a participial phrase to function as an adverbial modifier of condition:

She ought to be there and her absence might be resented, but *being there* she wouldn't know what to say (но, если бы она была там ... , ... но будучи там ...).
Well, we'll be in Scotland afore we know where we are, *going at this speed* (... если будем двигаться с такой скоростью).

Participle I as part of the compound verbal predicate

§ 134. Non-perfect participle I can be part of a compound verbal predicate of double orientation. Within this type of predicate participle I follows verbs of sense perception, such as *to see, to hear, to feel, to find, to catch,* also some causative verbs, such as *to keep, to leave* in the passive voice.

Jane *was heard playing* the piano.
Paul *was found working* in the garden.
The boy *was caught teasing* the cat.
I *was kept waiting* an hour or so.
I *was left standing* on the stage.

In this type of predicate participle I active is generally used, though occasionally non-perfect participle I passive is to be found.

He flicks the switch and "Roll Out the Barrel" *is heard being whistled.*

The predicate of double orientation consists of two parts: the first is oriented on somebody implied, and the second refers semantically to the doer of the action expressed by the subject. Thus the first

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example means that somebody heard that Jane was playing the piano.* Therefore sentences with this type of predicate are translated into Russian by indefinite personal or impersonal sentences, complex or simple, depending on the verb in the passive voice.

* See p. II Syntax, § 53 The compound verbal predicate of double orientation; also § 123 Predicative complexes (the subjective predicative construction).

Слышали (слышно было), как Джейн играет на рояле.
Меня *заставили* ждать почти целый час.

Participle I as predicative

§ 135. In the position of predicative only non-perfect participle I active occurs, its adjectival character being predominant. Although keeping the form of the participle, it is treated as an adjective, or a deverbal adjective.

The participle in this position gives the qualitative characterization to the person or thing used as subject (or object, in the case of the objective predicative).

The story is *amusing*.	- I find the story *amusing*.
Your answer is *surprising*.	- I consider your answer *surprising*.
We found him *dying*	- We found that he was *dying*.

Participle I as predicative may be used with other linkverbs, in which case it may keep its verbal character, as in:

Isadora *remained standing*.

Participle I as independent element (parenthesis)

§ 136. Participle I as parenthesis forms the headword of a participial phrase, the meaning of which is a comment upon the contents of the whole sentence or sometimes part of it. The comment may take the form of a logical restriction or personal attitude. Here we find such participial phrases as *generally (properly, roughly, legally, strictly) speaking, putting it mildly, judging by (from), allowing for, taking everything into consideration*, etc.

Judging from what you say, he ought to succeed.
Strictly speaking, this is illegal.

Predicative constructions with participle I

§ 137. Participle I may function as part of a predicative construction, entering into a predicative relationship with some nominal element and forming a syntactical unit with it.

The objective participial construction

The objective participial construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case and participle I forming a syntactical complex, the two main components of which are in predicative relationship. Since the construction always follows transitive verbs, its syntactical function is that of a complex object.* Thus in its meaning it corresponds to a subordinate clause and is usually translated into Russian by a subordinate object clause:

* For details see p. II Syntax. The Predicative Constructions (The Complex Object).

I saw *John playing tennis*   - Я видел, как Джон играет в теннис.

I saw *him playing tennis* — Я видел, как он играет в теннис.
We heard *them singing* — Мы слышали, как они поют.

In many cases, however, the translation depends on the verb it reters to and on the requirements of the Russian usage.

The nominal element usually refers to a person or a thing different from that denoted by the subject of the sentence. If it refers to the same person as the subject, a reflexive pronoun is to be used, as in:

He heard *himself uttering the words.*

The construction is generally used with non-perfect participle I active, and occasionally it occurs with participle I passive:

I could see *the books being taken* away.

Some of the verbs followed by the objective participial construction occur also with the objective infinitive construction (such as *to see, to watch, to hear, to feel*). The difference between these two constructions concerns the meaning suggested by an infinitive or participle I; the former emphasizes the fact of an action being completed, the latter its processual character, as in:

I saw *the car stop* at the gate. — Я видел, что машина, остановилась у ворот.
I saw *the car stopping.* — Я видел, как машина остановилась (останавливалась) у ворот.

If the homogeneous infinitives are used, they denote two actions in succession. If two participles I are homogeneous, they suggest two simultaneous actions.

I heard *him leave the room and lock the door.* — Я слышал, как он вышел из комнаты и запер ее.
Soames saw *Bosinney watching her and smiling to himself.* — Соме увидел, что Босинни наблюдал за ней и улыбался сам себе.

The objective participial construction is used:

a) with verbs of **sense perception,**
b) with various verbs of **causative meaning**, or **inducement.**
c) occasionally with verbs expressing **wish.**

a)	to see	to notice	to find	to listen (to)
	to hear	to observe	to catch	
	to feel	to perceive	to discover	
	to watch	to smell	to look (at)	

We saw (watched, heard, listened to) *the train approaching the station.*
Do you smell *something burning?*
I could feel *the dog leaning against my feet.*
We found *him working in the garden.*

b)	to have	to leave
	to get	to start
	to keep	to set

I won't have *you smoking at your age!*

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They soon got (started) *things going.*
Don't keep *me waiting.* I'm in a hurry.
Your words set *me thinking.*
Can you start (set) *that engine going?*

Note:

The verbs *to have, to get* may be used in the construction without their causative meaning, as in:

> I have some students waiting for me.
> I've got my grandson staying for a week.

Sentences with the verbs of this group are usually translated into Russian by simple sentences.

c) to want, to like

> I don't want *you talking back to me.*
> They didn't like *me leaving so early.*

§ 138. The nominative absolute participial construction.

This construction consists of two interdependent elements, nominal and verbal, which are in a predicative relation. The nominal element is a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case. The verbal element is participle I in any of its forms. The nominal and the verbal elements make a syntactical complex functioning as a detached adverbial modifier. Unlike the objective participial construction it does not depend on a verb:

> *John having left the room to ring for a taxi as arranged*, Mary sat down again to wait for him.

The difference between a participial phrase and a nominative absolute participial construction may be illustrated as follows:

Having read the novel Jane (she) put it aside.

The novel having been read, Jane (she) put it aside.

In a participial phrase the subject of the sentence is as a rule related both to the predicate verb and to the participle. In a sentence with a nominative absolute participial construction the subject of the sentence is related only to the predicate verb, and the nominal element is related to the participle.

The nominative absolute participial construction functions syntactically as an adverbial modifier**: an adverbial modifier of** a) **attendant circumstances**, b) **reason**, c) occasionally **time.**

a) Llewellyn looked through the window, *his glance travelling towards the bridge.*
  Mabel hurried out of the car and walked away, *tears streaming down her face.*
  We were both standing leaning against the mantelpiece, *she admirng her fan of blotting paper, I staring*
  at her.

A nominative absolute participial construction as an adverbial of attendant circumstances usually

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stands in postposition, and is widely used in literature.

It is translated into Russian by a coordinate clause: *Мы оба стояли у камина; она любовалась веером из промокательной бумаги, а я глядел на нее.*

b) But I was a little on edge, *there being something to report.*
   The ship's band did not play in the morning, *it being Sunday.*

c) *The work being finished*, the two girls went into the shop.

Sentences with a nominative absolute participial construction as an adverbial of reason or time are translated by complex sentences with the corresponding subordinate clauses: *Я нервничал, так как было о чем сообщить... Когда работа была закончена, девушки вошли в мастерскую.*

As well as in sentences with participial phrases causal and temporal meanings may be combined, as in:

Ice having thus been broken, the two former rivals grew still more affectionate.

Prepositional absolute participial construction with participle I

A prepositional absolute construction differs from a non-prepositional participial construction in that it is introduced by the preposition *with.* Its nominal part is usually a noun in the common case, or very rarely a personal pronoun in the objective case. It is not necessarily set off by a comma:

Andrew went into the house *with his heart beating fast.*

The main syntactical function of the construction is an adverbial modifier of **attendant circumstances**, as in:

The officer sat *with his long fine hands lying on the table perfectly still.*

The meaning of attendant circumstances may be combined with **temporal or causal ones:**

I won't speak *with him staring at me like that.*
Just now, *with the harvest coming on*, everything looks its richest.
It (St. John's Wood) is ever so pretty *with all the trees coming out.*

The construction is usually translated into Russian by a coordinate or a subordinate clause, and sometimes by means of a prepositional phrase, or an adverbial participle (деепричастие).

(Когда) Эндрю вошел в дом, сердце его сильно билось (*с бьющимся сердцем*).
Теперь, *когда приближается время жатвы*, все так красиво.

Participle I and the gerund compared

§ 139. Participle I and the gerund are alike in their verbal characteristics, both morphological (the categories of voice and perfect) and syntactical (verbal combinability).

The difference between the two lies in their non-verbal characteristics, that is in their syntactical functions and non-verbal combinability. Participle I, unless substantivized, cannot be used as subject or object, whereas such use is typical of the noun and therefore of the gerund. When used as adverbial modifier or attribute, participle I like an adjective or an adverb is never preceded by a preposition. On the other hand when the gerund is used as attribute or adverbial modifier it is preceded by a preposition like a

noun in these functions.

The difference between the two is also to be found in the nominal tendencies of the gerund and the adjectival tendencies of participle I. This is most evident in their function of a predicative and an attribute.

As predicative participle I gives qualitative characteristics to the subject, thus tending towards an adjective, as in:

The sound of the thunder was *deafening.*

The gerund does not qualify the subject, it rather identifies the subject by revealing its meaning, as in:

His favourite occupation is *collecting stamps* (or *playing football* or *just football*).

When a gerund or a participle is used as an attribute, the difference between them does not lie only in the absence, or presence of the preposition, but also in their relationship to the modified noun. (For details see § 132 on premodifying attributes). Participle I denotes an action that the person or thing performs or experiences:

What is the name of the man *talking* with your sister?

Thus the modified noun denotes the doer of the action expressed by the participle.

The gerund usually reveals the meaning of the modified noun, which never denotes the performer of the action.

What the use *of crying so*?
That was my last chance *of seeing him.*
There was no hope *of saving her.*

When used as an adverbial modifier, the gerund is more varied in its application than the participle because it is used with different prepositions.

The participle and the gerund are interchangeable when used as adverbials of time characterizing the verb through simultaneous or prior events:

Discussing the plan
In discussing the plan } we heard a lot of helpfull suggestions.
Entering the room
On entering the room } he closed the door.
After discussing the plan
Having discussed the plan } we started carring it out.

Only the gerund is possible when the starting or the final point of the action is meant, as in:

He has never been at his native town *since leaving it in 1964.*
You must get your parents' permission *before leaving for the mountains.*

Yet there are a number of cases, especially among predicative constructions, where the *-ing* form may be treated either as a participle or a gerund, the difference between them being neutralized, as in:

I don't count on *him scaring easily.*
Then he was aware of *Toscato shaking the door of the box.*
I remember *them staying with us once.*

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Fancy *him saying so!*

Participle II

§ 140. Participle II is a non-finite form of the verb with verbal and adjectival features. Participle II stands apart from the other non-finites in that it does not possess their morphological categories. Nevertheless, being a verb form, it possesses the potential verbal meaning of voice, aspect and correlation, which depend upon the meaning of the verb it is formed from and which are realized in the context.

The main meanings of participle II are those of a state as a result of some action or an action itself. One of the most essential characteristics of participle II is that when it is used as part of the sentence, participle II of a transitive verb is passive in meaning, participle II of an intransitive verb is active.

Thus the participles *invited, told, taken* are semantically passive and correspond to the Russian passive participles приглашенный, рассказанный, взятый. The participles *arrived, gone, risen* are semantically active and correspond to the Russian active participles прибывший, ушедший, поднявшийся (взошедший).

§ 141. The adjectival nature of participle II manifests itself in its function in the sentence, which is usually that of either attribute or predicative. It may combine with adverbs of degree typical of adjectives, such as *very, too, slightly, so, much, more,* as in:

I am *very pleased* with you.
The children were *too excited* to notice the newcomer.
No man has ever had a *more devoted* sister than I.

Instead of the negation **not,** which we find with the other non-finites, participle II is often negated with the prefix **un-,** as in *unfinished, unanswered.*

Participle II may turn into adjectives with qualitative meaning synonymous with other adjectives, as in *celebrated - famous, tired - weary.*

Similar to adjectives and participle I, participle II may form adverbs with the help of the suffix **-ly:** *fixedly, unhurriedly, admittedly.*

The adjectival nature of participle II is traced in adjectivized participles with a form different from the verbal participle II. These forms occur as attributes in such phrases as *on bended knees, a drunken man, a lighted match (candle, torch), molten lava (lead, steel), roast meat, a rotten apple, a shaven head, a well-shaven man, sodden clothes, sunken eyes, a swollen river.* Some forms are used predicatively: *to be well-stricken in years, to be panic-stricken, poverty-stricken* (but thunder-struck, theatre-struck).

§ 142. The verbal character of participle II is manifested in its combinability. Thus participle II of transitive verbs easily combines with a by-object denoting the doer of the action as in *Jane entered the room followed by her brother.*

Participles II of phrasal verbs retain their composite structure: a *boy brought up in a teacher's family.*

Participles II of prepositional transitive verbs are followed by the appropriate prepositions: *a book often asked for, the article referred to, a man much spoken of.*

Ditransitive verbs keep their second object as in: *That was the main question asked her at the wedding.*

Participle II may be accompanied by an adverbial modifier expressed by adverbs or phrases combining with verbs: *a house built two years before, man hidden in the bush, a play well acted, a story long forgotten.*

One of the main verbal features of participle II is revealed in its functioning as part of the compound verb forms of the passive voice and the perfect.

Voice peculiarities of participle II

§ 143. Participle II of t r a n s i t i v e verbs, when it is not part of a perfect form, is always passive in meaning. Depending on the verb and the context it may correspond to any passive participle in Russian: *built* -построенный, строившийся, строящийся; *begun* - начатый, начинаемый, начинающийся; *translated* - переводящийся, переводившийся, переводимый, переведенный.

Having a passive meaning participle II of transitive verbs is opposed to participle I active: *asking - asked, loving - loved, seeing - seen, writing -written, teaching - taught, watching - watched,* etc.

The doer of the action or state denoted by participle II is to be found in the subject or object of the sentence, in the noun or pronoun modified by participle II, in the first (nominal) element of a predicative construction.

The passive meaning of participle II may be of three types:

1) denoting an action directed towards the person or non-person expressed by the subject or object. This is peculiar to durative (non-terminative) transitive verbs, such as *to accompany, to follow, to watch, to carry, to teach, to listen (to), to laugh (at), to look (at, for, on), to speak (of, to), to love, to hate*, as in:

Spanish is one of the foreign languages *taught* at our Institute.
I won't have my friend *laughed* at.

2) denoting a state, which is the result of an action. This is typical of terminative transitive verbs, such as *to bring, to catch, to do, to find, to make, to put, to solve, to build, to realise, to open, to close*, etc.

The problem is *solved.* The door is *shut.*

Occasionally, in a certain context, participle II of the above-mentioned verbs may denote action, as in: Brightman's place was an old English farm-house, *built two years before.*

3) denoting a pure state. This is the case with verbs denoting psycological states and emotions, such as *to amuse, to annoy, to offend, to surprise, to please, to excite.*

I felt annoyed when he refused to help me.
I'm very (much) pleased with what he has done.

Participle II of i n t r a n s i t i v e verbs is always active in meaning. The use of these participles is restricted. Only participles II of verbs denoting motion or change of state can be used as attributes. These are participles II of the verbs *to arrive, to fall, to go, to rise, to depart, to decease, to retire, to fade, to wither, to vanish, to decay* and some others. Participles II of these verbs correspond to the Russian active participle of the perfective aspect: *arrived* - прибывший, vanished - исчезнувший, *faded* - увядший, *decayed* - сгнивший, as in *arrived guests, the risen moon, the vanisned civilisation, the fallen leaves, the retired president.*

Among these participles we find some which can be used either transitively or intransitively, such as *hidden, increased, diminished, returned.* They correspond to the Russian perfective active participles with the suffix -ся (спрятавшийся, увеличившийся, вернувшийся): *the man hidden behind the tree, an increased population, a returned traveller.*

The aspectual meaning of participle II and perfect

§ 144. The original aspectual meaning of participle II is perfectivity. It is evident in terminative verbs and verbs of double aspectual meaning.

I n t r a n s i t i v e t e r m i n a t i v e verbs the passive meaning of participle II is combined with

perfectivity. Thus participle II can be opposed to participle I in their aspectual meanings of perfectivity/imperfectivity: *taking - taken, asking - asked, writing - written, telling - told* (берущий - взятый, спрашивающий - спрошенный, etc.).

The original meaning may be modified by the context, as can be seen by comparing the following sentences: *The story told by the hostess amused everybody* (история, рассказанная хозяйкой...). *Why don't we believe stories told by hunters and fishermen?* (истории, рассказываемые охотниками, т. е. которые рассказывают охотники)

There is a growing tendency in present-day English to use participle I passive as an attribute to emphasize the processual character of the action. Thus we may paraphrase the last sentence, saying, "Why don't we believe stories being told by hunters?"

Participle II of intransitive verbs or verbs used intransitively is always perfective in meaning and can be opposed to non-perfect participle I: *rising - risen, decaying - decayed, going - gone, arriving - arrived, retiring -retired,* as in*: the rising moon - the risen moon, the retiring director— the retired director.* The same in the auctioneer's formula: *Going! Going! Gone!* (Продается! Продается! Продано!)

The meaning of perfectivity/imperfectivity results in the potential meaning of perfect. The idea of priority and simultaneity is suggested by the aspectual character of the verb and is realized in the given context.

In many cases, however, the ideas of priority and simultaneity become fused, since the action is prior to, and the resulting state is simultaneous with, the action of the finite verb or the moment of speech. Thus in the sentence *First of all she went to the bombed building* the action of "bombing" is prior to the action of the finite verb "went", but the resulting state of the action is simultaneous with it.

Syntactical functions of participle II

§ 145. As part of the sentence participle II may stand alone or be the headword of a participial phrase. It may function as an attribute (close or detached), predicative, or as an adverbial modifier.

Participle II as attribute

§ 146. Participle II usually functions either as premodifier when it stands alone or forms a very short participial phrase containing an adverb. The verbal character of the participle in the first case is made clear only by its lexical meaning:

> First of all she went to the *bombed building.*
> Our minds should meet in a serious, mutually *needed search* for common understandings.
> It was a *neatly written* letter.

Sometimes the preposition is kept:

> The room even had a faint perfume about it which gave it a *lived-in air.*

As a *postmodifier* participle II manifests its verbal character more explicitly, even when it stands alone. It may be accompanied by a preposition, by an agentive by-object, an adverb and prepositional phrases as adverbial modifiers.

> Things *seen* are mightier than things heard.
> The dictionary *referred to* is to be found in our library.
> These are cities *inhabited by their creators.*
> Two women *dimly seen in the shadow* are talking softly.

When participle II or a participial phrase is detached, its position is not fixed. It may occupy the initial

position, the mid-position or the final position in the sentence. Detached attributes are separated from the noun by a comma (or commas) in writing and by a pause in speech. They are confined to literary style only.

Greatly excited, the children followed her into the garden.
Johnson, *left in charge of both officers*, marched about for a little while.
And people hurried by, *hidden under their dreadful umbrellas*.

Participle II as predicative

§ 147. In this function participle II denotes a state, as in:

The Fada road *is finished*, the great idea *is realized*.
You *seem surprized.*
He *looks perplexed and troubled.*
He *felt thoroughly disappointed.*
The door *remained locked.*

Occasionally we come across a participle II with an active meaning used predicatively:

The sun *is not risen.*
Everybody *is gone.*
Evening *is come.*

Participle II as adverbial modifier

§ 148. The adverbial function and meaning of participle II can be seen only from the general meaning of the sentence. In the vast majority of cases, when used adverbially, participle II is preceded by a conjunction, which explicitly indicates the semantic type of the adverbial modifier.
Participle II may serve as an adverbial modifier of:

time, usually with the conjunction *when* or *until:*
He is very affable *when spoken to*, but naturally silent.
He won't stop arguing *until interrupted.*

reason:
Deprived of his wife and son by the Spanish adventure, Jolyon found the solitude at Robin Hill intolerable.

condition, mostly with the conjunction *if* or *unless:*
I shall certainly give evidence on your behalf, *if required.*
John will speak for hours, *unless interrupted.*

concession, with the conjunction *though* or *although:*
Though asked in disarming sociability, Haldone's question was loaded.

comparison, with the conjunction *as if* or *as though:*
"I get off the train," he repeated *as if hypnotized.*

Predicative constructions with participle II

§ 149. Participle II forms the second (verbal) element of the objective with the participle construction and of the absolute participial construction in two variants: non-prepositional and prepositional.

§ 150. The objective participial construction with participle II.

The objective participial construction with participle II consists of a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case and participle II forming a syntactical complex, in which the two components are in a preducative relationship.

I must have *my watch mended.*   Мне нужно починить часы.
I never heard *him spoken of badly.*   Я никогда не слышал, чтобы о нем плохо отзывались.

The construction functions as a complex object to transitive verbs, mainly verbs (a) of causative meaning, (b) of physical perception, (c) of wish:

a) *to have, to get, to make*

You must have *your photo taken.*
Where did you have *your hair done?*
I won't have *my best friend laughed at.*
We must get *our tickets registered.*
The speaker made *himself heard with the help of a microphone.*

Besides the causative meaning suggesting inducement, sentences the verb *to have* may occasionally express experience or possess participle II emphasizing the resulting state, as in:

The patient *has an arm broken.*
I have *my task done.*

If the action is emphasized, the perfect form is preferable:

The patient *has broken an arm.*
I *have done* my task.

Notice the difference in translation:

У больного сломана рука. Больной сломал руку.
Мое задание выполнено. Я выполнил задание.

b) *to see, to hear, to feel, to find*

I saw *Jane addressed by a stranger.*
Have you ever heard *the writer's name mentioned before?*
We found *the door locked.*

c) *to wish, to want, to like, to prefer*

I want *the answer sent at once.*
We prefer *the letter answered by the chief.*

Sentences with causative verbs are usually translated into Russian by simple sentences, the causative

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meaning being evident from the context or the situation. In other cases a complex sentence with an object clause is preferable.

§ 151. The nominative absolute participial construction with participle II.

The construction consists of the nominal element (a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case) and participle II which form a syntactical complex, the nominal element and the participle being in subject-predicate relation. *The preparation completed*, we started off.

The nominative absolute participial construction with participle being has the syntactical function of a detached adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances (a), manner (b), time (c), reason (d), condition (e).

a) The next day I observed you - *myself unseen* - for half an hour.
   She was smoking now, *her eyes narrowed thoughtfully*.

b) He sat on the sofa, *his legs crossed*.

c) *The duster refolded and restored*, he threw his legs across the saddle. "Give it to Harriet, please," was

   then the direction, "and she can put it away." *This said*, he turned and fixed his eyes on Mrs. Bretton.

d) We began to talk, but *my attention distracted by my surroundings*, I took small notice of him.

e) He was a gentleman, but he was passionate, *the cup once sipped*, would he consent to put it down?

§ 152. The prepositional absolute construction with participle II.

This construction differs from the discussed above in that it is introduced by the preposition **with** and its nominal element is hardly ever presented by a pronoun; it is more closely related to the predicate verb and is seldom set off by a comma.

   She went on reading *with her eyes fixed on the pages of the book*.
   It is unhealthy to sleep *with the windows shut*.

The main syntactical function of the construction is that of an adverbial modifier of manner or attendant circumstances.

An additional idea of time, reason, or condition may be prompted by the context, as in: I can't *walk with my leg broken* (reason).

MODAL VERBS

§ 153. Modal verbs, unlike other verbs, do not denote actions to states, but only show the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the infinitive in combination with which they form compound modal predicates. Thus modal verbs may show that the action (or state, or process, or quality) is viewed by the speaker as *possible, obligatory, doubtful, certain, permissible, advisable, requested, prohibited, ordered,* etc. Modal verbs occur only with the infinitive. This or that meaning is to a great degree determined by the comminicative type of the sentence and the form of the infinitive.

There are 12 modal verbs in English. They are: **can, may, must, should ought, shall, will, would, need, dare, to be, to have (to have got).** The latter two are modal only in one of their meanings.

Ten of them (that is, all but *to be* and *to have*) are also called defective or anomalous verbs as they lack some features characteristic of other verbs, that is:

1) they do not take -*s* in the third person singular;
2) they have no verbals, so they have no analytical forms;
3) they have (except for *can* and *may*) only one form and no past tense;
4) they are followed (except for *ought*) by a bare infinitive (that is by the infinitive without the particle *to*);
5) they need no auxiliary to build up the interrogative and negative forms.

All modal verbs have 2 negative forms, full and contracted.

full form	contracted form
may not	mayn't
must not	mustn't
would not	wouldn't
should not	shouldn't
need not	needn't

Some of them have peculiarities both in spelling and pronunciation:

cannot	Can't [ka:nt]
shall not	Shan't [∫a:nt]
will not	Won't [wount]

Can

§ 154. This modal verb has two forms: *can* - for the present tense and *could* - for the past tense and for the subjunctive mood.

I *can't* dance now but I *could* when I was young.
I wish I *could* go with you.

I. *Can* followed by **the non-perfect common aspect infinitive** expresses:

1. **Physical and mental ability or capacity.**

The notion of ability is also expressed by *"to be able to"*.

Mary *can speak English* quite well but she *can't write* it at all (can = to be able, to know how to...).
John *can keep a secret* if he wants to (can = to be capable of).
I *can drive* a car = I know how to...
I *couldn't understand* him when he spoke very fast (= was unable to, was incapable of...).
He *could* (was able to) *speak English* very well when he was twelve.

The meaning of ability is expressed only by *"to be able to"* when the reference is to the future, as *can*, having no infinitive, has no future tense form.

Soon he *will be able to speak English* quite fluently.

Can is interchangeable with *to be able to* when it denotes mere capacity,

I *couldn't/was not able to do* that new job; it was too difficult.

This man *could/was able to cure* all diseases.

But only *to be able to* is used to express attainment or achievement of something through some capacity. Thus *to be able to* often combines the idea of "ability" and "achievement". In this case *was able to* means "managed to" or "succeeded in", and *could* is impossible.

The fire brigade *was able* (succeeded in putting, managed) *to put out* the fire before it destroyed the other
buildings. Пожарные сумели, им удалось ...
I *was able to go* to the mountains yesterday as I had a day off (I could and went).
I *was able to finish* my work in an hour (I managed, I could and did it).

2. **Possibility.**

a) possibility due to circumstances:

Anybody *can make a mistake*. Ошибаться может каждый.
You *can* hardly *blame* him for that. Вряд ли можно его за это винить.
I *couldn't take* your coat without paying you for it.

b) possibility due to the existing rules of laws:

In old days a man *could be sentenced* to death for a small crime. В старые времена можно было
приговорить человека к смерти за небольшое преступление.

The Lower House alone *can* initiate financial measures. Только Палата представителей может выносить на рассмотрение финансовые вопросы.

c) possibility of the idea (the so-called "theoretical" possibility):

The railways *can be improved*. (It is possible for the railways to be improved, as they are not yet perfect.)

In general statements of possibility *can* has roughly the same meaning as "sometimes".

The sea *can be rough*. = The sea is sometimes rough. Море иногда бывает бурным.

Can is generally used in questions about possibility and in statements about impossibility.

Can this *be true*? (Is it possible that this is true?) Неужели это правда?
This *can't be true*. (It is impossible that this is true.)

3. **Permission.**

Can we *go* home, Miss? Можно идти домой, мисс?
He *can* go now. Теперь он может идти.
The teacher said we *could go* home. Учитель разрешил нам идти домой.

Can is now more common than *may* (or might) to express the idea permission.

4. **Prohibition** (it is found only with the negative form of the modal verb, as prohibition may be understood as *the negation of permission - not to be allowed to...*). It corresponds to the Russian *нельзя, не надо.*

> You *can't cross* the street here. Здесь *нельзя* переходить улицу.
> You *can't touch* the exhibits in a museum (it is not allowed).
> - *Can we stay* here? - No, I'm afraid *you can't.* (It's not allowed.)

5. **Request.**

> *Can* you *hold on* a minute, please?
> *Can* I *have some water*?
> *Can* you *put* the meat in salted water?

Could suggests a greater degree of politeness:

> *Could* you *come* again tomorrow?

II. *Can* followed by **any form of the infinitive** may express:

1. **Strong doubt, improbability, incredulity.** This meaning occurs only with the negative form of the modal verb + *perfect infinitive, continuous infinitive, or be.*

He *can't be working* at this time (it's impossible that he is working...)	- Не может быть, чтобы он работал сейчас.
He *can't have seen* it (it's impossible that he saw it).	- Не может быть, чтобы он видел это.
He *can't be there.*	- Не может быть, чтобы он был там.

Could is used instead of *can* to express greater doubt. Thus the difference between *can* and *could* is in the degree of expressiveness, *could* showing a greater degree of doubt or incredulity. The time-reference is indicated not by the form of the verb but by that of the infinitive.

He Can't ⎱ be so old.		- Не может быть, что он так стар.
Couldn't ⎰		
He Can't ⎱ be telling the truth.		- не может быть, что он говорит правду.
Couldn't ⎰		
He Can't ⎱ have told the truth.		- не может быть, чтобы он сказал правду.
Couldn't ⎰		

2. **Surprise,** when *can/could* is used in questions. It corresponds to the Russian *неужели ...*

> *Can* it be *so late* as all that? Неужели уже так поздно?

To refer the action to the past a perfect infinitive is used.

> *Could he have known* her before? Неужели он знал ее раньше?
> *Could he have been telling* her the truth?
> *Can (could) he have let* you down?

The verb *can* expressing surprise is not used in the negative form.

Therefore the Russian negative questions of the type - *неужели он не ...* is translated into English in different ways:

a) by complex sentences:

Can if be that you haven't seen him?
Неужели вы не видели его?

b) by different lexical means:

*Can you have **failed** to see him?*
Неужели вы не видели его?
*Can you **dislike** the book?*
Неужели вам не нравится эта книга?
*Can **nobody** have seen him?*
Неужели никто не видел его?
*Can he have **never** written that letter?*
Неужели он так и не написал письмо?

3. **Reproach,** implying that a person should have done something, or behaved in a certain way, but didn't do it. This meaning is found only with the form *could*.

You *could* at least *have met* me at the station, *couldn't you?*

In this sense *could* is interchangeable with *might*.

4. **Purpose.** This meaning occurs only with the form *could* in clauses of purpose.

I wrote down the telephone number so that I *could remember* it.

Note some set expressions with the modal verb *can:*

Cannot/can't help doing smth. - Не могу не делать что-то
When I saw him I *couldn't help laughing*. - Когда я увидел его, я не мог не засмеяться.

Cannot/can't but do smth. - не могу не ...
I cannot but suggest... - Я не могу не предложить ...
We cannot but hope he is right. - Нам остается только надеяться, что... (не можем не надеяться...)

One cannot but wonder - нельзя не задуматься
as can be - an intensifying expression
They are *as pleased as can be*. - Они очень (страшно) довольны.
It's as ugly as can be. - Это необычайно уродливо (трудно себе представить что-либо более отвратительное).

May

§ 155. This modal verb has two forms: **may** for the present tense and **might** for the past and as the subjunctive mood form. Thus the form *might* is used:

a) in indirect speech according to the rules of the sequence of tenses (though the verb *could* is preferable in this case).

He told me that I *might go*.
The librarian told the man that he *might take* the book home.

b) in some syntactical patterns requiring the subjunctive mood forms:

However hard *he might* (or *may*) *try*, he will never manage to do the same.
I've brought you the book so that *you may write* your paper.

I. *May* **followed by the non-perfect common infinitive** expresses:

1. **Permission.** In this usage it expresses the meaning *to have permission to, to be allowed to, to be permitted to.*

You *may go* now (you are allowed to go).
May we *leave* this with you? (Are we allowed to...? Is it all right if we leave it here?)

In polite requests for permission *might* is used.

Might I *use* your telephone, please?
I wonder if I *might borrow* your book.

Can is now more common than *may* or *might* to express informally the idea of permission, but may is often used when talking of ourselves.

May/might I help you?

When the action was permitted and performed the expression *was allowed to* is preferable.

When translating the story we *were allowed* to use a dictionary, so I took a Longman new dictionary.

2. **Possibility of the fact** (the so-called "factual possibility").This meaning occurs only in affirmative sentences.

You *may find* all the books you want in the National Library. (It is possible that you will find...)
The railways *may be improved.* (It is possible that the railways will be improved.)

The above sentence could suggest that there are definite plans for improvement.

May expressing possibility is avoided in questions and in negative sentences, instead *can* is used.

3. **Prohibition** (only with the negative form of the modal verb).

You *may not go swimming*. (You are not allowed to ...) - Не смей...
You *may not enter* the room until I say so. - Не смей...

The contracted form *mayn't* is also very rare.
There are other ways of expressing the idea of prohibition which are more common. They are *mustn't, can't,* and *don't. Mustn't* and *can't* are often found in negative answers to express prohibition instead of

may not.

II. *May (might)* **followed by any form of the infinitive** denotes:

1. **Supposition, uncertainty**. *May* in this sense is synonymous with *perhaps* or *maybe*, and occurs in affirmative and negative statements.

This news is so strange that you *may not believe* it. (Perhaps you won't believe it.)
He *may come* or he *may not*. (Может быть, он придет, а может и нет.)
She *may not know* that you are here. (Perhaps she doesn't know that you are here.)
Why hasn't he come? He *may have been hurt*. (Perhaps he has been hurt. We still don't know whether he
has or has not.)
Why aren't you at the station? They *may be arriving*.

The non-perfect infinitive indicates reference to the present or future, that is, it expresses **supposition** or **uncertainty** about a present or future action.

They *may arrive* tonight or tomorrow.

The perfect infinitive indicates reference to the past.
May (might) in the sense of supposition or uncertainty is not used in questions, instead some other means are used: Is it (he) likely ... ? or Do you think ... ?

Is Mary *likely to arrive* tonight?
Do you *think* he has already come?

Note:

The difference between the meaning of the negative forms of can and *may:*

He *may not be ill.=*	He *can't be ill.* =
It is possible that he isn't ill.	It is not possible that he is ill.
He *may not be working.* =	He *can't be working.* =
It is possible that he isn't working.	It is impossible that he is working.

Can + negation in these sentences denotes **doubt, incredulity** on the part of the speaker, whereas *may* expresses **uncertainty** about a negation of some fact.

2. **Reproach.** This meaning is found only in positive statements and only with the form *might* as it is a reproach made about something that has not been done and thus implies some unfulfilled action.

You *might* at least *offer* to help.

In combination with the perfect infinitive it renders **irritation (annoyance)** that the action was not carried out.

You *might have opened* the door for me.

3. *May/might* partly loses its meaning when used in certain sentence patterns and is in such cases a quasi-subjunctive auxiliary (see § 80):

a) in clauses of **purpose**:

Sit here so that I *may see* your face more clearly.
He died so that others *might live.*

b) in clauses of **concession**:

Try as he *may* he will never be top of his class.
However hard he *might try*, he never managed it.

c) **in object, predicative** and **appositive** clauses after verbs or nouns expressing **hope, wish, fear:**

The doctor has fears that she *may not live* much longer.
The prisoner had hopes that he *might be set free.*

Here are some expressions with the modal verb may/might:
I may/might as well + infinitive — is a very mild and unemphatic way of expressing an intention.

I *may as well* take you with me.

It can be used with other persons to suggest or recommend an action.

You *may as well give* him the letter.

Might just as well means "it would be equally good to" and is used to suggest alternative actions. Though the meaning is basically the same as in three previous sentences, "just" makes the sentence more emphatic.

- I'll go on Monday by a slow train.
- You *might just as well wait* till Tuesday and go by the fast one.

- I'll do it at six.
- That's far too late. You *might just as well not do* it at all.

Must

§ 156. The modal verb **must** has only one form for the present tense. It may also be used in reported speech, after the verb in the past tense in the principal clause.

I knew I *must* go there too.

I. *Must* followed by **the non-perfect common infinitive** may express:

1. **Immediate obligation or necessity,** or **an obligation referring to the future**. This meaning occurs in positive statements and questions.

We *must begin* before five, or we shan't finish in time for our supper.
He *must move* the furniture himself. I can't help him.
Must you really *go* so soon?

In this sense the verb *must* corresponds to the Russian *надо, нужно, должен.*

Do it if you *must* (если нужно, делайте).
I *must go* now (мне нужно идти).

Must expresses **obligation** or **compulsion** from the speaker's viewpoint (unlike 'have to', which involves some other authority than the speaker, such as official regulations, etc.).

You *must be back* at 2 o'clock. I want you to do some cooking.
You *must call* me Sir (I like it that way).

Obligations expressed by *must* refer to the present or future, in reported speech they may refer to the past.

James said we *must invite* the Stewarts to dinner.

Future obligations can be made more precise with the future indefinite of the verb *have to.*

I'll have to read it again.
We *shall have to give* you a new copy of the book.

Since the negative form of *must* denotes a **negative obligation** or sometimes **prohibition** (sec item 2), it cannot express **absence of necessity** which is expressed by *needn't.*

- *Must* I *go*? - No, you *needn't*, if you don't want to.

Must is used interchangeably with *to be to* for instructions, notices, or orders.

Passangers *must cross* the lines by the footbridge (the railway company instructs them to).
Applications for admission to the Students' Room of the Department of Manuscripts *must be accompanied* by a letter of recommendation.
This card *must be surrendered* with your room key on vacating Astor College.
All rooms *must be vacated* by 11 a.m. and the keys handed to the porter on the day of departure.
Guests *must be out* of the building by midnight.

In all the above cases *must* is preferable.

With a 2nd person subject *must* expresses an obligation which has the same effect as a command.

You must do as you are told.
You must be careful.
You must go now. I want to go to bed.
You must change your shoes, I won't have you in here with muddy feet.

2. **Prohibition.** Such sentences are sometimes negative commands, corresponding to the Russian sentences with *нельзя, не разрешается.*

The girl *mustn't go* home alone. It's very late.	- Девочке нельзя идти домой одной.
Cars *must not be parked* in front of this gate.	- Не разрешается оставлять машины перед воротами.
You *mustn't do* that!	- Не делайте этого!

You *mustn't come* into the ward, it's against   - Нельзя заходить в палату, это запрещено.
the rules.

3. **Invitations.**

You *must come and see* me sometime. - Вы обязательно должны навестить меня как-нибудь.
You *must come and have dinner* with us.
You *must come and see* our picture gallery.

This use of *must* renders emphasis to the sentence.

II. When combined **with any form of the infinitive** *must* **expresses probability, near certainty**. It has the same meaning as the modal words *probably, evidently*. In this sense *must* occurs only in positive statements and corresponds to the Russian modal words *вероятно, должно быть*.

He *must be mad* (it seems certain that he is mad).
He *must be lonely* (probably he is lonely).

With verbs which admit of the continuous aspect, the continuous infinitive should be used for reference to the present.

Where's Nell? She *must be sightseeing now* (she is probably sightseeing).
John isn't here. He *must be working* in the garden.
Jane is busy. She *must be packing* for the trip.

The perfect infinitive indicates a past action.
Did you always live with your father? You *must have led quite a busy social life* (evidently you led...).

The perfect continuous infinitive indicates the duration of the past action, a process in the past.

It *must have been raining* when you left (evidently it was raining when you left).
They *must have been working* all the lime. They look very tired (evidently they have been working all the
time).

Must **expressing probability is not used:**

a) with reference to the future. Instead of the modal verb the adverbs *probably* and *evidently* are used.

He will *probably* feel lonely.

b) in negative and interrogative forms. There are several ways of expressing the negative meaning of probability in such sentences: by negative affixes, or negative pronouns, or lexically.

1. You *must have **mis**understood* me.
2. They *must have been **in**attentive.*
3. She *must have **failed** to recognize* you.
4. He *must have had **no** chance* to warn you.
5. The letter *must have **never** reached* them.
6. The letter *must have been **left un**answered.*

7. **No one** *must have seen* him there.

8 . He *must be quite **un**aware* of the circumstances.

Besides the above mentioned shades of meaning, sometimes accompanied by emphasis, the modal verb *must* may be used solely for the sake of **emphasis.** In this case *must* is not translated into Russian, it merely emphasises some action or idea.

Just when we were ready to go away for the holidays, the baby *must catch measles* (ребенок вдруг заболел корью, ребенок возьми и заболей корью).

Of course after I gave her my advice she *must go and do the opposites* (... она вдруг пойди и сделай

наоборот).

As we were starting *what must he do but cut his finger* (... он возьми да и порежь себе палец).

At a time when everybody is in bed he *must turn on the wireless* (... он вдруг включает приемник).

To have to, have got to

§ 157. As a modal verb **to have to** differs from the others in that it is not defective. It can have the category of person and number and all tense-aspect forms, as well as verbals. It is followed by a *to-infinitive* and combines **only with the non-perfect form** of it.

As there is no through train to our town we *have to change* in Moscow.

We *had to look* all over town before we found what we wanted.

She *won't have to walk* the whole way, will she?

Having to go so soon we were afraid of missing the man.

Have to builds up its interrogative and negative forms with the help of the auxiliary verb *to do.*

Do you have to work so hard?

Do you have to leave already?

He *doesn't have to be here* before Friday.

You *don't have to do* what your sister tells you.

Why *does he have to go* there?

The modal verb *to have to* expresses:

I. **Obligation or necessity** arising out of circumstances. It is similar in its meaning to *must* (1). It corresponds to the Russian *приходится, вынужден.*

She is usually short of time so she *has to go* by air (ей приходится лететь, она вынуждена лететь).

My sister has a lot of friends in different parts of the country, so she *has to write* lots of letters (ей приходится...).

In the past tense *have to* indicates a fulfilled obligation.

We *had to do* a lot of things during the week we stayed in the country (were obliged and did it).

They made such a noise that I *had to send* one of the boys to make inquiries (it was necessary and I did

it).

Have to replaces *must* where *must* cannot be used: a) to express past necessity or obligation, b) to express absence of necessity (in the sense of *needn't*), since *must not* means prohibition, and c) to express a future obligation, since the future tense of the verb *have to* makes the obligation more precise.

a) We *had to do* it again.
They *had to do* what they were told.

b) You *don't have to make* another copy of the document, Miss Black; this copy will be quite satisfactory.

c) *You'll have to take a taxi* if you mean to catch the train.

Have to as a modal verb can be used together with the modal verb *may:*

We *may have to wait* long here. - Нам возможно придется долго здесь ждать.

Have got to has the same basic meaning as *have to*. The difference lies in that *have to* usually denotes a habitual action and *have got to* denotes a particular action.

Do you *have to get up* early every morning?
Have you *got to get up* early tomorrow morning?

To be to

§ 158. To be to as a modal verb is used in the present and past indefinite tenses.

To be to expresses:

1. **An obligation** arising out of an arrangement or plan. It is found in statements and questions.

We *are to complete* this work by tomorrow. (Somebody expects it.)
I *am to go* down in my car and pick up the parcels.
When *is* the wedding *to be?*
When *am* I *to come?*
Who *is to be the first?*
The ship *was to dock* on Sunday.
I *was to meet* Mother at the dentist's at 11.

The last two sentences in which *to be* is in the past indefinite do not indicate whether the action did or did not take place.
On the other hand this form is the only way to indicate a fulfilled action in the past.

I *was to meet* Mother at 11 (and I did).
The prize *was to honour* him for his great discoveries.

To emphasize that the action did not take place the perfect infinitive is used after the past indefinite of the verb *to be to.*

She *was to have graduated* in June, but unfortunately fell ill.

The present indefinite may signify an arrangement (especially official) for the future, or referring to no particular time.

The German Chancellor *is to visit* France.
A knife *is to cut with.*

2. **A strict order or an instruction** given either by the speaker or (more usually) by some official authority.

He *is to return* to Liverpool tomorrow (he has been given orders to return to Liverpool).
You *are to stay* here until I return (I tell you to ...).
You *are to do* it exactly the way you are told.

Note the difference between **to be to** and **to have to:**

Soldiers *have to salute* their officers (such is customary obligation, the general rule).
All junior officers *are to report* to the colonel at once (an order).

3. **Strict prohibition** (only in the negative form).

You *are not to do* that.
You *are not to tell* anybody about it.
We *are not to leave* the place until we are told to.
You *are not to smoke* in this room.

4. **Something that is destined to happen or is unavoidable.** It corresponds to the Russian *суждено, предстоит.*

I didn't know at the time that she *was to be my wife* (что ей суждено было стать моей женой).
As a young man he didn't know that he *was to become a famous scientist* (ему суждено было стать
знаменитым ученым).
If we *are to be neighbours* for life we should be on friendly terms (если нам предстоит всю жизнь быть
соседями...).
He *was never to see* her again (ему больше никогда не суждено было ее увидеть).
It *was not to be* (этому не суждено было сбыться).

Sometimes it may be translated by the Russian verb *хотеть,* especially after the conjunction *if.*

If we *are to get there on time,* we must start at once (если мы хотим прийти вовремя, надо сразу отправляться).

5. **Impossibility.** In negative sentences or in sentences containing words with negative meaning the verb *to be to* implies impossibility. In this case the passive form of the non-perfect infinitive is used, unless it is a question beginning with the interrogative adverbs *how, where.*

They *are not to be trusted.*
Nothing *was to be done* under the circumstances.
He *was nowhere to be found.*
Where *is* the man *to be found?*

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How *am* I *to repay* you for your kindness?

This meaning is similar to the meaning of *can* and *may.*

Here are some set expressions with the verb *to be to:*

What am I to do? Что мне делать? Как мне быть?
What is to become of me? Что со мною станется (будет)?
Where am I to go? Куда же мне деваться?

Need

§ 159. The modal verb **need** may be either a defective or a regular verb. As a defective verb *need* has only one form and combines with a bare infinitive. In reported speech it remains unchanged. As a regular verb it has the past indefinite form *needed* and regular negative and interrogative forms.

There is a slight difference in the usage of regular and irregular forms. The regular form is used mainly when the following infinitive denotes habitual action. The defective form is more common when one particular occasion is referred to:

Need I *do* it?
You *needn't do* it just now.
The teacher said that we *needn't come.*
Do I *need to show* my pass every time?
You *don't need to say* it every time you see him.
Need I *show* you my pass now?

The defective form is mainly restricted to negative and interrogative sentences, whereas the regular verb can be used in all types of sentences and is therefore more common.

Need expresses **necessity.** It is mainly used in questions and negative statements, where it is a replacement for *must* or for *have (got) to.*

Do you *need to work* so hard *(do* you *have to work* so hard? *Have* you *got to...).*

It corresponds to the Russian *нужно.*

You *needn't do* it now. Сейчас не нужно этого делать.
Need she *come* tomorrow? Ей нужно завтра приходить?

The negation is not always combined with the verb, but may be expressed by other parts of the sentence.

I ***don't think*** we *need mention* him at all.
I *need* **hardly** *say* that you are to blame.

In questions *need* is used when there is a strong element of negation or doubt or when the speaker expects a negative answer.

Need she *go* there? (hoping for a negative answer)
I wonder if I *need go* there, (statement of doubt)

In negative statements *need* followed by a ***perfect infinitive*** indicates that the action expressed by the infinitive was performed but was not necessary. It implies a waste of time or effort, and is therefore translated by *зря, незачем, не к чему было.*

You *needn't have spent* all the money. Now we've got nothing left.
Зря ты потратил все деньги, не к чему было тратить ... .
We *needn't have waited* for her because she never came at all.
Нечего было ее ждать. Она все равно не пришла.

The difference between the two forms of *need* in negative sentences is as follows: the regular verb indicates that the action was not done because it was unnecessary, whereas the defective verb shows that the action, although unnecessary, was carried out. Compare the following examples:

Didn't need to do smth = It wasn't necessary, so probably not done.
We *didn't need to say* anything at all, which was a great comfort.
She *didn't need to open* the drawer because it was already open.

Needn't have done smth. = It was not necessary, but done nonetheless.
You *needn't have said* anything. Then he would never have known about it.
She *needn't have opened* the drawer. She found it empty when she did.

Ought to

§ 160. The modal verb **ought** has only one form. It is not changed in reported speech.
Ought combines with the *to-infinitive.* When followed by the non-perfect or continuous infinitive it indicates reference to the present or future. In indirect speech it may also refer the action to the past.

You *ought to be ashamed of* yourself.
I told him that he *ought to do it,* so he did it**.**
She told him he *ought not to go away.*

Ought expresses:

1. **Moral duty, moral obligation** (which is not always fulfilled). It corresponds to the Russian *следует.*

You *ought to look* after your children better (you don't always do it).
Вам следует больше заботиться о детях.
I wonder whether I *oughtn't to speak* to him.
He *ought to be punished, oughtn't he?*

When used *with **the perfect infinitive** ought* means that something right has not been done, a desirable action has not been carried out, and it, therefore, implies reproach.

You *ought to have helped* him (but you didn't).
Вам следовало бы ему помочь.
He *ought to have been* more careful (he was not careful enough).
Ему следовало бы быть более осторожным.

Ought not + perfect infinitive means that something wrong has been done and it is now too late to change it. It may also be viewed as a reproach.

She told him he *ought not to have done* it (but he had done it).
You *oughtn't to have laughed* at his mistakes.

The opposite to *ought to* is *needn't* used to mean that the action is unnecessary.

We *ought to wash* the dishes, but we *needn't dry* them, because they will dry themselves.

2. **Advisability** (which is sometimes understood as desirability).

You *ought to see* a doctor.
We really *ought to buy* a new car, *oughtn't we?*

3. **Probability,** something that can be naturally expected. It corresponds to the Russian *должно быть, наверное.*

You *ought to be hungry* by now (you probably are, but I'm not certain).
Вы, наверное, уже проголодались.
Apples *ought to grow* well here.
Здесь должны хорошо расти яблоки.
If he started at nine he *ought to be* here by four (he will probably be here by four).
There *oughtn't to be* any difficulty (it's unlikely that there will be).
Black Beauty is the horse that *ought to win* the race(... is likely to win ...).

In this sense *ought* is a weaker equivalent of *must* when the latter denotes near certainty.
Ought to + infinitive is used when **describing something exciting, funny or beautiful** in the meaning of *I wish you could.*
You *ought to hear* the way he plays the piano!

Should

§ 161. Historically **should** was the past form of *shall* and both the forms expressed obligation. But in present-day English they have developed different meanings and are treated as two different verbs.
Should followed by the non-perfect infinitive may be used with reference to the present and future and is not changed in reported speech.

You *should be more careful.*
Вам следует быть внимательнее.
I told him he *should be more careful.*

Should is nearly always interchangeable with *ought to,* as their meanings coincide.
It expresses:

1. **Moral obligation, moral duty,** which may not be fulfilled. *Should* is found in this sense in all kinds of sentences. However *ought to* is preferable in this sense:

All students *should submit* their work by present date (but some of them don't).
Студенты должны сдать работу к сегодняшнему дню.
Private firearms *should be banned.* Личное оружие следует запретить.
He *should phone* his parents tonight, but lie probably won't have time.
Он должен позвонить, но, вероятно, у него не будет времени на это.

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If you see anything strange you *should call* the police.
Если ты увидишь что-то странное, ты должен вызвать полицию.

When used in the negative form *should* denotes a **weakened prohibition,** *more* like ***negative advice.***

He *shouldn't be so* impatient.

When combined with **the perfect infinitive** *should* denotes **criticism, faultfinding;** the statement indicates that something desirable has not been done.

Your shoes are wet. You *should have stayed* at home.
You *should have put* more sugar in the pie. It isn't sweet enough.
He hasn't brought the book back, though he *should have brought* it last week.

A negative statement indicates that something wrong has been done.

You *shouldn't have done* that. It was stupid.
(Вам не следовало это делать).

They *should never have married.* They are so unhappy.
Им вообще не следовало (не нужно было) жениться.

He *shouldn't have taken* the corner at such speed.
Ему не следовало поворачивать за угол на такой скорости.

2. **Advice, desirability.** This meaning is more common with *ought to* than with *should.*

You *should stay* in bed.
Вам нужно (следует) лежать в постели.

I think you *should read* this book.
Думаю, что тебе следует (стоит) прочесть эту книгу.

You *should consult* a doctor.
Показался бы ты врачу. (Тебе следует показаться врачу.)

As is seen from the above examples, it is sometimes difficult to discriminate between the first and the second meaning.

3. **Probability,** something naturally expected (only with reference to the present or future).

The effect of the tax *should be felt* in high prices (will probably be felt).
We needn't get ready yet. The guests *shouldn't come* for another hour.
Гости вряд ли придут раньше, чем через час.

Shall

§ 162. In present-day English **shall** is not a purely modal verb. It always combines its modal meaning of obligation with the function of an auxiliary verb in the future tense.
As a modal verb *shall* is not translated into Russian, usually its meaning is rendered by emphatic intonation.

Shall combined with only a **non-perfect infinitive** expresses:

1. **Promise, oath, or strong intention.** In this meaning *shall* is used with the 2nd or 3rd person with a weak stress.

It *shall be done* as you wish.
You *shall never know* a sad moment, Lenny, if I can help it.
He *shall get* his money.

"I want this luggage taken to my room".
"It *shall be taken* up at once, sir." - Его сейчас же отнесут наверх, сэр.

In the 1st person *shall* in this sense acquires a strong stress.

I want that prize and I '*shall win* it.

2. **Threat or warning** *(shall* is used in this meaning in the 2nd and 3rd person).

That day *shall come.*
She *shall pay* for it, she *shall.*
The child *shall be punished* for it. I won't allow it.
Anyone found guilty *shall be shot* at once.

In the first two senses *shall* is used in affirmative and negative sentences.

3. **A suggestion or offer**

It is used in questions (and offers) in the 1st person singular and plural. Such sentences are translated into Russian by the infinitive.

"Shall I get you a chair?" – "Yes, please." Принести вам стул? - Пожалуйста.
Shall we begin? - Yes, let's. (Нам) начинать? - Давайте.
Shall I read? - Please, do. Мне читать? - Читайте, пожалуйста.

The above three meanings are closely connected with the old meaning of obligation which is at present not common in spoken English and which is normally confined to formal or archaic style (official regulations or other documents).

The Society's nominating committee *shall nominate* the person for the office of president (...должны выставить кандидата...).

This meaning is found in subordinate clauses.

It has been decided that the nomination *shall not he opposed.*

Will

§ 163. Like *shall,* **will** is not a purely modal verb. It almost always combines its modal meaning with its functioning as an auxiliary verb expressing futurity. *Will* has two forms: *will* for the present tense and *would* for the past tense. Thus *will* and *would* are looked upon as forms of the same verb, although in a few cases their meanings differ.

I. *Will* combined with **the non-perfect infinitive** expresses:

1. **Willingness, intention, determination.** It is often rendered into Russian by *непременно, обязательно, охотно.* **Would** in this meaning shows reference to the past.

I *will write* as soon as I can. (Я непременно напишу, как только смогу.)
I *will be* there to help. (Я обязательно там буду и помогу.)
I can and *will learn* it. (Я могу выучить и обязательно это выучу.)
When he was young, he was so poor that he *would do* anything to earn some money. (... он согласен был
на любую работу, чтоб подзаработать.)

This meaning is often found in conditional sentences.

If you *will help* me we can finish by six.
Если вы согласитесь мне помочь, мы можем кончить к 6 часам.
If you *will wait* for me I'll be very grateful.

When used **in the negative** it denotes a refusal to do something.

I *won't accept* your offer (I refuse to ...).
They *wouldn't listen* to me (they refused to listen to me).
He *wouldn't answer* my question (he refused to answer ...).

2. **A polite request or an offer.** This meaning occurs only in questions.

Will you pass the salt, please?
Will you haw some tea?

In comparison with *will* the form *would* renders a greater degree of politeness.

Would you please pass the salt?
Would you please lend me your pencil?

It is still more polite to use the combinations: *Would you mind (+* -ing form), *Would you be so kind as* to...

Would you be so kind as to lend me your book?

3. **A command** (in military contexts it is a strict command).

Officers *will report* for duty at 06.00.
You *will do* exactly as I say.
You *will go* in there and tell him that the game is up.

An impatient command can begin with *will you.*

Will you be quiet! - Замолчишь, ли ты наконец?

Will you in the tag after a negative command can tone down the command (and is pronounced with the

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falling tone).

Don't be late, *will you?*

But after a positive command *will you* has a rising intonation and expresses impatience.

Sit down, *will you?*
Shut the door, *will you?*
Shut the door, *won't you?*

Would is never used in this meaning.

4. **Insistence, resistence.** *Will* and *would* are stressed when used in this sense.

He *will try* to mend it himself (he insists on mending it himself).

With reference to inanimate objects *will* and *would* show that a thing fails to perform its function. It occurs in negative statements and corresponds to the Russian *никак не.*

The door *will not open.*	- Дверь никак не открывается.
The orange *won't peel.*	- Апельсин никак не очистить.
The engine *wouldn't start.*	- Мотор никак не заводился
The wound *wouldn't heal.*	- Рана никак не заживала.

5. **Inevitability, characteristic behaviour, quality, or something naturally expected.**

What *will be will be.*	- Чему быть, того не миновать.
Accidents *will happen.*	- Несчастные случаи неизбежны (несчастный случай может произойти с каждым).
Boys *will be boys.*	- Мальчишки всегда остаются мальчишками.
Truth *will out.*	- Истины не утаишь.

This sort of inevitability or prediction often occurs in sentences with conditional clauses.

If people study they *will learn.* (If people study they learn)
If litmus paper is dipped in acid, it *will turn red* (it turns red).

This meaning cannot be rendered in Russian by any analogous modal verb.

Oil *will float* on water.
Children *will often be full of life* when their parents are tired.
This car *will hold* six people comfortably.
That's exactly like Jocelyn - she *would lose* the key.

6. **Disapproval of something expected.** In this meaning only *would* is used. It is found mainly in responses. It corresponds to the Russian *этого и следовало ожидать, на него похоже.*

"I know she attended the place."
"Oh, yes, *she would.*" - *Конечно,* что еще можно ожидать.
"He refused to interfere." "*He would.*" — *На* него похоже.
"I don't like it and I don't visit the place." "No, *you wouldn't.*" (I didn't expect you would.)

You *would be late!* - *Конечно,* ты опять опоздал.
You *would forget.* - Конечно же, вы забыли.

II. *Will/would* combined with **different forms of the infinitive** can express **prediction, a certainty** about the present or the future (in a similar way as *must).*

This will be just what she wants.	- Это, очевидно, то, чего она хочет.
That *will be my wife.*	- Это, конечно, моя жена.
This *will be our train.*	- Это, наверное, наш поезд.
That *would be he!*	- Это, наверное, он.
John *will have arrived by now* (by tomorrow).	- Джон наверняка уже приедет к этому времени (к завтрашнему дню).

In the latter case *must* is impossible as with a perfect infinitive it has a reference to the past.

That *would be in 1910,* I think.	- Я думаю, это, наверное, было в 1910 году.
Why are you asking him?	- Зачем вы его спрашиваете?
He *wouldn't know* anything about it.	- Вряд ли он что-либо об этом знает.
Who is the man? You *wouldn't know* him.	- Вряд ли вы его знаете.

Note the expression:

You would, would you? - Ах, ты так!

Dare

§ 164. The modal verb **dare** may be defective or regular.

As a defective verb *dare* has two forms: *dare* for the present tense and *dared* for the past tense. It is used chiefly in interrogative and negative sentences. It has the meaning - *to have the courage* or *independence to do something, to venture.*

How *dare* he *speak* to you like that? (I wonder at such impudence.)
How *dare* you *sneak* into my room like this?
He *daren't write* anything in case it isn't good (he hasn't got the courage).
Dare you *ask* him? (Are you brave enough to ask him?)
That's as much as I *dare spend* on it.

As a regular verb *dare* has a limited paradigm of finite forms and no verbals. It may have two meanings:

1. **To venture, to have the courage or impudence** (like the defective *dare).* In this sense it is used mainly in negative statements.

He *didn't dare* to stop me (he didn't have the courage).
She *doesn't dare* to answer.
Don't you *dare* to touch me.

2. **To challenge, to defy.**

I *dared him to jump* (I challenged him to do it).
I *dare you to say* this straight to her face. - Попробуй, скажи ей это прямо в лицо.

Note the following combinations with the modal verb *dare.*

I dare say — I suppose, no doubt.
I dare say you are right. - Очень возможно, что вы правы.
I dare say he will come later. - Полагаю (пожалуй), он придет позже.

THE NOUN

§ 165. The noun denotes thingness in a general sense. Thus nouns name things (book, table), living beings (man, tiger), places (valley, London, England), materials (iron, oil), processes (life, laughter), states (sleep, consciousness), abstract notions (socialism, joy) and qualities (kindness, courage).

Semantic characteristics

§ 166. Semantically all nouns fall into *proper nouns* and *common nouns.*

§ 167. Proper nouns are geographical names (New York, the Thames, Asia, the Alps), names of individual (unique) persons (John, Byron, Brown), names of the months and the days of the week (January, Sunday), names of planets (the Moon, the Sun, the Earth), names of ships, hotels, clubs (Shepherd's Hotel), of buildings, streets, parks, bridges (Buckingham Palace, Trafalgar Square, Regent Street, Charing Cross Road, Piccadilly Circus, Kensington Gardens, Hyde Park, Waterloo Bridge), of institutions, organizations, magazines and newspapers (the United Nations, the New Times, the Guardian). They are written with capitals.

§ 168. Common nouns can be classified into nouns denoting objects that can be counted and those that cannot. So there are *count* and *non-count* and *collective* common nouns. The former are inflected for number, whereas the latter are not. Further distinction is into *concrete* nouns, *abstract* nouns and *nouns of material.*
Semantic classification of English nouns is shown in the following scheme:
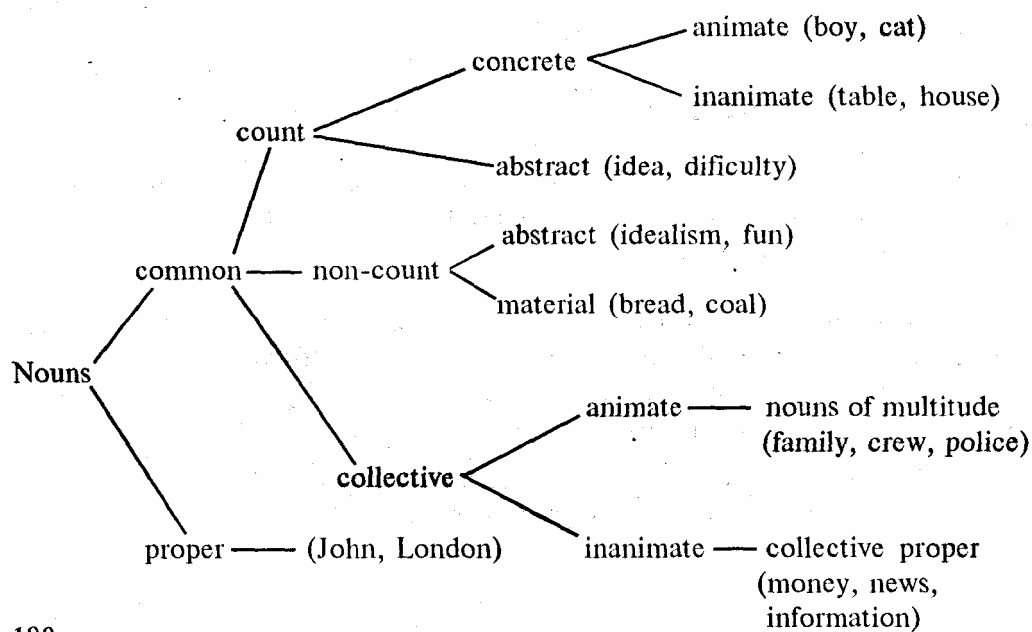
Concrete nouns semantically fall into three subclasses.

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1. Nouns **denoting living beings** - persons and animals:
   boy, girl, dog, cat.

2. Nouns **denoting inanimate objects:**
   table, chair.

3. **Collective** (собирательные) **nouns** denoting a group of persons:
   family, crowd.

There are some nouns which may be classified both as count and non-count. They often have considerable difference in meaning in the two classes.

Count nouns	Non-count nouns
He used to read *an evening paper.*	They wrappped up the present in *brown paper.*
She was *a beauty.*	*Beauty* is to be admired.
They hoped to have *pleasant experiences.*	He has a great deal of *experience.*
I saw him in a group of *youths.*	*Vie* was speaking with the enthusiasm *of youth.*

A noun of material used as a count noun undergoes a semantic change so as to denote: *kind of, type of: He found her drinking **Chinese tea,** which she didn't like — but what could one do, **other teas** were common.* The same can be seen in the title A. Conan Doyle devised for a **story** *"Upon the Distinction Between the **Ashes of the Various Tobaccos".***

Morphological composition

§ 169. According to their morphological composition nouns can be divided into **simple, derived,** and **compound.**

Simple nouns consist of only one root-morpheme: *dog, chair, room, roof, leaf.*

Derived nouns (derivatives) are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes or suffixes).

The main noun-forming suffixes are those forming abstract nouns and those forming concrete, personal nouns.

Abstract nouns	Concrete nouns
-age: leakage, vicarage	*-(i)an:* physician, Parisian, republican
-al: betrayal, portrayal, refusal	*-ant/-ent:* assistant, student, informant
-ancy/-ency: vacancy, tendency	*-arian:* vegetarian
-dom: freedom kingdom	*-ee:* refugee, employee, payee
-hood: brotherhood, childhood	*-er:* teacher, worker, singer
-ing: meaning, cleaning	*-ician:* musician, politician
-ion/~sion/-tion/-ation: operation, tension, examination	*-ist:* socialist, artist
-ism: darvinism, patriotism	*-or:* visitor, actor
-ment: agreement, unemployment	*-let:* booklet, leaflet
-ness: darkness, weakness	*-ess:* actress, tigress, waitress
-ship: friendship, membership	*-ine:* heroine
-ty: cruelty, sanity, banality	*-ix:* proprietrix
-th: growth, strength	*-ette:* usherette
-y: difficulty, honesty	The four suffixes *-ess, -ine, -ette* are feminine.

Sometimes nouns formed by abstract noun suffixes may come to denote concrete things or persons as

in *translation* (a process and its result), *beauty* (may denote an abstract notion and a beautiful woman).

Compound nouns consist of at least two stems. The meaning of a compound is not a mere sum of its elements. The main types of compound nouns are:

noun stem + noun stem:	*seaman (моряк),*
	airmail (авиапочта)
adjective stem + noun stem:	*bluebell (колокольчик),*
	blackbird (черный дрозд)
verb stem + noun stem:	*pickpocket (карманный вор)*
gerund + noun stem:	*looking-glass (зеркало),*
	dancing-hall (танцевальный зал)
noun stem + prepositions + noun stem:	*father-in-law (свекр, тесть)*
	mother-in-law (свекровь, теща)
	man-of-war (военный корабль)
substantivised phrases:	*forget-me-not (незабудка),*
	pick-me-up (тонизирующий напиток)

Morphological characteristics

§ 170. Morphologically nouns are characterized by the grammatical categories of number and case.

Gender does not find regular morphological expression. The distinction of male, female, and neuter may correspond to the lexical meaning of the noun:

masculine (names of male beings) - *boy, man, husband, bachelor, ox, cock;*

feminine (names of female beings) - *girl, woman, wife, maid, cow, hen;*

neuter (names of inanimate objects) - *table, house.*

The distinction may be also expressed by word-formation of different types:

a) feminine suffixes
-ess (actress, hostess, poetess, tigress),
-ine (heroine),
-ette (usherette);

b) compounds of different patterns:

noun + noun stem		pronoun + noun stem	
Tom-cat	*- Tabby-cat*	*he-wolf*	*- she-wolf*
doctor	*- woman-doctor*	*he-cousin*	*- she-cousin*
dog-otter	*- bitch-otter*		
male-frog	*- female-frog*		
cock-pheasant	*- hen-pheasant*		

There are also some traditional associations of certain nouns with gender. These are apparent in the use of personal or possessive pronouns:

a) *moon* and *earth* are referred to as **feminine,** *sun* as **masculine:**

It is pleasant to watch *the sun* in *his* chariot of gold and *the moon* in *her* chariot of pearl.
At first *the earth* was large, but every moment *she* grew smaller.

b) *the names of vessels* (ship, boat, steamer, ice-breaker, cruiser, etc.) are referred to as **feminine:**

The new *ice-breaker* has started on *her* maiden voyage.
She is equipped with up-to-date machinery.

c) *the names of vehicles* (car, carriage, coach) may also be referred to as **feminine,** especially by their owners, to express their affectionate attitude to these objects:

She is a fine *car.*

d) *the names of countries,* if the country is not considered as a mere geographical territory, are referred to as
feminine:

England is proud of *her* poets.

But: If the name of the country is meant as a geographical one the pronoun *it* is used. *Iceland* is an island, *it* is washed on three sides by the Atlantic Ocean.

The category of number

§ 171. English nouns that are inflected for number (count nouns) have singular and plural forms.
Singular denotes one, **plural** denotes more than one. Most count nouns are variable and can occur with either singular or plural number. In Modern English the singular form of a noun is unmarked (zero). The plural form is marked by the inflexion *-(e)s.* The spelling and the pronunciation of the plural morpheme vary.

§ 172. Regular plurals

I. Nouns ending in vowels and voiced consonants have the plural ending pronouced as [z]:

bee - bees [bi:z], dog - dogs [dɔgz]

II. Nouns ending in voiceless consonants have a voiceless ending:

book - books [buks]

III. Nouns ending in -**s, -sh, -as, -ch, -x, -z,** (sibilants) have the ending [iz]:

actress - actresses ['æktrɪsɪz]
bush - bushes ['buʃɪz]
watch - watches ['wotʃɪzj
box - boxes   ['boksɪz]

IV. Nouns ending in **-o** have the ending [z]:

hero - heroes ['hɪərouz]
photo- photoes ['foutouz]

The regular plural inflexion of nouns in **-o** has two spellings; **-os** which occurs in the following cases:

a) after a vowel - *bamboos, embryos, folios, kangaroos, radios, studios, zoos;*

b) in proper names - *Romeos, Eskimos, Filipinos;*

c) in abbreviations, *kilos* (kilogramme), *photos* (photograph), *pros* (professional);

d) also in some borrowed words: *pianos, concertos, dynamos, quartos, solos, tangos, tobaccos.*

In other cases the spelling is **-oes:** *tomatoes, echoes, Negroes, potatoes, vetoes, torpedoes, embargoes*

Note:

Some nouns may form their plural in either way:
oes/os: *cargo(e)s, banjo(e)s, halo(e)s.*

V. The letter **-y** usually changes into **-i:**
   sky   skies   [skaiz]

But the letter **-y** remains unchanged **-ys:**

a) after vowels:
   days (except in nouns ending in **-quy:** soliloquy - soliloquies).

b) in proper names:
   the two Germanys, the Kennedys, the Gatsbys;

c) in compounds:
   stand-bys, lay-bys.

The word *penny* has two plural forms:

pence (irregular) - in British currency to denote a coin of this value or a sum of money:

Here is *ten pence* (in one coin or as a sum of money);
pennies (regular) - for individual coins.

Here are *ten pennies.*

VI. Thirteen nouns ending in **-f(e)** form their plural changing **-f(e)** into **-v(e):** the ending in this case is pronounced [z]:

calf - calves	life - lives	thief - thieves
elf - elves	loaf - loaves	wife - wives
half - halves	self - selves	wolf - wolves
knife - knives	sheaf - sheaves (снопы)	
leaf - leaves	shelf – shelves	

Other nouns ending in **-f(e)** have the plural inflexion **-s** in the regular way: *proof - proofs, chief - chiefs, safe - safes, cliff - cliffs, gulf - gulfs, dwarf - dwarfs, reef- reefs, grief - griefs;* the ending is pronounced [s].

In a few cases both **-fs** and **-ves** forms are possible:

    scarf - scarfs/scarves,
    dwarf - dwarfs/dwarves,
    hoof - hoofs/hooves.

VII. Nouns ending in **-th** after a short vowel have the ending -s [s]:

    month — months [mʌnθs].

Nouns ending in **-th** after a long vowel or a diphthong have [9z] in the plural: baths [ba:ðz], paths [paðz], oaths [ouðz].

But: youths [ju:θs], births [bə:θs].

VIII. The plural of abbreviations is sometimes formed in spelling by doubling a letter:

Ms (manuscript)	- *MSS*
p. (page)	- *pp.*
Mr (Mister)	- *Messrs* ['mesəz]
M.P. (Member of Parliament)	- M.P.s ['em'pi:z]
M.D. (Doctor of Medicine)	- M.D.s ['em'di:z]
Co. (Company)	- Co.s [kouz]

In a phrase like "Miss Brown" two different forms are used for the plural. We may either say "the Miss Browns" or "the Misses Brown", the latter being generally considered more correct.

Irregular plurals

§ 173. For historical reasons certain nouns form their plural differently.

1. Seven nouns distinguish plural from singular by vowel change:

man - men	tooth - teeth	goose - geese
woman - women	foot – feet	mouse - mice
		louse - lice

2. Two nouns have **-en** to mark the plural:

    ox - oxen, child - children.

Brother has two plural forms: *brothers* and *brethren,* the latter being used as a religious term or in elevated style to denote people of the same creed, not relations.

3. With some nouns the plural is identical with the singular **form (for** details see § 176, II):

a) sheep-sheep (овца/ы);
   swine - swine (свинья/и);
   deer - deer (олень/и);
   grouse - grouse (куропатка/и).

This *sheep* looks small. All those *sheep* are good.
I bought *a grouse* (three *grouse* for dinner).
There're so *many fish,* they splinter the paddles.

Note:

There, are some animal names that have two plurals:
fish - fish/fishes, pike - pike/pikes, trout - trout/trouts, carp –carp/carps, salmon - salmon/salmons.

The zero plural is more common to denote hunting quarries (We caught only *a few fish.* We caught *five salmon.* He shot *quail* (перепелок) to make money), whereas the regular plural is used to denote different individuals, species, kinds of animal, especially fish with the same name or insects or other small animals which cause disease or damage.

The plant was covered in *greenfly.*   There are *three greenflies* on my hand.
This animal is infected with *hookworm.*   *Two large hookworms* were found in his stomach.
                                              There were *two quails* for sale.

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b) identical singular and plural forms are also typical of nationality nouns in **-ese, -ss:** *Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Swiss.*

We met *a Japanese.* We met *many Japanese* on our holiday.

Note:

The word for people of the country is the same as the plural noun; the other way is to use substantivized adjectives in this sense:
Englishmen - the English   Dutchmen - the Dutch.

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c) two nouns borrowed from Latin and one from French also have identical forms for singular and plural:

series - series (ряд, серия);
species - species (вид, порода, род)
corps [ko:] - corps [ko:z] (корпус, род войск).

d) names, indicating number, such as:

pair, couple, dozen, score (два десятка),
stone (мера веса: 14 англ. фунтов = 6,35 кг) and
head (голова - поголовье скота)

have the same form for both the singular and plural when they are preceded by a numeral, that is, they

function as an indication of a kind of measure: *two dozen of handkerchiefs, five dozen of eggs. The child*

weighs two stone. One thousand head of cattle.

But when they have no number as predeterminer they take the usual plural form: *dozens of times, to go in pairs.*

4. A number of foreign (particularly Latin and Greek) nouns have retained their original plural endings.

Loans of Greek origin

Singular	Plural
-is [ɪs]	**-es** [i:z]
basis	bases
crisis	crises
analysis	analyses
thesis	theses
parenthesis	parentheses
axis	axes
hypothesis	hypotheses
diagnosis	diagnoses
-on [ən]	**-a** [ə]
criterion	criteria
phenomenon	phenomena
-a [ə]	**-ata** [ətə]
miasma	miasmata

Loans of Latin origin

Singular	Plural
-us [əs]	**-i** [ai]
	-ora [ərə]
	-era [ərə]
stimulus	stimuli
nucleus	nuclei
radius	radii
corpus	corpora
genus	genera
-a [ə]	**-ae** [i:]
formula	formulae (or regular - formulas)
antenna	antennae
vertebra	vertebrae
-um [əm]	**-a** [ə]
datum	data
stratum	strata
erratum	errata
-es,-ix [ɪks]	**-ices** [ɪsi;z] [i:z]

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index	indices	or indexes
appendix	appendices	or appendixes
matrix	matrices	or matzixes

Other loan nouns

Fr. **-ean** [ou]	**-eaux** [ouz]
tableau	tableaux
bureau	bureaux (or bureaus)

| It.**-o** [ou] | **-i** [i] |
| tempo | tempi (or tempos) |

As can be seen from the above list some loan nouns may have two plural forms: the English plural and the original foreign one:

memorandum — memoranda / memorandums

focus — foci / focuses

curriculum — curricula / curriculums

formula — formulae / formulas

cherub — cheribum / cherubs

There is a tendency to use the regular English plural forms in fiction and colloquial English and the foreign plural in academic or learned language.

Sometimes different plural forms have different meanings:

index — indexes (list of contents of books) / indices (a mathematical term - *показатель*)

genius — geniuses (men of talent) / genii (fabulous spirits guarding a place - *духи, домовые*)

§ 174. Plural in compound nouns

1. As a rule in compounds it is the second component that takes the plural form:

housewives, tooth-brushes, boy-scouts, maid-servants.

2. Compounds in **-ful** have the plural ending at the end of the word:

handfuls, spoonfuls, mouthfuls, (though *spoonsful* and *mouthsful* are also possible).

3. Compounds in which the first component is **man** or **woman** have plurals in both first and last components:

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men-servants, women-doctors, gentlemen-farmers.

4. Compounds ending in **-man** change it into *-men* in spelling. In pronunciation, however, there is no difference between the singular and plural forms, both having [ə]:

policeman [ən] - policemen [ən].

Such nouns as *German, Roman, Norman* are not compounds, and therefore they have regular plurals:

Germans, Romans, Normans.

5. In compounds originating from a prepositional noun phrase where the preposition is a linking element only the first noun takes the plural form:

editors-in-chief, mothers-in-law, commanders-in-chief, coats-of-mail, men-of-war (военные корабли).

6. In compounds with a conjunction as a linking element the plural is taken by the second noun:

gin-and-tonics.

7. In compound nouns formed by a noun plus a preposition, or an adverb, or an adjective only the first element takes the plural:

passers-by, lookers-on, courts-martial, attorneys-general.

8. When the compound is a substantivized phrase which does not contain a noun, the last element takes the plural ending **–s:**

forget-me-nots, breakdowns, stand-bys, grown-ups, close-ups,
 pick-ups (случайные знакомства),
drop-outs (дезертиры),
go-betweens (посредники).

Invariable nouns

Invariable nouns cannot change their number, some of them are always singular in meaning (linguistics, news), some denote plurality (cattle, police).

§ 175. Singular invariable nouns.

1. Here belong all non-count nouns:

    a) material nouns - *tea, sugar, gold, silver, oil, butter, sail.* (As has been mentioned they may become
     count nouns with a specific meaning: *cheeses* - kinds of cheese, *beers* - portions of beer, as *two glasses*
     or *cans of beer, two coffees, icecreams.*)

    b) absrract nouns - *music, anger, foolishness.*

2. Proper nouns:

The Thames, Henry.

3. Some nouns ending in **-s:**

   a) *news* - Here is the 10 o'clock news;
      means - by this means (этими средствами)
      gallows - They fixed up a gallows (виселицу).

   b) some diseases - *measles* (корь), *mumps* (свинка), rickets (рахит), shingles (краснуха);

      However sometimes the usage varies: *Mumps is/are a medical problem.*

   c) some games - *billiards, bowls* (гольф), *dominoes, draughts* (шашки);

      But when used attributively no plural is used: *a billiard table.*

   d) some proper nouns - *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, Flanders, Marseilles, Naples, Wales, the United Nations, the United States.*

4. Nouns ending in **–ics:**

   classics, linguistics, mathematics, phonetics, athletics, ceramics, ethics, gymnastics, politics, tactics.

Nouns of this group are occasionally understood as plurals:

   Their tactics *requires/reguire* concentration of troops.
   Politics *has/have* always interested me.

Plural invariable nouns

§ 176. Plural invariable nouns comprise two types - marked and unmarked plurals.

I. In the first type the form of the noun itself shows plurality. These nouns are rather numerous. Semantically they fall into several groups:

   a) names of tools or articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined: *bellows, binoculars, breeches, braces, flannels, glasses, pants, pincers, pliers, pyjamas, scales, scissors, shorts, spectacles, suspenders, tights, tongs, trousers, tweeters;*

   These nouns can be made singular and countable by means of *a pair of: a pair of trousers, a pair of scissors.* Accordingly they are used with the verb-predicate in the singular (this pair of trousers is ...)

   b) miscellaneous nouns: *annals, antics, archives, arms, ashes, the Commons (the House of Commons), contents, customs, customs-duty, customs-house, earnings, goods, goods train, greens, holidays, summer-holidays, manners, minutes (of the meeting), outskirts, quarters, headquarters, stairs, suds, surroundings, thanks, troops, wages, whereabouts, the Middle Ages;*

   c) some proper nouns: *the East Indies, the West Indies, the Hebrides, the Highlands, the Midlands, the*

Netherlands.

II. In the second type of the plural invariable nouns the meaning of plurality is not marked in any form (hence the term "unmarked plural invariables"). They are usually treated as collective nouns (собирательные).

English collective nouns denote only living beings (*family, police, clergy, cattle, poultry,* etc.) and have two categorical meanings: the first - p l u r a l i t y   a s   i n d i v i s i b l e   w h o l e and the second - d i s c r e t e   p l u r a l i t y , that is plurality denoting separate beings. In the latter case these nouns are called **nouns of multitude.** Thus, one and the same noun may be a c o l l e c t i v e   n o u n   p r o p e r and a   n o u n   o f   m u l t i t u d e .

The difference in two categorical meanings is indicated by the number of the verb-predicate (singular in the first case and plural in the second), as well as by possessive and personal pronouns. The meaning of the predicate is also important: predicates denoting physiological processes or states, emotional or psychic reactions, states always imply separate beings involved into it. Compare the following examples:

Collective nouns proper	Nouns of multitude
The family *was large*	The family *were fond of their* house.
The cattle *is* in the mountains	The cattle *are grasing* there.
The crew on the ship *was excellent.*	The crew *have taken their* posts.
The crowd *was enormous.*	The crowd *were watching* the scene spell-bound.
The committee *was unanimous.*	The committee *were divided* in *their* opinion.

Discrete plurality is also expressed by substantivized adjectives denoting people:
the helpless, the needy, the poor, the sick, the weary, the rich.

§ 177. Ways of showing partition.

Many non-count nouns combine with a set of nouns showing some part of material or abstract notion. Here are some typical partitives for material and abstract nouns:

a slice of bacon	a piece of coal
a slice of cake	a lump
a piece of bread	a piece of sugar
a loaf	a lump
a piece of chalk	a blade of grass
a stick	
a piece of chocolate	a piece of ice
a bar	a block
a piece of paper	a piece of land
a sheet	a strip
a grain of rice	a piece of furniture
	an article
a pile of rubbish	
a heap	a piece of evidence

a piece ⟍
a word ⟋ of advice

a fit of passion

a piece of research

a piece ⟍
an item ⟋ of information, news

§ 178. In some cases there is no obvious logical reason for the assignment of various English nouns to the count or non-count class. In Russian and English the attribution of the corresponding nouns may be different. Here are some cases when the classes of nouns in English and Russian do not coincide:

English non-count nouns	**Russian count nouns**
advice (they gave us some valuable advice)	совет/советы
news	новость/новости
progress (they are making slow progress)	успех/успехи
research (do some research)	исследование/исследования, научная работа
knowledge (you have a fairly good knowledge of the subject)	знание/знания

English singular invariable nouns	**Russian plural invariable nouns**
ink	чернила
cream	сливки
yeast	дрожжи
money	деньги
hair	волосы
fruit	фрукты
applause	аплодисменты
chess	шахматы

> **Note:**
>
> *Hair* is a count noun in the sense of *волос, волосок. Fruit* as a count noun means *kinds of fruit: dried fruits keep long.*

English plural invariable nouns	**Russian singular invariable nouns**
sweepings	сор
clothes	одежда
greens	зелень (овощи)
contents	содержание
odds	преимущество (спортивное)

The category of case

§ 179. Case is a grammatical category which shows relation of the noun with other words in a sentence. It is expressed by the form of the noun.

English nouns have two cases: **the common case** and **the genitive case.** However, not all English nouns possess the category of case; there are certain nouns, mainly nouns denoting inanimate objects, which cannot be used in the genitive case.

The common case is unmarked, it has no inflexion (zero inflexion) and its meaning is very general.

The genitive case is marked by the **apostrophe s ('s).**

§ 180. In writing there are two forms of the genitive: for most nouns it is 's (mother's) and for nouns

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ending in **-s** and regular plural nouns only the apostrophe (mothers').
In speech there are four ways of pronunciation of the genitive case.

1. [z] after vowels and voiced consonants: *Negro's, dog's;*
2. [s] after voiceless consonants: *student's;*
3. [Iz] after sibilants: *prince's, judge's;*
4. zero endings: *girls', boys'.*

The zero form is used:

a) with regular plural nouns – *students', drivers', doctors';*

b) with Greek nouns in **-s** of more than one syllable:
Socrates' ['sokrati:z] wife,

Xerxes' ['zə ksi: z] army,

Euripides' |juə'rɪpɪdi:z] plays.

In many other names ending in the voiced sibilant [z] the normal spelling of the genitive case is with the apostrophe only (though sometimes 's occurs too): *Burns' (Burns's) poems, Dickens' (Dickens's) novels.*

Names ending in sibilants other than [z] have the regular [Iz] in the genitive:

Marx's [sɪz] ideas,

Tess's [sɪz] misfortunes.

Irregular plural nouns forming their plural by vowel change also have the regular [z] in the genitive:
Children's games,
women's faces.

Compound nouns have '**s** joined to the final component:

the editor-in-chief's office,
my mother-in-law's garden,
a passer-by's comment.

§ 181. A specific feature of the English genitive case is the so-called **group genitive** when 's can be joined:

1) to a group of two coordinated nouns if such a group refers to a single idea (when two persons possess or
are related to something they have in common):

Mum and Dad's room.
John and Mary's car.

2) to a more extensive phrase which may even contain a clause:

the Duke of Norfolk's sister,
the secretary of state's private room,

the man I saw yesterday's son.

3) to a noun (pronoun) + a pronoun group:

someone else's benefit.

4) to a group ending in a numeral:

in an hour or two's time.

§ 182. The main meaning of the genitive case is that of **possession,** hence the traditional term '*the possessive case'*. This general sense undergoes a number of modifications under the influence of the lexical meaning of both the noun in the genitive case and the noun it modifies.

The main modifications of this meaning are:

1. The idea **of belonging:** *John's coat, Mary's car.*

2. Different kinds of relations, such as:

a) **relation of the whole to its parts:** *John's leg, the cat's tail;*

b) **personal or social relations:** *John's wife, John's friend.*

Besides the genitive case retains some of its old meanings:

subjective relations:
Chekhov's observation = Chekhov observed;
the doctor's arrival   =- the doctor arrived;

authorship:
Byron's poem, Shakespeare's tragedy;

objective relations:
Caesar's murder = Caesar was murdered;
Jule's arrest   = Jule was arrested;

measure:
an hour's trip, a mile's distance.

In some cases the form **'s** completely loses the meaning of possession and comes to denote a **quality,** as in *man's blood, woman's work* (serving in works canteen or a transport cafe, is generally regarded as *woman's work),* his sly *idiot's smile -* идиотская улыбка, you've got *angel's eyes -*ангельские глазки, this is a *women's college -* женский колледж.

The use of the genitive case and its equivalent of-phrase

§ 183. The genitive case is used:

1. With nouns **denoting persons and animals.**

John's idea, the swallow's nest, the mare's back.

With other nouns (denoting inanimate objects or abstract notions) the **of + noun** phrase is used: *the back of a train, the legs of a table.*

2. With nouns **denoting time and distance,** such as *minute, moment, hour, day, week, month, year, inch, foot, mile* and substantivized adverbs: *today, yesterday, tomorrow,* etc.

a moment's delay	a month's absence
an hour's drive	a mile's distance
today's newspaper	a few minutes' silence
a week's time	yesterday's telephone conversation
a night's rest	

With these nouns the of-phrase is either impossible, as in the first three examples, or if it is possible the two variants are not interchangeable.

today's papers - сегодняшние газеты
the papers of today - газеты сегодняшнего дня

3. With **the names of countries and towns.**

Britain's national museums
Canada's population
London's ambulance services

4. With **the names of newspapers** and **nouns denoting different kinds of organizations.**

The *Guardian's analysis, the Tribune's role, the company's plans, the firm's endeavours, the Coal Board's Offer, the government's policy, the organisation's executive board, the Geographical Society's gold medal.*

5. Often with the nouns *world, nation, country, city, town:*
   the world's top guitarists, the nation's wealth.

6. With the nouns *ship, boat, car:*
   the ship's crew, the car's wheel.

7. With nouns denoting planets: *sun, moon, earth:*
   the sun's rays, this earth's life.

8. With some inanimate nouns in the following set expressions:
   to one's heart's content (desire), *at death's door, at arm's length, out of harm's way, a hair's breadth, a*
   needle's eye, at a stone's throw, to move at a snail's pace, at the water's edge.

§ 184. The syntactical function of the genitive case is that of an attribute. It is always used as a premodifier of a noun and is sometimes called **the dependent genitive.**

However there are some cases when the noun in the genitive case is not followed by the headword and then it stands for the whole noun phrase. This is the so-called **absolute genitive.** It is used:

1. To avoid repetition:
   Our house is better than Mary's (than Mary's house).

2. After the preposition **of:**
   an old friend of my mother's, that cousin of my husband's.

3. To denote shops such as *the butcher's, the baker's, the grocer's, the chemist's,* or institutions, where the genitive is usually a saint's name:
   St Paul's (Cathedral), *St James's* (Palace),

   or places of residence:
   at Timothy's, at Old Jolyon's, at my uncle's.

There are also cases (though rare) when a noun is modified by two successive nouns in the genitive case. It is the so called **double genitive,** as in *My mother's father's people.* The first in such structures has as a rule the meaning of possession *(the father of my mother),* while the second may either have the same meaning *(the people of my father)* or other meanings as in: the boy's half-hour's run.

Syntactical functions of the noun

§ 185. A noun may be used in the function of almost any part of the sentence, although its most typical functions are those of the subject and the object. It may function as

1. Subject:
   The ship got under way.

2. Predicative:
   He was certainly *the best hated man* in the ship.

3. Object:
   I gave him *a pound.* Twelve dollars are enough for *the man.*

4. Objective predicative:
   I found him *an* excellent *listener.*

5. Attribute:
   A dog is *a man's* best friend.

6. Adverbial modifier (usually as part of a prepositional phrase):
   High above the city, on a tall column, stood the statue of the Happy Prince.

THE ARTICLE

§ 186. The article is a form word that serves as a **noun determiner.** It is one of the main means of conveying the idea of **definiteness** and **indefiniteness.**

There are two articles in English: the definite article **the** [ðiː] and the indefinite article **a** [ei].

D e f i n i t e n e s s suggests that the object presented by the following noun is individualized and singled out from all the other objects of the same kind, whereas i n d e f i n i t e n e s s means a more general reference to an object. Thus when saying *The book is a historical novel* or *The boy has a dog* or *The telephone is out of order,* the speaker treats the objects *book, boy, telephone* as specific objects, while saying *a dog, a historical novel* the speaker characterizes the objects in a more general way, pointing out

what kind of novel the book is and what kind of pet animal the boy has.

The notion of definiteness/indefiniteness determines the important role of the article in the process of communication. The definite article usually presents the notion as **something already known,** whereas the indefinite article introduces a **new item of information.** The presentation of objects as definite or indefinite, as already known or as new, depends on the speaker or the writer, who by using articles establishes mutual understanding between the speaker and the listener, the writer and the reader.

Since the article is a noun determiner and the noun is the headword in a noun phrase, **the syntactical role** of the article consists in marking off a noun or a noun phrase as part of the sentence.

The morphological value of the article lies in indicating the substantivization of other parts of speech, mainly adjectives or participles (see examples 1 and 2 below), also pronouns (examples 3 and 4), adverbs (example 5), numerals (example 6):

1. More nurses were required to tend *the sick* and *the wounded.*
2. Her hair was *a bright brown.*
3. It wasn't *a he.*
4. He is such *a nothing.*
5 . There is *a Beyond.*
6. She was only just fifty and looked *a handsome thirty-five.*

Both articles have originated from notional parts of speech, whose influence may be traced in their meaning and use.

The d e f i n i t e a r t i c l e developed from a demonstrative pronoun, which accounts for its meaning of definiteness. The demonstrative force remains in many phrases, such as *at the time, of the kind,* in its use before restrictive attributes, and in some situational uses.

The i n d e f i n i t e a r t i c l e developed from the cardinal numeral *one,* The numerical meaning is evident in such phrases and sentences as *at a time, in a moment, wait a minute, not a sound was heard.*

The pronunciation of the articles and the spelling of the indefinite article depend upon the initial sound of the following word. The indefinite article is spelled as **a** before consonant and as **an** before vowel sounds. When stressed it is pronounced respectively as [eɪ] or [æn]. However, since the articles are usually unstressed, the pronunciation of the indefinite article is generally reduced to the neutral vowel [ə] before consonants, and to [ən] before vowel sounds, which depends entirely on the pronunciation and not the spelling of the following word, as can be seen in the table below.

[ə]	[ən]
a dog	an apple
a house	an hour
a European	an eagle
a unit	an uncle
a year	an x-ray
a manuscript	an MP

The definite article is pronounced as [ðiː] when stressed. When unstressed, it is pronounced as [ðə] before consonants and [ðɪ] before vowels:

[ðə]	[ðɪ]
the dog	the apple
the house	the hour
the European	the x-ray
the unit	the uncle

the manuscript	the MP

Since the article is the opening element of a noun phrase, it is placed before the noun it refers to or before all the other noun premodifiers. The exceptions to this rule are as follows:

a) the definite article may be preceded by the predeterminers *alt* and *both*:
Are you going to cook *all the cakes* yourself?
Both the answers were good.

b) the indefinite article may be preceded by the predeterminers *what, such, quite*:
What a sight I am in this hat!
You were *such a queen,* and I was *such a nothing!*
You are *quite a scholar.*

c) the indefinite article is placed after adjectives preceded by the adverbs *too, as, so*:
That was *too difficult a problem* for the child to solve.
It's *as good an excuse* as any for breaking it up.
I've never seen *so miserable a creature* as Jane was at the moment.

The use of the indefinite article

The main functions of the indefinite article are **classifying, generic** and **numerical.**

§ 187. In its **classifying function** the article serves to refer an object to the class or group of objects of the same kind.

We saw *a speck* in the distance. It was *a ship.*
I am *a school teacher.*
Somewhere *a telephone* began to ring.
The door opened and *a man* entered.
Janet lived alone in *a small shabby house.*
He was *a man* I would be glad to spend half my time in hell with.

The noun preceded by the classifying indefinite article may be accompanied by pre- or postmodifying attributes. The indefinite article is used so long as the reference to the class is preserved, as can be seen from the examples below.

I've read *a novel.*
It is *a very interesting novel.*
It is *a novel* by *a modem writer.*
It is *a teenager novel* about American boys.
It is *an exciting novel* which is very suitable for staging.

But: It is ***the*** novel our teacher mentioned at the last lesson.

Though mostly used with counts the indefinite article may be used in the classifying function with non-counts, unique and proper nouns.*

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* For details see § 192, 198, 201.

The moon rose early.   *It was a very pale siver moon.*

§ 188. In its **generic function** the indefinite article implies that the object denoted by the noun is spoken of as a representative of the class, and therefore what is said about the thing, animal, person, or notion mentioned, refers to any object of the same kind, as in:

An oblong has four sides, *a triangle* has three sides.
A tram runs on rails, a *bus* does not.
A horse has four legs.
A sonnet is a poem of fourteen lines.
A library is *a collection* of books.

The noun preceded by the generic indefinite article may be modified by an attribute which restricts the class represented by the object mentioned or narrows the scope of reference, but does not individualize it.

A complex sentence has two or more clauses.
A man who looks after the books in a library is called a librarian.

The indefinite article in its generic function is often used in proverbs and sentences expressing a general truth.

A friend in need is a friend indeed.
An elephant never forgets.
As *a man* sows, so he shall mow.

With the nouns in the plural in this case no article is used. It should be noted that the generic function of the indefinite article, though akin to the classifying function, is different not only in its meaning, but also in its role in the process of communication. In the majority of cases a noun with the indefinite article in its generic function is the starting point of the utterance, whereas a noun with the indefinite article in its classifying function used as subject or predicative presents a new item of information, which is the most important part of the utterance.

§ 189. In its **numerical function** the indefinite article retains its original meaning of the cardinal numeral *one.*

The Indian summer returned for *a day.*
Of course I won't say *a word.*
An apple a day keeps the doctor away.
A stitch in time saves nine.

The numerical function of the indefinite article is evident with nouns denoting units of measure (time, distance, length, weight, etc.): *60 miles an hour, ten shillings a yard. The wireless had become a ton weight. We walked a mile or two.*

The function of the indefinite article is also numerical in noun phrases with an ordinal numeral as premodifier, where the article suggests the meaning *one more, another:*

In this final chapter, we come to *a third way* in which one may view these parts of the sentence.

The indefinite article in its numerical function may signal a change in the meaning of a non-count making it a count. Thus *an ice-cream, a coffee, a tea, a beer, a whisky,* etc. mean *a portion of, a glass of, a pint of,* etc.:

David has ordered a second whisky.

The three main functions of the indefinite article are interrelated, one of them predominating in the

context. Thus in the sentence *I've bought a new dictionary* the function of the article is classifying. The numerical idea is implied, but it is not conspicuous enough. If the speaker is interested in number he must say: *I've bought one dictionary* or *I want only one dictionary.*

On the other hand when the article is used in its numerical sense, the classifying function coexists with the numerical function. Thus in the proverb *An apple a day keeps the doctor away* the idea of number *(one apple, one day)* goes together with the idea of class (a kind of fruit, a unit of time),

In the generic function the ideas of oneness and class are combined, but there is no reference to a specific existing thing, person or notion. If we say *A triangle has three sides* we mean *one triangle* and *a certain class* of geometrical figures, but we do not refer the figure drawn on the blackboard to the class mentioned. To express the latter idea we must say *The figure is a triangle.* The same applies to the following sentences: *I wanted to be a doctor* where we deal with a classifying meaning of the article, but *A doctor is an intelligent man* - with generic.

§ 190. There are a number of set expressions with the indefinite article. In most of them the main functions of the indefinite article can be seen.

at a time	to be (to feel) at a loss
at a glance	to have a mind (to do something)
as a result (of)	to have a good time
as a whole	to have a headache (a toothache, a sore throat)
in a good (evil) hour	It is a pity
in a hurry (**but:** in haste)	It is a pleasure
in a fury	It is a shame
in a low voice	What a shame!
in a whisper	What a pity!
at a distance of...	They were much of a size
(**but:** in the distance)	Birds of a feather flock together.
at a depth (**but:** in the depth)	many a time (not once, on many occasions)
at a speed of...	many a man (not one)

The use of the definite article

§ 191. The definite article implies that the speaker or the writer presents a person, a thing or an abstract notion as known to the listener or the reader, either from his general knowledge, or from the situation, or from the context. Hence, the two main functions of the definite article are **specifying and generic.**

§ 192. The definite article in its **specifying function** serves to single out an object or a group of objects from all the other objects (things, persons, animals, abstract notions) of the same kind. The specification is carried out by means of (1) a restrictive attribute, of (2) the preceding context, (3) the situation or (4) the meaning of the noun.

1) A *restrictive attribute* is most useful in singling out or individualizing an object (such attributes are also called *specifying* or *limiting).* It may be expressed by a single word, a prepositional phrase, a participial phrase, or by a clause, all functioning as postmodifiers.

Somebody moved in *the room above.*
I'm convinced Davis is *the man we are looking for* (the very man).
The students in the next room are taking an examination.
That was *the end of my first journey* into the enchantment of the past.

The man standing by the window is my uncle.
I said nothing to Mr Smith. I think he was already rehearsing *the story he would fell to Mrs Smith.*

There are also postmodifying attributes which refer the object they modify to a class of similar objects, and in this case they require the indefinite article before the modified noun.

A letter written in pencil is difficult to read.
A letter which is written in pencil is difficult to read.

In like fashion premodifying attributes, especially expressed by adjectives, have either descriptive force in which case they do not influence the use of articles, or a restrictive force due to their meaning. Those are the limiting adjectives *very, right, left, wrong, only, one, opposite, last, next (following),* the pronominal adjective *same,* ordinal numerals. Their meaning specifies the object well enough to exclude a possibility of choice or change within a class.

We got into *the wrong train.*
Are we on *the right road?*
He is *the only man* for this position.
Morning light ... touched *the opposite seat.*
That's *the great Rita. The one* and *only Rita.*
My first job was not a success. But *the second job* was a sensational success.

Apparent exceptions to the rule are caused by a certain shift in the meaning of premodifiers, which may acquire a new qualitative tinge. Thus *an only child* means *a child who has no brothers or sisters, a first impression* or *a first attempt* has its own qualitative peculiarities, a *last look* is *a farewell look, a second, a third, a tenth* means *one more, another.* In such cases the classifying force of the article prevails. See the examples below, the last of which also suggests reference to a class, namely to the class of books in their first edition.

I haven't got four brothers. I'm *an only son.*
Alec turned up as if for *a last look* at the retreating figure.
It was *a good first impression.*
What made him spot Boot? It's *a sixth sense*
He picked up *a first edition* of "The Torrents of Spring".

Note:

There is no article if the numeral is part of a proper name: Fifth Avenue, Sixty-Sixth Street.

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2) An object or a group of objects may be *specified by reference to file preceding context* (backward reference). This use of the definite article is qualified as anaphoric. The noun with the definite article may be a mere repetition of the noun mentioned before (see examples a) and b) below); it may be referred to the words or statement just mentioned (ex. c, d), or may be a final statement prompted by the context (e):

a) My wife always had *a passion* for owls. *The passion's* grown since our marriage.

b) *Three little kittens* lost their mittens ... *The three little kittens* they found their mittens.

c) 'My wife has left me.' Dirk could hardly get *the words* out.

d) Dainty spoke aloud. *The habit* was certainly growing.

e) My daughter's getting married at the week-end, but I don't think I shall go.
—You don't like *the man?*

3) One of the most usual ways of singling out an object or a group of objects is *situational specification.* Though the object is mentioned for the first time, no attribute or context is necessary for the speaker (or the writer) to point it out and for the listener (or the reader) to understand what object is meant.

After visiting a theatre we may say: *I liked **the** acting and I enjoyed **the** music too.* After a flower exhibition: ***The** flowers were splendid.* In many everyday situations: *Go to **the** kitchen. Open **the** door. Pass **the** butter. Keep off **the** grass.*

When we say *Let's go to **the** river,* depending on the place we live in, it may be the Neva, the Thames, the Amazon, etc. With reference to a certain school we may say: ***The** bell rang and **the** teacher came in,* or *Miss , Smith came in.*

If the situational reference is not clear enough to the listener, the speaker should employ another specifier as in the following: "*Hilary, would you mind if we fixed the day?" "What day?" "**The** day for me and Crystal to get married."*

4) The definite article in its specifying function is used with *unique objects* or *notions.* They are *the sun, the moon, the earth, the sea, the world, the universe, the horizon, the equator, the south, the north, the west, the east.*

> *The sun* sank below the horizon.
> *The sky* had cleared...
> *The moon* is the heavenly body that moves round *the earth.*
> He sailed round *the world.*

The use of the definite article with nouns denoting unique objects is similar to the situational use, only unique objects suggest situations on a larger scale. Nouns denoting unique objects are also similar to proper nouns, especially to those originated from common nouns, such as *the Tower, the Hermitage, the British Museum.*

Though in the majority of cases proper nouns are used without an article, thanks to their origin, various historical processes and traditional usage, there are a number of proper nouns which are preceded by the definite article (for more examples see the list in § 194).

Nouns denoting unique objects may be preceded by the indefinite article in its classifying function when some aspect or phase of the object is meant or the word is used figuratively.

> It's *a high sky* tonight, big and pale.
> The sun shone in *an unclouded sky.*
> Night had fallen and I was guided by *a full moon.*
> She in turn had discovered in Cal Finley *a world* of which she had never dreamed before.
> It has always been *a dream of her life.*

§ 193. The definite article in its ***generic function*** refers the following noun to the whole class of objects of the same kind.

> *The lion* is *the king* of the animals.
> *The trout* - oh *the trout* – he's *the real king* of fish.
> Only *the poet* or *the saint* can water an asphalt pavement in the confident anticipations that lilies will
> reward his labour.

Since 1925 Mr Warren has made an outstanding contribution to American letters in *the fields of education, poetry, criticism,* and *the novel.*

The generic article suggests a very high degree of abstraction in a count noun, the next stage of abstraction being achieved by the absence of the articles, as with the words *man* and *woman* when used in a generic meaning.

Woman is physically weaker than *man.*
This was more than *man* can be expected to bear.

Observe the difference between the generic use of the word *man* without an article (the class as a whole) and the generic use of the same word with the indefinite article (a representative of the class) in this quotation:

Man is not made for defeat. *A man* can be destroyed, but not defeated.

In many cases either the generic definite or the generic indefinite article may be used. The generic definite article expresses the idea of the whole class, whereas the indefinite article emphasises the idea of any individual's belonging to the class, e.g. *The horse is a domestic animal. A horse is a domestic animal.* The generic indefinite article is often preferable when a detailed description follows: *A person who prepares somebody else's writings for a publisher is called the editor. A crane is a large bird with a long neck and beak.*

There are certain contexts, however, where the use of the generic indefinite article is logically impossible, as in:

The tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.
The lion is the king of the animals.
The atom was known to the ancient Greeks.

Singular nouns preceded by the generic definite or the generic indefinite article correspond to plural nouns with no article.

The tiger lives in the jungle.   Tigers live in the jungle.

The generic use of the definite article occurs with nouns denoting social classes (both singular and plural forms), for example: *the proletariat, the bourgeoisie, the aristocracy, the gentry, the workers, the public, the peasants, the intelligentsia.* The same applies to people belonging to some school or movement in literature or art, for example: *the romanticists, the impressionists.*

The use of the definite article before substantivized adjectives in their collective or abstract meaning is also generic: *the poor* =- all who are poor, *the strong* = all who are strong, *the obvious* = all that is obvious, *the beautiful* = all who are beautiful or all that is beautiful, beauty:

Take Charley, for example. He has associated with *the learned, the gentle, the literate* and *the reasonable*
both in France and America. Three things will never be believed - *the true, the probable* and *the logical.*

§ 194. Set expressions with the definite article:

the other day   all the same

the day after tomorrow

by the dozen (the score, the hundred)

by the hour

in the morning

in (during) the night

in the afternoon

in the evening

in (the) summer

in (the) springtime

in the singular

in the plural

in the past, in the present

in the future (but: in future = from this time on)

on the whole

out of the question

to pass the time

just the same

by the by

by the way

to take (seize) smb by the shoulder

 (by the arm)

to pull smb by the hair

to kiss smb on the cheek

 (on the forehead, etc.)

to be wounded in the knee

 (in the arm, etc.)

to keep the house (but: to keep house)

to play the piano (the guitar, etc.)

to tell the truth

to tell the time

§ 195. List of proper nouns regularly used with the definite article.

I. Astronomical names.

The Milky Way, the Great Bear, the Little (Lesser) Bear.

II. Geographical names.

1. The North Pole, the South Pole, the Arctic, etc.

2. Mountain ranges:
the Alps, the Pennines, the Urals. But single mounts take no article.

3. Rivers:
the Thames, the Hudson, the Amazon, the Rein, the Nile, the Neva, the Danube, etc.

4. Seas and oceans:
the North Sea, the Red Sea, the Black Sea, the Baltic (Sea), the Arctic Ocean, the Indian Ocean,
the
Pacific   (Ocean), etc.

5. Canals:
the Suez Canal, the Panama Canal, etc.; also the English Channel.

6. Some countries, areas, provinces:
the USA (the United States of America), the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, the Ukraine, the
Crimea, the Caucasus.

7. Deserts:
the Sahara (Desert), the Gobi (Desert), the Karakum (Desert).

8. Parts of towns:
the West End, the East End, the Soho, the City (of London), the Bronx (in New York).

9. The de facto capital of the Netherlands:
the Hague.

III. Names of public institutions (museums, theatres, hotels, restaurants), unique buildings and monuments:

the Tate (Gallery), the National Gallery, the Metropolitan Museum (Opera), the British Museum, the
Louvre, the Hermitage, the Prado, the Grand (Hotel), the Savoy,the Kremlin, the White House, the
Bronze Horseman, the Sphinx.

IV. Names of vessels:

the Discovery, the Titanic, the Queen Elisabeth, the Dolores, etc.

V. Names of most newspapers (in English-speaking countries):

the Times, the Washington Post, the Canadian Tribune, etc.

Absence of the article

§ 196. The absence of any article, which is sometimes referred to as the zero article, is as meaningful as their actual use. It is regularly observed with count nouns in the plural, with non-counts used in a general sense, with proper nouns.

§ 197. The indefinite article has no plural form and thus it cannot be used with nouns in the plural in any of its functions.
The plural form without an article corresponds to the classifying and generic uses of the indefinite article and sometimes to the generic use of the definite article.

Jane is a student.	Jane and Mary are students.
A dog barks.	Dogs bark.
A man who has nothing to say has no words.	Men who have nothing to say have no words.
The tiger lives in the jungle.	Tigers live in the jungle.

If the idea of number is retained, an indefinite pronoun *(some, any, no),* adjectives *(several, a lot of, many),* or a cardinal numeral accompanies the plural noun.

Have you a record teaching English pronunciation?	Have you *any* records teaching English pronunciation?
	They have *some (several, many, ten)* records of the kind.
There grew a cherry-tree once.	There grew *three (some, a lot of)* cherry-trees once.

§ 198. Non-count nouns, abstract or material, when used in a general sense, are not preceded by any article, as in:

Time will show who is right.
He has such *huge pride.*
She said *with astonishment,* "Where are you, Maurice?"
We walked forward *in silence.*
They greeted him *without enthusiasm.*

Premodifiers of abstract non-count nouns do not influence the use of articles, they only restrict the

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meaning of the noun, as in: history - *English history, medieval English history;* music - *folk music, pop music, classical music;* art - *modern art, abstract art;* weather - *nasty weather, fine weather;* advice - *valuable advice.*

He doesn't love *abstract art.*

The same refers to material non-counts *beautiful silk, Venetian glass, stained glass.*

However the indefinite article is used with both kinds of noun if the classifying idea predominates *(An English grammar* - a kind of it, a soil of it); with words denoting feeling the indefinite article suggests a manifestation of that feeling, with nouns of material a particular kind of the substance mentioned. In contexts of the kind non-counts are usually accompanied by descriptive attributes.

That, sir, was *a profound knowledge* of man.
He always had *a love for the concrete.*
I can't remember *a time when I wasn't painting with my father standing beside me.*
I was no good at football, but does it make *an unhappy boyhood?*
It is incredible to me that there should be *an after life.*
She put down the mirror with *a feeling of hopelessness.*

In nouns which may function as both counts and non-counts the absence of the article indicates a non-count with general meaning, whereas the indefinite article shows that it is a count noun, abstract or concrete.

Compare the meanings in such pairs of nouns as:

Language is a means of communication.
It is always interesting to study a foreign language.

Light is necessary for life.
They saw a light in the distance.

Absence of the article before an originally count noun may suggest a shift in its meaning. Thus in *to teach piano (violin)* the noun *piano* means a subject to be taught, just as *history, literature,* etc., whereas in *to play the piano* the noun *piano* denotes a musical instrument with the article in its generic function. In such expressions as *to go to school, to be at school* the adverbial meaning predominates and the noun loses its nominal quality.

If partition or indefinite amount is meant, it is expressed by an indefinite pronoun *(some, any)* or a partitive noun *(a piece, an item, a bit).* With material nouns partitive meaning is also expressed with the help of nouns denoting measure or amount *(a cup of tea, a glass of milk, a pint of beer, a slice of bread, a loaf of bread, a spoonful of medicine, a sack of coal,* etc.).

All non-counts can be preceded by the definite article in its specifying function. Thus we say *the art of the nineteenth century, the music of the Renaissance, the history of England,* (but: English history) *the history of the Middle Ages,* and also: *What's the weather like today? How did you like the music?*

Note the difference between *English* (French, Spanish) *literature* and *the English* (French, Spanish) *language.* Here *literature* is a non-count, whereas the word *language* is used as a count noun. The adjectives operate as specifiers restricting the abstract notion of language to one particular language.

Compare also the use of *in darkness, in the darkness.* The first suggests the state of darkness as such, the second is situationally or contextually determined, as in these two examples: *The yard and the lane outside it were in darkness. In the darkness he could discern the figure of the watchman.*

§ 199. Proper names point out individual objects. Their individualizing meaning makes the use of an

article unnecessary. All proper names of living beings are *situationally specified* (when we say *Tom, Mary, Mrs Brown, Mr Wilson,* etc.), for there are hundreds if not thousands of people bearing the same name.

When a proper name is preceded by a modifier no article is used in case the latter denotes a title, relationship, or rank, or if the proper name is accompanied by adjectives which sometimes form part of it: *simple Simon, lucky Jim, old Jolyon, young Jolyon, poor Smith, Miss Dodson, Mister Brown, Colonel Pickering, Queen Elisabeth, Professor Jones, President Kennedy, Doctor Manson.*

When modified by other adjectives, not commonly used, proper names may take the definite article.

Use of the definite article before proper names

§ 200. The definite article is necessary:

1. When additional specification is needed. This is realized with a restricting attribute, usually formed as an of-phrase or a clause, or with the definite article alone, or a premodifier operating as one:

> Gloria at twenty-six was still *the Gloria* of twenty.
> Did Bait understand *the England* of today?
> That's not *the George Lamb* I knew.

> "You are *the Mr Murdstone* who married the widow of my late nephew?" said my aunt.

> "Why, she's Sue Courtenay," Gladys informed her uncle impressively.
> "*The Sue Courtenay!* Why, don't you know her?"

> "Cap'n Kit, that's my name." "What? *The Captain Kit?* O'course I've heard of him."

2. When the specifying premodifier denotes a profession or points out some peculiar feature or temporary state (often expressed by a participle): *the playwright Pinter, the painter Reynolds, the electrician Smith, the unsophisticated Kitty, the susceptible Mr Snodgrass, the puzzled Henry, the calculating Becky, the brilliant George Osborne, the offended Soames.*

3. Before a group of objects or persons bearing the same name and forming one whole: *The Pennines, the Alps, the Rockies, the Urals* - a group of mountains, a mountain range; *the British Isles, the Philippines, the Canaries, the Hebrides, the Shetlands - a* group of islands, an archipelago; *the Browns, theTullivers* - a family, a clan, as in: *the Dobsons were a very respectable family indeed.*
The absence of the article before a plural proper name suggests a mere plurality, as in: *There are a lot of Wilsons, Browns and Smiths in England.*

4. Before proper nouns formed by means of substantivized adjectives: *the Pacific* (ocean), *the Atlantic* (ocean), *the Mediterranean* (Sea), *the Argentine* (Republic), but *Argentina* (because it is a proper name).

5. Before nicknames: *the Gadfly, the Scout.*

Use of the indefinite article before proper names

§ 201. The indefinite article is necessary:

1. When the person mentioned belongs to the family bearing the same name:

> Mrs Tulliver had been a *Miss Dodson...*

No daughter of the house could be indifferent of having been born *a Dodson,* rather than *a Gibson* or a
Watson.

2. When nothing is known about the person mentioned but the name.

This usage corresponds to the Russian word «некий».
There's a young American girl staying at the hotel. She's *a Miss Render.*

3. When an originally proper name comes to be used as a common noun (usually as a result of metonymy or metaphor), as in:

This man doesn't know *a Rubens* from *a Rembrandt* (pictures of these painters).
There is in Gary's work the naturalness and zest of a *Defoe,* the generosity of *a Fielding* (like that of
Defoe, like that of Fielding).
Everybody isn't *a Mary Pickford* (a film star like Mary Pickfbrd).
He was *a Crusoe* with no need to look for footprints in the sand (a man like Crusoe).
'Have a cigar.' 'If it is *a real Havana.'*

4. When some phase, aspect, or state is meant, whether it refers to a living being or a geographical place:

John was inside, *a very different John* from the lad he had known seven years ago.
And now here was Gulliver's girl Barbara, that mournful-eyed waif from *an unhappy France.*
So at night Castle dreamt of *a South Africa* reconstructed with hatred.

(Compare with the same use of the indefinite article before unique and non-count nouns.)

§ 202. Absence of the articles in set expressions

at dinner (breakfast, etc.)	in search of
at first notice	in spite of
at first sight	
at night	
at table	
at war	
by airmail	out of date
by letter	out of order
by telegram	out of place
by air	out of sight
by car	
by land	arm in arm
by plane	day after day
by sea	day by day
by ship (boat)	hand in hand
by train	night after night
by tram	night by night
by tube	
by water	a kind of ⎫ place,
	a sort of ⎬ book,
	⎭ task, etc.

by accident	on account of
by chance	on condition that
by mistake	
by name	to be in ⎤ bed
by sight	to go to ⎦
from beginning to end	to be at ⎤
from day to day	to go to ⎥ school,
from east to west	to come to ⎥ college,
from head to foot	to come from ⎥ (the) university
from morning to (till) night	to leave ⎦
from side to side	
	to be at ⎤
in debt	to leave ⎥ hospital
in demand	to take to ⎦
in secret	
in sight	to be at ⎤
in time	to go to ⎦ sea
in addition to	to be in ⎤
in (on) behalf of	to go to ⎦ church
in care of	
in case of	to be at ⎤
in charge of	to put to ⎦ prison
in reference to	
	to be in ⎤
	to be out of ⎥ town
	to go to ⎦
to ask (for) permission	to lose touch with
to catch (lose) sight of	to lose track of
	to make fun of
to give offence (permission)	to make use of
to give way to	to pay attention to
	to set fire to
to keep house (to do housework)	to shake hands with
to keep time	to take care of
	to take notice of

In these set expressions nouns combine with prepositions or verbs and acquire a new shade of meaning, expressing an adverbial relation, a state or a process. Concrete count nouns lose their nominal meaning. Thus *He is **in bed*** may mean *He is ill,* or *He is asleep,* or *He is not up.* But we say: *There were no chairs enough and we sat on **the bed**.*

*My brother goes **to school*** (college) means *He learns there.* However, if we mean the building or the institution, we use an article according to the general rules, as in: *We shall meet at **the school. The school** isn't far from our home. Ours is a very **good school.** Parents are regularly invited to **the school**.*

The noun *town* without an article means the nearest big centre of population as contrasted to the country or a smaller town, it may also denote the central part of a big town, as opposed to its suburbs.

To be at sea may mean "far away from the land" or (figuratively) "to feel puzzled"; *to go to sea* is "to become a sailor". But we say: *The swimmer jumped into the sea. We lived near the sea,* etc.

No article is used as a rule when two notions, very closely related, are mentioned, as in:

They looked like *mother and daughter.*
We are no longer *boy and girl.*

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It's no use interfering into a quarrel between *husband and wife.*

§ 203. Notes on the use of nouns denoting time and meals.

Nouns denoting time are treated as abstract nouns bordering on proper names. **No article** is used with reference to *parts of the day* or *of the year, light or darkness,* as in:

Evening came. *Night* fell. *Day* broke. We'll wait till *night. Twilight* is the faint light just before *sunset* and

just after *sunrise. Winter* set in. "If *Winter* comes, can *Spring* be far behind?"
It was *early morning (late afternoon, Friday morning, Saturday night,* etc.).
It was *early spring (late autumn,* etc.).
They met *at noon (at sunset, at midnight).*

However articles may occur with such words according to the common usage of the articles in their (a) specifying, (b) generic, (c) classifying or (d) numerical functions.

a) *The evening* was calm. *The winter* is severe this year.
The twilight was sad and cloudy.
We stayed at my aunt's for *the night.* (той ночью, в ту ночь)
We watched *the sunrise* from the balcony.
The winter of 1978 was severe.
It happened on *the morning* of April 12th.

b) Evening is the latest part of *the day.*
Tell me the four seasons of *the year!*

c) It was a *wonderful day (a hot summer, a warm morning, a gloomy afternoon, a glorious sunrise,* etc.).
That was *a restless night.*

d) I'll ring you up in *a day* or two.

When names of meals denote simply an occasion or process of taking food, they are used without an article in phrases and patterns, such as:

to have (take, serve, cook) *dinner, breakfast, lunch, supper;*
to go to (to be at) *dinner, lunch,* etc.;
Lunch is at two p.m.
Dinner is ready (served, laid).
What have you bought for *lunch (dinner, supper)*
What shall we have for *supper (dinner)?*

An article is used mainly when a formal meal is meant or when the notion referred to is specified or classified.

They gave *a dinner (luncheon, supper)* in honour of the ambassador (a kind of reception)
The dinner you cooked was beyond all expectations! It was a *marvellous dinner.*

Note on the use of *next* and *last* as noun premodifiers

§ 204. Nouns with these premodifiers are not preceded by any articles when counting from the moment of speaking, as in;

We'll speak about it *next time (next Friday, next month, next spring, next year):*
We spoke about it *last time (last Friday, last month,* etc.).

The definite article occurs when the situation is viewed from some moment in the past or in the future and when the noun is modified by a specifying attribute or attributive clause.

We spent (or: we'll spend) a week in the Crimea, and *the next two weeks* in the Caucasus.
The last time I saw Mary she looked a picture of health.
We shall resume our talk *the next time I see you.*

Omission of the articles

§ 205. The omission of an article differs from the absence of an article in that it is stylistically or traditionally determined. It occurs in cases where economy of expression is required and is often accompanied by other ellipses, such as omission of prepositions, auxiliaries, etc.

1. In newspaper headlines:
   'Girl saw Flame', 'CTV is winning Fireside Battle'.

   (Cp. the text of the newspaper report that follows the headline: Commercial television is winning the
   battle of the fireside.)

2. In telegrams:
   Attending cytological congress Rome will stop few days on way love John.

3. In newspaper announcements:
   Anna Linden, daughter of a Manchester engineer, made her debut...

4. In stage directions:
   At rise of curtain... goes to telephone; stands at door.

5. In reference entries or notes:
   See table Taxonomic Classification on following page.
   Hellman, Lilian, American dramatist, author of a succession of dramas ...

Use of the articles with nouns in some syntactical functions

§ 206. 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. In these cases the noun denotes some notion forming the starting point of the utterance and therefore is presented as known to both the speaker and the addressee.

The way was long. *The wind* was cold.
The minstrel was infirm and old.

The indefinite article in its classifying function occurs to express the idea of novelty or unexpectedness, no matter what the position of the subject is:

On the opposite side of the landing *a girl* was standing.
A girl was standing on the opposite side of the landing.

Such sentences are translated into Russian with inverted word order:

На другой стороне площадки стояла девушка.

A similar use of the indefinite article occurs in sentences with the existential construction *There is (comes, appears,* etc.), as in:

There is *an exception* to the rule.

2. When used as **a predicative** the noun is usually preceded by the indefinite article in its classifying function. The position of the predicative is most suitable for the manifestation of the classifying function and for giving some new information:

This is *a house.*
George is *a telephone engineer.*

The definite article before a noun in this position suggests the identity of the object expressed by the predicative noun with that expressed by the subject:

This is the house that Jack built.

He is the telephone engineer (the one we have sent for).

The absence of the article before predicative count nouns indicates:

a) that the noun has lost its original meaning and suggests some social position, post or title:
   Mrs Mantoffle was *president* of all sorts of societies and committees.
   With this knowledge he can be *king.*
   He was on the programme as *assistant stage Manager.*
   J. F. Kennedy was elected *President* in I960.

b) that the idea of quality or state predominates over the idea of thingness (usually when the noun is preceded by 'more' or followed by 'enough').

   Fool, fool that she was to get into such a state.
   But you'll be *man* enough to tell me the truth.
   Randal was in the end more *artist* than *scientist.*

3. With the noun functioning as **objects** any article can be used depending on how the speaker formulates his thought; the indefinite article is preferable after verbs of possession and obligatory in verb-object phrases denoting a single action such as *to have a smoke, to give a look,* etc.

4. The use of the articles with nouns in the function of **an adverbial modifier** depends partly on the type of adverbial modifier.
   In **adverbial modifiers of place** the definite article is used in its specifying function to identify the exact place:

Jane is in *the garden.*

The indefinite article in its classifying function is preferable when the attention is focused on a description of the place rather than on its identification, as in: *Crystal lived alone in a small shabby house.*

In **adverbial modifiers of comparison** the indefinite article is preferably used in its classifying function with the generic tinge since comparison is drawn with a representative of the class: e.g. I *can read you like a book.* It is used also in phraseological combinations *as strong as a lion, as hard as a nail, as meek as a mouse, etc.*

5. In **attributes** the indefinite article is used to emphasize the importance and novelty of the notion mentioned. Therefore we find the indefinite article in such phrases as *the son of a teacher, the daughter of a doctor,* or
a doctor's daughter, it may be paraphrased as *Her father is a doctor. She is the daughter of the doctor* uggests reference to a definite person known from the situation equal to *our doctor, the doctor here.*

6. In **apposition** either of the articles can be used, depending on whether the noun in apposition serves to classify or to identify the notion expressed by the noun:

I've got acquainted with Mr Smith, *an architect.*

We've got acquainted with Mr Smith, *the architect.*

There is a substantial difference in the communicative value of the apposition depending on the use of the articles. The indefinite article implies that the listener (reader) does not know anything about the person or thing denoted by the head-noun and requires some new knowledge about it. Here the indefinite article has a classifying function:

Have you ever heard of 'Caesar's Wife', *a play by Maugham?*

Paul Long, *a neighbour of yours,* will be visiting us this evening.

The definite article implies that the listener (reader) is supposed to be familiar with the person or thing mentioned from his general knowledge or the situation

I want to speak to Mr Smith, *the electrician.*
"Hamlet", *the tragedy by Shakespeare,* has been screened many a time.

Note a restrictive appositions in noun phrases of the kind: *the (famous) novelist Gr. Greene, the novel "The Heart of the Matter", the number ten (цифра десять) (but: page number 10), the noun "story" the letter "e".*

THE ADJECTIVE

Semantic characteristics

§ 207. According to their way of nomination adjectives fall into two groups - **qualitative** and **relative.**

Q u a l i t a t i v e adjectives denote properties of a substance directly *(great, cold, beautiful,* etc.).

R e l a t i v e adjectives describe properties of a substance through relation to **materials** *(woollen, wooden, feathery, leathern, flaxen),* to **place** *(Northern, European, Bulgarian, Italian),* to **time** *(daily, monthly, weekly, yearly),* to some action *(defensive, rotatory, preparatory),* **or to relationship** *(fatherly, friendly).*
Qualitative adjectives in their turn may be differentiated according to their meaning into descriptive,

denoting **a quality in a broad sense** *(wonderful, light, cold, etc.)* and limiting, denoting a specific category, a part of a whole, a sequence of order, a number *(the previous page, an equestrian statue, medical aid, the left hand).*

Limiting adjectives single out the object or substance, impart a concrete or unique meaning to it, specify it, and therefore can seldom be replaced by other adjectives of similar meaning.

Among limiting adjectives there is **a group of intensifiers,** which often form a phraseological unit with their head-word, for example: *an obvious failure, a definite loss, a sure sign, a complete fool, absolute nonsense, plain nonsense, the absolute limit.*

Relative adjectives are also limiting in their meaning.

Many adjectives may function either as descriptive or limiting, depending on the head-word and the context. Thus *a little finger* may denote either a small finger or the last finger of a hand. In the first case *little is* descriptive, in the second it is limiting. Likewise *musical in a musical voice* is descriptive, while it is limiting in *a musical instrument.*

Adjectives also differ as to their function. Some of them are used only a t t r i b u t i v e l y and cannot be used as p r e d i c a t i v e s *(a top boy in the class,* but not **the boy was top):* some are used only as predicatives and never as attrubutes *(He is well again,* but not **The well boy).*

The change in the position and, accordingly, of the syntactic status of the adjective may also result in the change in the meaning of the adjective. Thus in *a fast train* the adjective is limiting and denotes a specific kind of train (скорый поезд), whereas in *the train was fast* the adjective is descriptive, as it describes the way the train moved (поезд шел на большой скорости).

Morphological composition

§ 208. According to their morphological composition adjectives can be subdivided into **simple, derived** and **compound.**

In the case of **simple adjectives** such as *kind, new, fresh,* we cannot always tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation, as the form does not always indicate its status.

Derived adjectives are recognizable morphologically. They consist of one root morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes - suffixes or prefixes. There are the following adjective-forming suffixes:

-able	understandable
-al	musical, governmental
-ary	documentary
-ed	beaded, barbed
-en	wooden, silken, shrunken
-que	picturesque
-fold	twofold, manifold
-ful	careful, sinful
-ic	pessimistic, atomic
-id	torpid, morbid
-ish	feverish, bluish
-ive	effective, distinctive
-less	careless, spotless
-like	manlike, warlike
-ly	kindly, weekly, homely
-most	uttermost
-ory	observatory
-ous	glorious
-some	lonesome, troublesome
-y	handy, messy

Some adjectives are former participles and therefore retain participial suffixes: *charming, interesting, cunning, daring.*

The suffixes *-ly, -ed, -ful, -ary, -al, -y* are not confined to adjectives only. Thus, many adverbs are derived from adjectives hy means of the suffix *-ly (strongly, bitterly, quickly).* Most of the verbs form their past tense and participle II with *-ed.* There are many nouns with the suffixes *-al (festival, scandal, criminal), -ary (boundary, missionary), -ful (mouthful, handful), -y (sonny, doggy),* etc.

Compound adjectives consist of at least two stems. They may be of several patterns:

a) consisting of a noun + an adjective:
colour-blind, grass-green;

b) consisting of an adjective + an adjective:
deaf-mute;

c) consisting of an adverb + a participle:
well-known, newly-repaired, much-praised;

d) Consisting of a noun/pronoun + a verbal:
all-seeing, heart-breaking, high-born, high-flown, man-made;

e) consisting of an adjective/adverb + a noun + the suffix *-ed:*
blue-eyed, long-legged, fair-haired, down-hearted.

Morphological characteristics

§ 209. Adjectives in English do not take any endings to express agreement with the head-word.

The only pattern of morphological change is that of **degrees of comparison,** which is possible only for descriptive qualitative adjectives the meaning of which is compatible with the idea of gradation of quality.

There are three grades of comparison: **positive, comparative, and superlative.** The superlative is generally used with the definite article. Ways of formation may be s y n t h e t i c , a n a l y t i c , and s u p p l e t i v e (irregular). The synthetic way is by adding the inflection **-er, -est,** as *fine -finer - finest.* This means is found with monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives in which the stress falls on the last syllable:

1) full - fuller - fullest

polite	- politer	- politest
profound	- profounder	- profoundest
complete	- completer	- completest

2) in which the second syllable is the syllabic [1]:

able	- abler	- ablest
noble	- nobler	- noblest

3) with adjectives in **-er, -y, -some, -ow:,**

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tender      - tenderer    - tenderest
happy       - happier     - happiest
handsome    - handsomer   - handsomest
narrow      - narrower    - narrowest
```

Synthetic inflection, however, is often found in other disyllabic adjectives:

You are *the horridest* man I have ever seen.

P o l y s y l l a b i c adjectives form their degrees of comparison analytically, by means of **more** and **most:**

difficult - more difficult - most difficult
curious - more curious - most curious

Note 1:

Even monosyllabic adjectives used in postposition or predicatively have a greater tendency towards analytic forms of comparison than when used attributively.
Compare:

He is *a man more clever than* you.
He is *a cleverer man.*

The superlative is sometimes used *without **the*** when the aqjective denotes a very high degree of quality and no comparison with other objects is implied.

The path is *steepest* here.
She is *happiest* at home.

Note 2:

This morphological pattern (long - longer - longest) is not confined to adjectives, there are also a number of adverbs which may have the same endings, i.e. *soon - sooner - soonest, hard - harder - hardest.*
Superlatives are often used alone before an of-phrase:
the best of friends, the youngest of the family.

Several adjectives form their degrees of comparison by means of (suppletive forms) irregularly:

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good/well   - better    - best
bad         - worse     - worst
little      - less       - least
many        - more      - most
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far ⎰ farther - farthest (with reference to distance)
   ⎱ further - furthest (with reference to distance, abstract notions and in figurative use)

old ⎰ older - oldest (with reference to age)
   ⎱ elder - eldest (with reference to the sequence of brothers and sisters)

Adjectival compounds can be inflected in two ways, either the first element is inflected (if it is an adjective or adverb), or comparison is with **more** and **most,** for example:

well-known	- better-known	- best-known
dull-witted	- more dull-witted	- most dull-witted
kind-hearted	- more kind-hearted	- most kind-hearted

The following adjectives generally do not form degrees of comparison:

1. Limiting qualitative adjectives which single out or determine the type of things or persons, such as:
   previous, middle, left, childless, medical, dead, etc.

2. Relative adjectives (which are also limiting in their meaning) such as:
   woollen, wooden, flaxen, earthen, ashen.

3. Adjectives with comparative and superlative meaning (the so-called gradables) which are of Latin origin:
   former, inner, upper, junior, senior, prior, superior, etc. (originally with comparative meaning), and
   minimal, optimal, proximal, etc. (originally with superlative meaning).

With most of them the comparative meaning has been lost and they are used as positive forms *(the inner wall, the upper lip, superior quality, minimal losses).*

However, some comparatives borrowed from Latin *(major, minor, exterior, interior, junior, senior)* may form their own comparatives with a change of meaning.

4. Adjectives already denoting some gradation of quality, such as *darkish, greenish,* etc.

Adjectives of participial origin

§ 210. Only certain adjectives derived from participles reach full adjectival status. Among those in current use are *interesting, charming, crooked, learned, ragged* and those compounded with another element, which sometimes gives them quite a different meaning *(good-looking, heartbreaking, hard-boiled, frost-bitten, weather-beaten,* etc.).

In most cases, however, the difference between the adjective and the participle is revealed only in the sentence. The difference lies in the verbal nature retained by the participle. The verbal nature is explicit when a direct object or a by-object is present. This can be seen from the following pairs of sentences:

With an adjective	**With a participle**
You are *insulting.*	You are *insulting us.*
His views were *alarming*	His views were *alarming the audience.*
The man was *offended.*	The man was *offended by the secretary's remark.*

The verbal force of the participle is revealed in its limited combinability - it is not combinable with *very.* In the above sentences, it is possible to use *very* in the left-hand column, but not in the right-hand column.

Some adjectives only look like participles, there being no corresponding verbs:

   downhearted, talented, diseased.

In some cases there are corresponding verbs, but the *-ed-* participle is not interpreted as passive, because the corresponding verb can be used only intransitively:

the escaped prisoner (the prisoner who has escaped)
the departed guests (the guests who have departed)
the faded curtains (the curtains which have faded)
the retired officer (the officer who has retired)

(See participles of intransitive verbs, § 143.)

Adjectives and adverbs

Some adjectives coincide in form with adverbs, for example, *slow, long, fast, above, real, mighty, sure,* the last three being used as adverbs only in colloquial style.

Adjectives	**Adverbs**
The examples *above* (given above)	We could see nothing *above* or *below*
a *fast* walk	to walk *fast*
It is *real.*	He is *real* good.
He is *sure* of it.	It *sure* will help.

Patterns of combinability

§ 211. Adjectives are combined with several parts of speech.

1. They may combine with nouns, which they may premodify or postmodify: *a black dress, a chivalrous gentleman, the delegates present.*

If there are several premodifying adjectives to one headword they have definite positional assignments. Generally descriptive adjectives precede the limiting ones, as in a *naughty little boy, a beautiful French girl,* but il there are several of each type, adjectives of different meanings stand in the following order:

Adjectives expressing judgement or general characteri-zation	Adjectives denoting size	Adjectives denoting colour	Adjectives denoting form	Adjectives denoting age	Limiting adjectives	Noun
pleasant horrid nice	large small little	pale green bright red blue	thick round square	old young	French left	

For example: a large black and white hunting dog, a small pale green oval seed.

This order of words is of course not absolutely fixed, since many adjectives may be either descriptive or limiting (see above), depending on the context. The adjectives are not separated by commas, unless they belong to the same type: *a nice little old man.* However, if there is more than one adjective of the same type they are separated by commas: *nasty, irritable, selfish man* (all three belong to the type of 'judgement or general characterization').

Postmodification is usual for the adjectives *elect, absent, present, concerned, involved, proper.*

The president elect (that is: who has been elected and is soon to take office).

In several noun-phrases of French origin (mostly legal or quasilegal) the adjective is also postpositional.

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attorney general	body politic
heir apparent	Queen Regnant
time immemorial	Lords Spiritual (Temporal)

These noun-phrases are very similar to compounds and some of them are spelt as a compound, with a hyphen *(knight-errant, postmaster-general).* The plural ending is attached either to the first element, or to the second:

court-martials	courts-martial
postmaster-generals	postmasters-general

Postmodification may be due to the structural complexity of postmodifiers *(the children easiest to teach, the climate peculiar to this country),* or to the presence of *only* or *all* in preposition *(the only actor suitable, the only person visible, all the money available).*

2. Beside their usual function, that of modifying nouns, adjectives may be combined with other words in the sentence.

They may be modified by adverbials of degree, like *very, quite, that, rather, most, a lot, a sort of, a bit, enough, totally, perfectly, so... as:* **very** *long,* **a bit** *lazy,* **sort** *of naive, far* **enough, a little bit** *tired,* **a most** *beautiful picture, not so foolish* **as that,** *she is not* **that** *crazy.*

The adverb *very* can combine only with adjectives denoting the gradable properties. Thus it is possible to say *very tired* (tiredness may be of different degree), but it is impossible to say *very unknown, *very ceaseless, *very unique, as these adjectives do not allow of gradation.

With the adverb *too* the indefinite article is placed between the adjective and the head-noun. With the adverb *rather* the article is placed after it:

This is *too difficult* a problem to solve at once.
This is *rather a complicated* matter.

3. Predicative adjectives are combined with the link verbs *to be, to seem, to appear, to look, to turn,* or notional verbs in a double predicate:

He looks tired. She does not seem so crazy as before. She is quite healthy. She felt faint. If sounded rather
fussy. The food tasted good. The flowers smell sweet.

Syntactic functions

§ 212. Adjectives may have different functions in the sentence.
The most common are those of **an attribute** or **a predicative.**
The attributes (premodifying and postmodifying) may be closely attached to their head-words (o *good boy, the delegates present),* or they may be loose (detached) *(Clever and ambitious, he schemed as well as he could).* In the first case the adjective forms a group with the noun it modifies; in the second case the adjective forms a sense-group separate from the head-word and the other parts of the sentence. A detached attribute is therefore separated by a comma from its head-word if it adjoins it, or from other parts of the sentence if it is distant from the head-word. As predicatives, adjectives may form **a part of a compound nominal** or **double predicate** *(he was alone, the window was open. Old Jolyon sat alone, the dog went mad).* Predicative adjectives may be modified by adverbials of manner, degree, or consequence and by clauses, forming long phrases as, in:

He is not *so foolish as to neglect it.*
She is not *so crazy as you may imagine.*
It is not *as simple as you think.*

Adjectives may also function as **objective** or **subjective predicatives** in complex constructions:

We consider *him reliable.*
I can drink *coffee hot.*
He pushed *the door open.* } objects + objective predicatives
Better eat *the apples fresh.*
I consider *what he did awful.*
The fruits were picked *ripe.* }
The windows were flung   subjective predicatives
open.

Adjectives may be used parenthetically, conveying the attitude of the speaker to the contents of the sentence *(strange, funny, curious, odd, surprising),* often premodified by *more* or *most.*

Strange, it was the same person.
Most incredible, he deceived us.

A certain type of exclamatory sentence is based on adjectives, often modified by other words: *How good of you! How wonderful! Excellent! Just right!*

Substantivized adjectives

§ 213. Substantivized adjectives may fall into several groups, according to their meaning and the nominal features they possess.

1. Some substantivized adjectives have only the **singular form.** They may have either the singular or plural agreement, depending on their meaning. These are:

a) substantivized adjectives denoting generalized or abstract notions.
   They are used with the definite article and have singular agreement:
   the fabulous, the unreal, the invisible:
   The fabulous is always interesting.

There are, however, certain exceptions. Substantivized adjectives denoting abstract notions may sometimes be used in the plural. Then no article is used:

There are many *variables* and *unknowns.*

b) substantivized adjectives denoting languages are used without a determiner, but are often modified by a pronoun. They also have singular agreement.

My *Spanish* is very poor.
He speaks excellent *English.*

c) substantivized adjectives denoting groups of persons or persons of the same nationality are used with the definite article *the* and admit only of plural agreement *the old, the poor, the rich, the blind, the dumb and deaf, the mute, the eminent, the English.*

He did not look an important personage, but *the eminent* rarely do.
The poor were robbed of their lands.

2. Some substantivized adjectives have the category of number, that is they can have two forms - **the singular** and **the plural.** These are:

a) substantivized adjectives denoting social rank or position, military ranks, party, creed, gender, nationality, race, groups of people belonging to certain times or epochs, etc. In the plural the use of the article is not obligatory: *nobles, equals, superiors, inferiors, commercials, domestics, privates, regulars, ordinaries, marines, Christians, primitives, moderns, ancients, contemporaries, liberals, conservatives, Europeans, Asiatics, Eurasians, Indians, Easterns, blacks, whites,* etc.
When denoting an individual such words are used in the singular and are preceded by the indefinite article: *a noble, a private, a regular, an ordinary, a Christian, a primitive, a liberal,* etc.

There were *a few deads* missing from the briefing.

- How many have you killed?
- One hundred and twenty two *sures.* Not counting *possibles.*

He's been working like *a black.*

b) substantivized adjectives denoting animals and plants: *evergreens, thoroughbreds* (about horses).

3. Some substantivized adjectives have **only the plural form.** These are:

a) substantivized adjectives denoting studies and examinations. They have either the singular or plural
    agreement depending on whether they denote one notion or a collection of notions: *classics, finals*
    (final examinations), *midsessionals,* etc.

     Finals were approaching.

b) substantivized adjectives denoting collection of things, substances and foods. Some of these admit
    either of both the singular and plural agreement *(chemicals, movables, necessaries, valuables, eatables,*
    greens), others admit only of a singular agreement *(bitters).*

c) substantivized adjectives which are the names of the parts of the body are used with the definite article
    the and admit of the plural agreement: *the vitals, the whites* (of the eyes).

d) substantivized adjectives denoting colours are used in the plural without any article: *greys, reds,*
    purples, greens.

THE PRONOUN

§ 214. Pronouns are deictic words which point to objects, their properties and relations, their local or temporal reference, or placement without naming them. They constitute a limited class of words (that is *a*

closed system) with numerous subclasses. They are generally differentiated into noun-pronouns (substituting nouns) and adjective-pronouns (substituting adjectives).

Morphological composition and categorical characteristics

§ 215. Pronouns may be of different structure: **simple, compound,** and **composite.**

Simple pronouns comprise only one morpheme - the stem:
I, you, he, we, etc.; *this, that, some, who, all, one,* etc.

Compound pronouns comprise more than one stem:
myself, themselves, somebody, everybody, anything, nothing, etc.

Composite pronouns have the form of a phrase:
each other, one another.

Patterns of morphological change in pronouns vary greatly not only from subclass to subclass, but also within certain subclasses. Some pronouns have the category of number (*I - we, this – these),* while others have not; some have the category of case expressed in a similar way to that of nouns *(somebody – somebody's),* some have a pattern of their own *(he - him),* and others have no case distinctions at all. Some pronouns have person and gender distinctions, such as personal pronouns, while others have none.

The pronouns also have specials forms to distinguish between animate and inanimate objects. This category is to be found again in personal pronouns *(he/she - it),* possessive pronouns *(himself/herself - itself),* conjunctive pronouns *(who - what),* relative pronouns *(who - which),* and interrogative pronouns *(who - what).*

Subclasses of pronouns and their functions

§ 216. Semantically all pronouns fall into the following subclasses:

I. Personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, indicating persons (*I, you, he, we, they)* or non-persons *(it, they)* from the point of view of their relations to the speaker. Thus *I (me)* indicates the speaker himself, *we (us)* indicates the speaker together with some other person or persons, *you* indicates the person or persons addressed, while *he, she, they (him, her, them)* indicate persons (or things) which are neither the speaker nor the persons addressed to by the speaker.

Personal pronouns have the category *of person, number, case* (nominative and objective), and *gender,* the latter is to be found in the 3rd person only: masculine and feminine is *he - him, she - her;* neuter case-forms *it - it* coincide.

The nominative case form is generally used **as subject** of the sentence, or **predicative** in the compound nominal predicate in sentences like: *It was I who did it.* However, in colloquial style the form of the objective case is preferable, especially in sentences of the type: *It is me.*

Both the nominative and the objective case forms are used after the conjunctions *as* and *than* in comparative constructions:

She is as stout as I now;	*She is as old as* **me;**
Last year he looked much older than **I;**	*He was a better friend to you than* **me.**

The nominative case-form (as well as the objective) is used in elliptical sentences: "*Who is there? – I*". "*Who did it? – Me*".

The objective case form is used mainly as **an object** (with or without a preposition), occasionally as **an attribute** in prepositional phrases: *Give* **me** *your hand; Were you speaking about* **me**?; *The better half of* **me** *protested.*

The fact that semantically personal pronouns indicate persons or things restricts their functioning as **adverbial modifiers.** However, they may occur in this function in a prepositional phrase: *He stood* **close to me;** *Keep* **behind me.**

The pronoun *you* implies a person, sometimes an animal, or an inanimate object, when the latter is personified: *Glad to see you here, Mary; Oh, Cat, you are as clever as a man ...*

Its singular and plural forms, as well as the objective case forms, coincide: *Are you in, John?; Where are you going, children?* The plural and the singular forms are differentiated only through their co-referents (denoted by *John, children),* as both agree with the verb in the plural.

Historically, the form *you* is the plural form, the singular form being *thou* (the objective case *thee).* It is no longer used nowadays except in poetry and other literary texts, where it produces a particular stylistic effect: *"So", said the messenger, "Then thou are the spokesman."*

The pronouns *he (him), she (her)* usually refer to persons, *he* - to male, *she* - to female. However some other phenomena are often referred to as *he* or *she* in poetry and fiction. Those referred to as *he* are: *sun, wind, fear, love;* those referred to as *she* are: *earth, moon, ship, boat, car, hope, justice, modesty* and some others. Also countries, especially native countries, are referred to as *she:* England, France, Italy, the USA, etc.

I was born in Ireland. *She* is the best country for me.

The nominative case forms are used as **subject** or **predicative;** when used as predicatives both nominative and objective case forms are possible: *At last he lost his way; It was he; It is him.* It keeps true also for comparative constructions: *She did it better than he (him).*

The pronoun *it* can perform functions varying so greatly that three statuses of this word should be differentiated. They are **the personal pronoun it, the impersonal pronoun it,** and **the demonstrative pronoun it.**

The personal pronoun *it* refers to non-persons, that is, to animals, things and abstract notions, as in:

The room was large. Somebody had already cleaned **it.**
We had no mutual understanding, and I wanted **it** *badly.*
The dog was sitting by him. Several times **it** *had turned and looked up at the boy.*

However when speaking of pet animals, especially cats and dogs, it is usual to refer to them as *he* or *she* depending on whether they are male or female, as in:

He *is a very nice dog.* **He** *is my friend.* **He** *knows how I feel.*
It's Pussy. **She** *wants to go out.*

The demonstrative pronoun *it* indicates non-persons or certain situations, mentioned in the previous context:

Some were dancing, some tried to sing. A big man, bottle in hand, lay by the armchair. Clouds or smoke
hung under the ceiling. Suddenly I felt sick of **it** *all.*

Besides its anaphoric use, **it** is also used with **demonstrative force** when preceding the words it points to:

It's *my husband.* **It's** *Mary.* **It** *was a red rose.*

It may also have the force of a purely formal element of the sentence, as the formal subject or object devoid of any lexical meaning. Its function is to point to the real subject or object which comes after the predicate and is expressed either by an infinitive (an infinitive phrase) or by a gerund (a gerundial phrase), or else by a clause.

It was nice to stop here.
It was useless trying to see him.
It was clear to everybody that she was not well.
May I take it that you will keep your word?

When *it* refers to the predicative (or any part in this position) it selves as means of producing emphasis: the word in the predicative position becomes prominent and therefore becomes the information focus of the sentence:

It was he who did it.
Именно он это сделал. (Как раз он это сделал).
It was **there** that we met.
Именно там мы встретились. (Там-то мы и встретились).
It was **to this room** that Soames went.
Именно в эту комнату пошел Соме.*

* See Syntax, § 121.

The impersonal pronoun *it* functions as a purely structural element -the subject of impersonal sentences describing various states of nature and environment, or things, time, measure, or distance, etc., as in: *It was raining; It was cold that day; It's spring already; It's 10 o'clock; It's still sixty miles to the river.*

The pronoun *they (them)* is the plural form of the pronouns *he, she* and the personal *it*. Its syntactic functions are similar to those of the forms in the singular. It may be used as subject *(They had no time)* and as predicative *(It's they who will answer first).* The objective case form can also be used in these cases *(That's them).* The same form is to be found in **comparative constructions, as objects** and **adverbial modifiers:**

Do you know them, boy? (object)
Try to catch up with them. (prepositional object)
In front of them there were seven candles. (adverbial modifier)

In addition to their usual function when they have personal meaning the pronouns *we, you, they* may be used as **indefinite-personal,** indicating people in general or a limited group of people. The difference between them is in their reference: *we* refers to a group of people including the speaker, *you* includes only the listener(s), and *they* excludes both the speaker and the listeners.

As **we know,** geographic limits between dialects are not easy to establish.
You never saw such a commotion up and down the house, in all your life, as when my Uncle Podger
undertook to do a job.
When **you** are tired they give **you** some pills, and in a minute **you** are your own self again.
They say you were in the park with her?
What do **they** teach you there?

§ 217. Possessive pronouns indicate possession by persons *(my, mine, your, yours, their, theirs)* or

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non-persons *(its, their, theirs).* They comprise two sets of forms: **the conjoint forms -** *my, your, his, her, our, their,* which always combine with nouns and premodify them as attributes and the **absolute forms** - *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* which do not combine with nouns, but function as their substitutes. Thus, they may be adjective-pronouns when used as conjoint forms and noun-pronouns when used as absolute forms. There is no absolute form corresponding to the pronoun *it.*

Both conjoint and absolute forms may function with reference to persons and non-persons; pointing back (with anaphorical force) and forward (with anticipatory force).

> *My friends are waiting for me.*
> *I liked this house and its wonderful garden.*
> *Where are the dogs? — Mine is under the table.*
> *The coat isn't mine, it's yours.*
> *Hers was a wonderful room.*

A peculiarity of the English language is that possessive pronouns, not the article, are used with reference to parts of the body, personal belongings, relatives, etc.

> *I raised my eyebrows.*
> *He rose up and put his hands in his small pockets.*
> *Where are you going to spend your leave?*
> *I can't see my way ahead.*

§ 218. Reflexive pronouns indicate identity between the person or non-person they denote and that denoted by the subject of the sentence. They are: *myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves,* structurally derived either from the possessive pronouns *(myself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves),* or from personal pronouns *(himself, herself, itself, themselves);* the pronoun *oneself is* derived from the indefinite pronoun *one.*

Reflexive pronouns derived from possessive and personal pronouns have the categories of person, number, and gender in the 3d person singular only. The generalising reflexive pronoun *oneself* has none of these.

> *Oh, I can do it myself. He felt himself grow hot to the roots of his hair.*

If these are several homogeneous subjects denoting different persons including the 1st, the 1st person plural reflexive is used: *You, mother, and I must now think about ourselves.* If there is no 1st person, the 2nd person plural reflexive is used: *You and mother must now think of yourselves.*

If the subject is the indefinite pronoun *one,* the corresponding reflexive is used: *One must not deceive oneself.* If the subject is expressed by any other indefinite pronoun *himself or themselves* is used: *Has anybody hurt himself?*

The most common functions of the reflexive pronouns are those of an **apposition and objects (direct, indirect, prepositional):**

> *Cedric himself knew nothing whatever about it.* (apposition)
> *I have all kinds of beautiful sentiments myself.* (apposition)
> *I learned to dress myself many years ago.* (direct object)
> *"How well you talk," said the Miller's wife pouring herself a large glass of warm ale.* (indirect object)
> *She talks only about herself.* (prepositional object)

Less common are the functions of the **subject, predicative, attribute, and adverbial modifiers:**

*My wife and **myself** welcome you, sir.* (subject)
*In some minutes she became **herself** again.* (predicative)
*She showed me a large picture of **herself** as a bride.* (attribute)
*My brother was a Robbins like **myself**.* (adverbial modifier of comparison)
*He lived in a tiny cottage all by **himself**.* (adverbial modifier of manner)

§ 219. Reciprocal pronouns indicate a mutual relationship between two or more than two persons, or occasionally non-persons *(each other, one another)* who are at the same time the doer and the object of the same action. Thus *They loved each other* means that the doer A loved the object B and at the same time the doer B loved the object A.

The pronoun *each other* generally implies that only two persons are involved, *one another* usually being preferred when more than two persons are involved.

Both of them are composite words and have only one grammatical category - the category of case *(each other's, one another's)*.

Reciprocal pronouns in their **common case form** function as **objects:**
*Now they hate **each other**. They often quarrelled with **one another**.*

The possessive case forms are used as **attributes:**

*They stood silent, in **each other's** arms.*

§ 220. Demonstrative pronouns point to persons or non-persons or their properties: *this (these), that (those), such.** The first two of them have the category of number. *This (these)* and *that (those)* function both as noun-pronouns and adjective-pronouns; *such* functions only as an adjective-pronoun:

* The demonstrative of *it* was given above. See Personal pronouns.

*   **This** *is my brother Rob.*   (noun-pronouns)
*   **That** *is very kind of you.*
*   **This** *house is too large just for one person.*   (adjective-pronouns)
*   *She is **such** a silly little tiring.*

The general demonstrative meaning of *this (these)* is of relatively *near* reference in time or space, while *that (those)* implies *distant* reference in time or space. Both of them are commonly used anaphorically, pointing to things, persons, or situations denoted in the preceding context, as in the following examples with *this* and *that:*

*He tried the door. **This** did not yield.*
*A tall blonde came forward. **This** was the barman's wife.*
*"I often wondered how you were getting on." – "**That** was very kind of you."*

Sometimes, however, these pronouns may be used with anticipatory force, pointing to something new, or something still to come:

*I know **this** – you're a traitor.*
***This** time I'll win.*
*I've never seen **this** dress of yours.*

When used with words denoting periods of time (a day and its parts, week, month, year, century) the pronoun *this* implies that these periods include the moment of speaking:

*This year he is going abroad. I had no breakfast **this** morning. I haven't seen her **this** week.*

When used with the words *town, country, government* the pronoun *this* implies ones in which the speaker lives or is staying at the moment of speaking. Phrases like *in this town, in this country, this government,* etc., should be translated into Russian by the actual names of the town or country as in the following:

> Englishman: I do like this country - Я очень люблю Англию
> or by a possessive pronoun: Я очень люблю свою (нашу) страну.

The pronoun *that (those)* pointing to something relatively remote in space or time may refer to something already known or past:

> *Do you see **that** red roof over there? **That's** my house.*
> *Oh! **that** was a sad mistake.*

That (those) can be used either as a **noun-substitute** or as a **sentence-substitute.**

> *The perfume of the rose is more subtle that **that** of the lily.*

Syntactically the pronouns *this* and *that* can be **subject, predicative, object,** or **attribute.**

> ***This** was my old dear car again.*
> *His story was like **that.***
> *Do you remember **this?***
> *The woods are so beautiful at **this** time of year.*

When used as attributes both *this* and *that* exclude the use of the article. The pronoun *such* points to a certain quality in things, persons, or situations. It is more often used anaphorically, although can also be used in its anticipatory function.

> *I like **such** little towns as this.*
> *He could not love her. **Such** was everyone's verdict.*
> *You can buy there **such** things as buns, sausage rolls, and plum cakes.*

Such never precedes the definite article, though it often occurs with the indefinite one, which is placed after *such.*

> *I've never seen such a beauty.*

§ 221. Indefinite pronouns indicate persons or non-persons or else their properties in a general way without defining the class of objects they belong to, class or properties they possess. They are: *some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything, one.*

Some and *any* are both noun-pronouns and adjective-pronouns; their compounds in *-body, -one,* or *-thing,* as well as the pronoun *one,* are only noun-pronouns.

Some, any, something, anything have no grammatical categories, *somebody, anybody, someone, anyone,* and *one* have the category of case *(somebody's, anybody's, someone's, anyone's, one's).*

Some and *any* indicate **qualities** or **quantities,** depending on the class and grammatical form of the noun with which they are used as attributes or for which they function as their substitutes. The idea **of quantity** is actualised if they combine with:

a) count nouns in the plural:

*Are there **any** roses in your garden? I have a tot of flowers in my garden, **some** of them are sweet-scented, **some** are not.*

b) nouns of material:
*Give me **some** water, please. Can you see **any** snow on the mountaintop?*

c) abstract nouns:
*She won't give you **any** trouble.*

When used before noun-phrases with cardinal numerals *some* denotes **approximate quantity:** *some ten years ago, some twenty people* (около, приблизительно).

The idea of **quality** is actualised when *some* and *any* combine with count nouns in the singular. In a positive statement *any* acquires the meaning of 'любой'.

*They bought **some** old house in the country,* (какой-то дом)
***Any** horse will do now.* (любая лошадь)

Very often the idea of quality and that of quantity go together: *Some people will do it of their own free will* means *a certain type of persons* and о *certain number of people.*

Some and *any,* indicating both indefinite qualities and quantities, differ in meaning: *some* has **assertive force,** that is presupposes the presence of some quality or quantity. It generally corresponds to the Russian некоторый, какой-то, некоторое количество. *Any* has a **non-assertive force,** that is, does not presuppose the presence of any quality or quantity, and generally corresponds to the Russian какой-нибудь, какой-либо, сколько-нибудь.

The difference in meaning predetermines their use. *Some* is commonly used in ***affirmative*** and ***imperative sentences.***

*There are **some** apples on the table. Give him **some** milk.*

Any is commonly used:

1) In negative sentences (with negatives *not, no, never, neither... nor),* in sentences with **incomplete negatives** *(hardly, little, few, least,* etc.), and with **implied negatives** *(fail, prevent, reluctant, hard, difficult).*

*I don't like **any** of them. She has **never** lasted **any** wine.*
*I **hardly** knew **any** of those present.*
*He **failed** to find **any** of them.*

2) In questions, mostly general:

*Did you see **any** of them? Is there **any** bread there?*

3) In conditional clauses:

*If **any** person learns about it, you will have to leave.*

4) In comparative phrases:

*He did more for me than **any** of you.*

However, *some* not *any,* is used in interrogative sentences when their basic meaning is assertive and the speaker suggests that a certain state of affairs exists, as in:

*Did you see **some** new English books on the shelf?*

(The speaker suggests that there are new English books on the shelf and the addressee had only to look on them).

*When will you have **some** time to show me your presents?*

Some, not *any,* is preferable when making invitations or offers if it presupposes an acceptance:

*Will you have **some** tea? Would you like to see **some** of my pictures?*

The same holds true for negative sentences and conditional clauses with positive orientation.

*She would not find **some** letters she had left on the table.*
*If you bring her **some** flowers, she'll be only too glad.*

On the other hand *any* can be found in affirmative sentences if used with the meaning of *no matter what, no matter who,* as in: *I am so hungry. I'll eat **any** piece of stale bread. **Any** of them will do.* (Я съем любой черствый кусок хлеба, любой из них подойдет).

Syntactically *some* and *any* can be used as subject, object, or attribute.

The compound pronouns of this subclass *(something, somebody, someone, anything, anybody, anyone)* are used only as **noun-pronouns.** Those ending in *-thing* imply non-persons, and those ending in *-body* imply persons. The difference in their communicative value is the same as between *some* and *any.* The pronouns with the element *some-* are used in affirmative and conditional sentences, or in interrogative, negative and conditional sentences if they are assertive:

Something *unexpected always happened to him.*
Что-нибудь неожиданное всегда случалось с ним.
*Let **somebody** bring me a glass of water.*
Пусть кто-нибудь принесет мне стакан воды.
*Did **somebody** called me up?*
Мне кто-то звонил?

The pronouns beginning with *any* are used in negative and interrogative sentences, in conditional clauses, in comparative phrases and in affirmative sentences meaning *no matter what, no matter who.*

*I don't see **anyone** here.*
Я никого здесь не вижу.
*If **anyone** calls, ask them to wait a moment.*
Если кто-нибудь зайдет, попросите подождать минуту.

The pronoun *one* is *indefinite-personal.* It indicates people in general implying inclusion of the speaker, much in the same way as the indefinite-personal *we, you, they* do:

One is used as **subject** and **attribute** (in the genitive case)

One *never knows what may happen.*

Никогда не знаешь, что может случиться.

The use of *one* is rather formal. In everyday speech *we* or *you* is preferable:

You never know what may happen.

§ 222. Negative pronouns as the term implies render the general meaning of the sentence negative.

They are: *no, none, nothing, nobody, no one, neither. No* is used only as an adjective-pronoun, *none, nothing, nobody, no one* as noun-pronouns, *neither* may be used as both adjective-pronoun and noun-pronoun.

Unlike Russian, in sentences with negative pronouns no other negative words can be used:

*Я ему **ничего не** сказал. - 1 told him **nothing.***

Only two negative pronouns have the category of case: *nobody – nobody's, no one - no one's.* The other pronouns of this subclass have no grammatical categories.

No and *none* refer to all nouns denoting both persons and things, *nothing* refers to things, whereas *nobody* and *no one* refer to persons only. *Nobody means to offend you.* The pronoun *neither* refers to two persons or things and therefore correlates only with count nouns. It has a disjunctive force (ни тот, ни другой).

*ced **No** trees could be seen. I will give you **no** trouble.*

No means *not ... a* when premodifying count nouns are in the singular.

*I have no pen. = I have**n't a** pen with me.* (ни одной ручки)

None refers to many people, therefore it agrees with the predicate verb in the plural.

***None** were present at the meeting.*
*I remember **none** of the stories.*
***Nothing** happened. I could see **nothing** there.*
***Nobody** answered.* (Not anybody) *No **one** stirred.* (Not anyone)
***Neither** came back. **Neither** book interested me.*

When **neither** is used as subject, the predicate verb is in the singular:

***Neither** was present.*

Nobody and *no one* cannot be postmodified by an of-phrase. Only *none* can be used in this case.

None of my relatives came to our wedding.

§ 223. Detaching pronouns indicate the detachment of some object from other objects of the same class. There are only two pronouns of this subclass - *other, another.* They are used both as noun-pronouns and as adjective-pronouns.

*One of the girls was pretty, while **the other** was terribly plain.*
*He gulped one cup, then **another.***
*I live on the **other** side.*

Both *other* and *another* have the category of case *(other – other's, another – another's),* but only *other* has the category of number *(other -others).*

The pronoun *other* has dual reference, personal and non-personal, and correlates with all subclasses of nouns in the singular and in the plural:

> **Other** *times have come,* **other** *people are of importance.*

Unlike the majority of pronouns, *other* (both as a noun-pronoun and as an adjective-pronoun) can be preceded by the definite article and other determiners.

> **The other** *tree was half-withered.*
> *Then he gave me* **his other** *hand.*
> **That other** *question quite upset me.*
> *Show me* **some other** *pictures.*
> **His sister's other** *child was only five then.*

In these sentences *other* is used as an attribute. The attributive function can also be performed by the noun-pronoun *other* in the genitive case, as in: **The other's** *mouth twitched* where *other's* stands for some noun from the previous context.

The pronoun *another* also has a dual reference, but it correlates only with count nouns in the singular.

> *Will you have* **another** *cup?*
> *Then* **another** *runner came into view.*

Another has two meanings:

1) a different one -
> *I don't very much like this dress, will you show me* **another.**

2) one more, one in addition to the one or ones mentioned before –
> *She asked me a question, then* **another.**

Detaching pronouns can be used as subject, object, adverbial modifier and attribute.

§ 224. Universal pronouns indicate all objects (persons and non-persons) as one whole or any representative of the group separately. They are: *all, both, each, every, everything, everybody, everyone, either.*

Of these only *everybody* and *everyone* have the category of case *(everybody - everybody's, everyone – everyone's),* others have no grammatical categories.

These pronouns, as can be seen from the definition, differ in their reference.

Some universal pronouns *(all, everybody)* have always **collective** or **all-embracing reference.** They correspond to the Russian *все, весь, целый, всё* as in:

> **All** *were present.*
> **Все** *присутствовали.*
> **All** *night long she sat by the window.*
> **Всю** *ночь напролет она просидела у окна.*
> *I haven't read* **all** *the book.*
> *Я не прочел* **всей** *книги.*
> **Everything** *looks so beautiful in spring.*
> **Все** *так красиво весной.*

*She is **everything** to me.*
*Она для меня **всё**.*

Two pronouns *(both, either)* indicate a group comprising two persons or non-persons treated either as a whole *(both)* or as consisting of individual objects in a group of two *(either* - каждый из двух). In accordance with their reference *both* takes a predicate-verb in the plural and *either* - in the singular. The article is usually placed after *both*.

***Both** have come in time.*	- ***Оба** пришли вовремя.*
***Both** the windows were shut.*	- ***Оба** окна были закрыты.*
***Either** of these will do.*	**- Любой** из них подойдет.

Some pronouns *(every, each, either)* always have **individual reference** (каждый, другой), therefore they agree with the predicate-verb in the singular.

*She searched **every** corner, but found nothing.*
***Each** of them keeps silent.*

Two pronouns *(everybody, everyone)* may have both **collective** and **individual reference.** In the first case it corresponds to the Russian *все,* in the second case to the Russian *каждый.* This or that reference is generally marked not so much by the predicate-verb, as by correlation with personal or possessive pronouns.

***Everybody** did as **he** thought best.*
***Everybody** was eager to give **his** evidence.*
*Tell **everybody** that **they** are to wait a bit.*
***Everybody** lowered **their** eyes.*
*The women stood by the gates and **everyone** told **her** own story.*

§ 225. Interrogative pronouns indicate persons or non-persons or tlieir properties as unknown to the speaker and requiring to be named in the answer. Accordingly they are used to form special (or pronominal) questions.

This subclass of pronouns comprises *who, whose, what, which, whoever, whatever, whichever.* Of these only the pronoun *who* has the category of case — the objective case is *whom.* However there is a strong tendency in colloquial English to use *who* instead of *whom,* especially with prepositions.

***Who** did you get it **from**?*
***Who** have you been **with**?*
***Who** do you mean?*

instead of *Whom did you get it from? (or from whom), Whom have you been with? (or with whom). Whom do you mean?*

Who, whose, whoever have personal reference, *what, whatever* have non-personal reference, and *which* may have both personal and non-personal reference.

The number of the persons implied by *who* can be derived from the context. Accordingly the predicate-verb may be in the singular or in the plural.

*Who **has come**? It's my brother.*
*Who **are to come** today?*

When *who* is used as predicative, the link verb naturally agrees with the subject:

Who is she? Who are you? Who were those people?

The pronouns *what* may be both a noun-pronoun (что?) and an adjective-pronoun (каков? какой?). It has mostly a non-personal reference, as in:

What *has happened?*
What *is his name?*
What *did you say?*
What *are you looking at?*
What *book are you reading?*

When *what* is used as subject it is, unlike *who,* always used with the predicate verb in the singular.

*What **is** there on the table? - Some books and papers.*

However when *what* is used as a predicative the link verb agrees with the subject.

What are their names?

What and *who* can both be used as predicatives in questions concerning persons. In this case they convey different meanings. *Who-questions* inquire about the person's name or parentage, while *what-questions* inquire about person's occupation, profession, rank, etc.

*"**Who** are you?" — "I am your sister's son."*
*"**Who** is he?" – "He is Mr. Smith."*
*"**What** is she?"- "She is a painter".*

Which is both a noun-pronoun and an adjective-pronoun. It may have either *personal* or *non-personal reference.*

Which *of these men is your husband?*
Which *colour do you prefer?*

Which always implies a choice among a certain limited group of persons or things, corresponding to the Russian **который, какой из.** The same meaning may be rendered by *what,* but *what* has always indefinite reference, whereas *which* has definite reference. Thus the following two questions.

Which books would you like to buy?
What books would you like to buy?

differ in meaning, as the first implies that one is to choose from a given number of books and that one knows what kind of books they are. When answering this question one may either specify the books or just point to them saying **"these".** The second sentence implies that one is to choose from an indefinite number of books, from books in general. This sentence corresponds to the Russian Какие (какого жанра и т. п.) книги Вы хотели бы купить? When answering this question, one simply has to specify them.

The pronouns *whoever, whatever, whichever* are noun-pronouns. *Whoever* has personal reference, *whatever* has non-personal reference, *whichever* may have either personal or non-personal one. When used in questions they express indignation or surprise.

Whoever could have done it?
Whichever was it?
Whatever are you trying to do?
Whatever is he talking about?

§ 226. Conjunctive pronouns *(whom, whose, what, which, whoever, whatever, whichever)* are identical with the interrogative pronouns as to their morphological, referential and syntactical characteristics. They refer to persons and non-persons. The difference between the two subclasses lies in that the conjunctive pronouns, along with their syntactical function in the clause, connect subordinate clauses to the main clause. They are used to connect subject, predicative, and some adverbial clauses, or rather to indicate the subordinate status of these clauses, as the sentence may begin with the clause they introduce.

Who did it will repent. *(who opens the subject clause)*
I know **who did it.** *(who opens the object clause)*
They were **what you call model girls.** *(what opens the predicative clause)*
Whatever you may do you can't save the situation. *(whatever opens the adverbial concessive clause)*

Conjunctive pronouns always combine two functions - **notional** and **structural.** They are *notional* words because they function as parts of the sentence within a clause and they are *structural* words because they serve as connectors or markers of the subordinate clause.

The compounds *whoever, whatever,* and *whichever* introduce subject and adverbial clauses and have a concessive meaning:

Whoever told you this may be mistaken.
Whichever you choose, I'll help you.
Whatever may be the consequences, I insist on going on.

§ 227. Relative pronouns refer to persons and non-persons and open **attributive clauses** which modify words denoting these persons or non-persons. They are *who, whose, which, that. Who,* like its homonyms, has the category of case *(who-whom),* the others have no categories.

Relative pronouns, like conjunctive pronouns, have two functions - **notional** and **structural:** they are parts of the sentence and connectors between the main clause and the subordinate attributive clause they are used in. But unlike conjunctive pronouns they are always related (hence their name *relative)* to some noun or pronoun in the main clause. Compare the following sentences:

Who he was is still a mystery(conjunctive pronoun)	That is the man **who** has saved your child (relative pronoun)
I don't know **which** of the books is better.	Here is the book **which** the lecturer recommended.

Conjunctive and relative pronouns do not coincide referentially: the conjunctive pronouns *who* and *whose* have only personal reference; the relative pronoun *who* has personal reference, but *whose* has dual reference (personal and non-personal); the conjunctive pronoun *which* has dual reference, whereas the relative *which* has only non-personal reference.

The man **who** stood at the gate was Jim.
Then the man **whose** face I still could not see began singing.
The village **whose** roofs were seen in the distance was N.
I picked up the letter **which** was on the window sill.

Relative pronouns may function in the subordinate attributive clause as subject, object, attribute, and adverbial modifier (with prepositions).

Types of pronouns	The list of pronouns
Personal pronouns	The common case: I, you, he, she, it, we, they. The objective case: me, you, him, her, it, us, them.
Possessive pronouns	Conjoint forms: my, your, his, her, its, our, their. Absolute forms: mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.
Reflexive pronouns	myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.
Demonstrative pronouns	this, that, these, those, such, same.
Indefinite pronouns	some, something, somebody, someone; any, anything, anybody, anyone.
Negative pronouns	no, nothing, nobody, no one, none, neither.
Universal pronouns	all, each, both, either, every, everything, everybody, everyone.
Detaching pronouns	other, another.
Reciprocal pronouns	each other, one another.
Interrogative pronouns	who, what, which, whose, whoever, whatever, whichever.
Conjunctive pronouns	who, what, which, whose, whoever, whatever, whichever.
Relative pronouns	who, whose, which, that.

THE NUMERAL

§ 228. The numeral denotes an abstract number or the order of thing in succession.

In accordance with this distinction the numerals fall into two groups **cardinal numerals (cardinals)** and **ordinal numerals (ordinals).**

Cardinals	Ordinals
0 nought, zero	
1 one	1st first
2 two	2nd second
3 three	3rd third
4 four	4th fourth
5 five	5th fifth
6 six	6th sixth
7 seven	7th seventh
8 eight	8th eighth
9 nine	9th ninth

10 ten	10th tenth
11 eleven	11th eleventh
12 twelve	12th twelfth
13 thirteen	13th thirteenth
14 fourteen	14th fourteenth
15 fifteen	15th fifteenth
16 sixteen	16th sixteenth
17 seventeen	17th seventeenth
18 eighteen	18th eighteenth
19 nineteen	19th nineteenth
20 twenty	20th twentieth
21 twenty-one, etc.	21st twenty-first, etc.
30 thirty	30th thirtieth
40 forty	40th fortieth
50 fifty	50th fiftieth
60 sixty	60th sixtieth
70 seventy	70th seventieth
80 eighty	80th eightieth
90 ninety	90th ninetieth
100 one (a) hundred	100th (one) hundredth
101 one (a) hundred and one, etc.	101st (one) hundred and first, etc.
1,000 one (a) thousand	1,000th (one) thousandth
1,001 one (a) thousand and one, etc.	1,001st one thousand and first, etc.
100,000 one hundred thousand	100,000th (one) hundred thousandth
1.00.0 one million	1,000,000th (one) millionth
1.000.001 one million and one, etc.	1,000,001st (one) million and first, etc.

Morphological composition

The Cardinals

§ 229. Among **the cardinals** there are **simple, derived,** and **compound** words.

The cardinals from *one* to *twelve, hundred, thousand, million* are simple words; those from *thirteen* to *nineteen* are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix *-teen;* the cardinals denoting *fens* are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix *-ty.*

Note:

Mind the difference in the spelling of the stem in *three* and *thirteen (thirty), four* and *forty, five* and *fifteen (fifty).*

The cardinals from *twenty-one* to *twenty-nine,* from *thirty-one* to *thirty-nine,* etc. and those over *hundred* are compounds.

In cardinals consisting of *tens* and *units* the two words are hyphenated:

  21 - *twenty-one,*   35 - *thirty-five,*   72 - *seventy-two,* etc.

In cardinals including *hundreds* and *thousands* the words denoting *units* and *tens* are joined to those denoting *hundreds, thousands,* by means of the conjunction *and:*

  103 - *one hundred and three,*
  225 - *two hundred and twenty-five,*
  3038 - *three thousand and thirty-eight,*

9651 - *nine thousand six hundred and fifty-one.*

Note:

If not part of a composite numeral the words *hundred, thousand* and *million* in the singular are always used with **the indefinite article;** *a hundred pages, a thousand ways;* in composite numerals both **a** and **one** are possible, but **one** is less common; *a (one) hundred and fifty pages.*

The words for common fractions are also composite. They are formed from cardinals denoting the numerator and substantivized ordinals denoting the denominator. If the numerator is a numeral higher than one, the ordinal in the denominator takes the plural form. The numerator and denominator may be joined by means of a hyphen or without it:

1/3 - *one-third (one third),*
2/7 - *two-sevenths (two sevenths),* etc.

In mixed numbers the numerals denoting fractions are joined to the numerals denoting integers (whole numbers) by means of the conjunction *and:*

3 1/5 - *three and one-fifth,*
20 3/8 - *twenty and three-eighths.*

In decimal fractions the numerals denoting fractions are joined to those denoting whole numbers by means of the words *point* or *decimal:*

0.5 - *zero point (decimal) five,*
2.3 - *two point (decimal) three,*
0,5 - *zero decimal five,*
0,005 - *zero decimal zero zero five.*

The ordinals

§ 230. Among **the ordinals** there are also simple, derivative and compound words.
The simple ordinals are *first, second* and *third.*
The derivative ordinals are derived from the simple and derivative cardinals by means of the suffix **-th:**

four-fourth, ten-tenth, sixteen-sixteenth, twenty-twentieth, etc.

Before the suffix **-th** the final **y** is replaced by **ie:**

thirty - thirtieth, etc.

Mind the difference in the spelling of the stems in the following cardinals and ordinals:

five-fifth, nine-ninth.

The compound ordinals are formed from composite cardinals. In this case only the last component of the compound numeral has the form of the ordinal:

twenty-first, forty-second, sixty-seventh, one hundred and first, etc.

Morphological characteristics

§ 231. Numerals do not undergo any morphological changes, that is, they do not have morphological categories. In this they differ from nouns with numerical meaning. Thus the numerals *ten* (десять), *hundred* (сто), *thousand* (тысяча) **do not have plural forms:**

two hundred and fifty,   four thousand people, etc.,

whereas the corresponding homonymous nouns *ten* (десяток), *hundred* (сотня), *thousand* (тысяча) do:

to count in *tens,   hundreds of people, thousands of birds, etc.*

Patterns of combinability

§ 232. Numerals combine mostly with nouns and function as their attributes, usually as premodifying attributes. If a noun has several premodifying attributes including a cardinal or an ordinal, these come first, as in:

three tiny green leaves, seven iron men, the second pale little boy, etc.

The only exception is pronoun determiners, which always begin a series of attributes:

his second beautiful wife;   *her three little children;*
these four rooms;   *every second day,* etc.

If both a cardinal and an ordinal refer to one head-noun **the ordinal comes first:**

the first three tall girls, the second two grey dogs, etc.

Nouns premodified by ordinals are used with **the definite article:**

The first men in the moon, the third month, etc.

When used with the indefinite article, they lose their numerical meaning and acquire that of a pronoun (another, one more), as in:

a second man entered, then a third
(вошел еще один человек, потом еще).

Postmodifying numerals combine with a limited number of nouns. Postmodifying cardinals are combinable with some nouns denoting items of certain sets of things:
pages, paragraphs, chapters, parts of books, acts and scenes of plays, lessons in textbooks, apartments
and rooms, buses or trams (means of transport), grammatical terms, etc.;
room two hundred and three, page ten, bus four, participle one, etc.

Note:

In such cases the cardinals have a numbering meaning and thus differ semantically from the ordinals

which have an enumerating meaning. Enumeration indicates the order of a thing in a certain succession of things, while numbering indicates a number constantly attached to a thing either in a certain succession or in a certain set of things. Thus, *the first room* (enumeration) is not necessarily *room one* (numbering), etc. Compare:

the first room I looked into was room five,

or

the second page that he read was page twenty-three, etc.

Postmodifying ordinals occur in combinations with certain proper names, mostly those denoting the members of well-known dynasties:

King Henry VIII - King Henry the Eighth,
Peter I - Peter the First, etc.

Mind the position of the article in such phrases. It is always attached to the numeral.
When used as substitutes numerals combine with various verbs:

I saw five of them. They took twenty.

As head-words modified by other words numerals are combinable with:

1) prepositional phrases:
the first of May, one of the men, two of them, etc.

2) pronouns:
every three days, all seven, each fifth, etc.

3) adjectives:
the best three of them, the last two weeks, etc.

4) particles:
just five days ago, only two, only three books, he is nearly sixty, etc.

Note:

The numeral *first* may combine with the particle **very:**
the very first of them.

When they have the function of subject or predicative the numerals are combinable with link verbs, generally the verb **to be:**

ten were present,	*we are seven,*
the first was my father	*she is the second.*

Occasionally they are combinable with some other link verbs:

two seemed enough,	*the third appeared to be wounded.*

Syntactic function

§ 233. Though cardinals and ordinals have mainly similar syntactic functions they differ in certain

details.

The most characteristic function of both is that **of premodifying attribute:**

two rooms, the third person, etc.

In this connection it must be remembered that while the ordinals are used as ordinary attributes, cardinals with the function of an attribute govern the number of the noun they modify:

one page, but *two (three,* etc.) *pages.*

Note 1:

Quite unlike Russian, composite cardinals ending in one (twenty-one, thirty-one, two hundred and one, three hundred and twenty-one, etc.) require **a plural noun:**
twenty-one pages, two hundred and one pages.

Note 2:

In numbering the items of certain sets of things cardinals, not ordinals, are used to modify the nouns denoting these things. The cardinals thus used are always postmodifying. **The nouns modified do not take an article:**
page three, lesson one, room thirty-five, etc.
(In Russian both ordinals and cardinals are possible in this case, though ordinals are preferable. Compare:
пятая страница and *страница пять,*
десятая аудитория and *аудитория десять.)*

Both cardinals and ordinals may have the functions of **subject, object, predicative** and **adverbial modifier of time:**

Three of us went home.
I saw *two of them* in the forest.
They were *seven.*
She got up *at five today.*

However, in all these cases a noun is always implied, that is, the numeral functions as a substitute for the noun either mentioned in the previous context, or self-evident from the situation. The only case in which the numerals (cardinals) can really have the function of subject, object or predicative is when they are used with their purely abstract force:

five is more than three; two plus two is four, etc.

Substantivized numerals

§ 234. Numerals can be substantivized, that is, take formal nominal features: the plural suffix *-s,* an article, and the ability to combine with adjectives and some other modifiers of nouns. When numerals undergo substantivization not only their morphology is changed, but also their meaning. Thus when the numerals *hundred, thousand* and *million* are substantivized they acquire the meaning "a great quantity", as in:

hundreds of books, thousands of people, millions of insects, etc.

Other numerals, both cardinals and ordinals, can also be substantivized.
Cardinals are substantivized when they name:

1) school marks in Russia
   (He got a two. He got three fives)
   or
   school marks in Great Britain
   (He got ten. He got three nines last week).

2) sets of persons and things:
   They came in twos. They followed in fours. Form fours!

3) playing cards:
   the two of hearts, the five of spades, the seven of diamonds, the ten of clubs, three of trumps.

4) boats for a certain number of rowers:
   a four, an eight.

5) decades:
   in the early sixties, in the late fifties, etc.

The meaning of substantivized ordinals is less affected by substantivization and remains the same:

He was *the first* to come.
She was *the fourth* to leave.

THE STATIVE

§ 235. The stative denotes a temporary state of a person or a non-person. Unlike such classes of words as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs the number of statives functioning in English is limited. There are about 30 stable statives, used both in colloquial and in formal style:

ablaze	ahead	askew
adrift	akin	aslant
afire	ajar	asleep
aflame	alight	aslope
afloat	alike	astir
afoot	alive	astray
afraid	aloof	athirst
aghast	alone	awake
aglow	amiss	awry
agog	ashamed	

and about 100 unstable ones, which are seldom used even in formal style and never in colloquial:

ashudder, atwist, atremble, agleam, etc.

Semantically statives fall into five groups describing various states of persons or non-persons:

1. Psychological states of persons:
   afraid, aghast, ashamed, aware, agog.

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2. Physical states of persons:
   alive, awake, asleep.

3. States of motion or activity of persons or non-persons:
   afoot, astir, afloat, adrift.

4. Physical states of non-persons:
   afire, aflame, alight, aglow, ablaze.

5. The posture of non-persons:
   askew, awry, aslant, ajar.

Morphological characteristics

§ 236. From the point of view of their morphological composition the class of statives is homogeneous, that is all of them have a special marker, the prefix **a-:** *asleep, alive, alone, afire,* etc.

Note:

In English there are some words devoid of the marker -**a-,** which are semantically and functionally very similar to statives. These are:
   fond, glad, ill, sorry, well.
Their grammatical status is intermediate between that of stative and adjective.

As regards their structure, statives with the marker **a-** fall into two groups: those that can be divided into morphemes (the prefix **a-** and the stem of a noun, a verb, or an adjective) *a-sleep, a-fire, a-glow,* and those that cannot be devived because the part following **a-** does not correspond to any noun, verb, or adjective stem, as in *a-loof, a-ware, a-fraid.*
   Statives do not change their form to express concord with the word they refer to.

Note:

There are other words besides statives with the prefix **a-:**
   across, along (adv. and prep.), *amidst* (prep.), *anew* (adv.) *arise* (verb), *aloud* (adj.), *amount* (noun), etc.

Syntactic function

§ 237. Statives may have three functions in a sentence: that of **predicative** in a compound nominal or a double predicate (the most common function), that of **objective predicative,** or occasionally that of **attribute.**
   When used in the function of predicative statives describe the state of the person or non-person denoted by the subject and are connected with the subject by means of a link verb or in some cases by a notional verb.
   Statives as predicatives within a compound nominal predicate:

He *was* terribly *afraid* of his father.
The house *was ablaze* with lights.
Soon she *fell* fast *asleep.*
He *seemed afraid* to go any further.

She *felt alert* and *young.*
Why do they *look* so frighteningly *alike*?
The Overlords *remained aloof,* hiding their faces from mankind.

Statives as predicatives within a double predicate:

He *sat* quite *alone* on that large verandah of his.
For a moment she *stood aghast,* looking at the door.
She *was lying* wide *awake* listening to all the sounds of the night.
She *sounded* very *high and afraid.*

When they have the function of **objective predicative,** statives describe the state of the person or non-person denoted by the object:

First of all *have the fire alight* in the drawing room.
The large dog *kept him afloat* until the raft came up.
Don't keep the door ajar.
Leave me alone, you fool.
I'll *get him awake* in a minute.

Although the **function of attribute** is not characteristic of statives, some of them may have this function (either detached or undetached attributes).
Statives as undetached attributes are always postmodifying:

No man *alive* could have done it.
No one *aware* of the consequences of his deed would have defied the fate.

When used as detached attributes, statives may be either post- or premodifying:

The microphone, *already alive,* was waiting for him.
He stood, *alert and listening,* while the noise from the reef grew steadily around him.
Aloof on her mountain-top, she considered the innumerable activities of men.

In all these cases the stative retains its predicational force.

THE ADVERB

§ 238. The adverb is a word denoting circumstances or characteristics which attend or modify an action, state, or quality. It may also intensify a quality or characteristics.
From this definition it is difficult to define adverbs as a class, because they comprise a most heterogeneous group of words, and there is considerable overlap between the class and other word classes. They have many kinds of form, meaning and function. Alongside such undoubtful adverbs as *here, now, often, seldom, always,* there are many others which also function as words of other classes. Thus, adverbs like *dead* (dead tired), *clear* (to get clear away), *clean* (I've clean forgotten), *slow, easy* (he would say that slow and easy) coincide with corresponding adjectives *(a dead body, clear waters, clean hands).* Adverbs like *past, above* are homonymous with prepositions. There is also a special group of pronominal adverbs *when, where, how, why* used either as interrogative words or as connectives to introduce subordinate clauses.

Where shall we go? (an interrogative pronominal adverb)
We'll go *where* you want (a conjunctive pronominal adverb).

Some adverbs may be used rather like a verb, as in "Up. Jenkins! Down, Peter!", where the first word is like an imperative.

In many cases the border-line between adverbs and words of the other classes is defined syntactically.

He walked *past.* (adverb)
He walked *past* the house. (preposition)
They took the dog *in.* (adverb)
They left the dog *in* the house, (preposition)
He did everything slowly but *surely.* (adverb)
Surely you know him. (modal word)

There are three adverbs connected with numerals: *once, twice,* and *thrice* (the latter being archaic). They denote measure or frequency.

She went there *once* a week.
I saw him *twice* last month.

Twice is also used in the structure *twice as long,* etc.

He is *twice as tall* as his brother.
She is *twice as clever.*

Beginning with *three* the idea of frequency or repetition is expressed by the phrases *three times, four times;* He went there *four times;* he is *four times* as bigger; she is *ten times* cleverer.

Morphological composition

§ 239. Adverbs vary in their structure. There are simple, derived, compound, and composite adverbs.
Simple adverbs are *after, here, well, now, soon,* etc.
In **derived adverbs** the most common suffix is **-ly,** by means of which new adverbs are coined from adjectives and participles: *occasionally, lately, immediately, constantly, purely, slowly, charmingly.*

The less common snffixes are the following:

-wise	clock*wise,* crab*wise,* corkscrew *-wise,* education- *wise*
-ward(s)	on*ward(s),* back*ward(s),* home*ward(s),* east*ward(s)*
-fold	two*fold,* mani*fold*
-like	war*like*
-most	inner*most,* outer*most*
-way(s)	long*ways*, side*ways*

Of these suffixes the first two are more ptoductive than the rest.
Compound adverbs are formed of two stems:

sometimes, somewhere, everywhere, downstairs, etc.

Composite phrasal adverbs consist of two or more word-forms, as

a great deal, a little bit, far enough, now and then, from time to time, sort of, kind of, a hell of, a lot of, a
great deal of.

Morphological characteristics

§ 240. The only pattern of morphological change for adverbs is the same as for adjectives, the degrees of comparison. The three grades are called **positive, comparative,** and **superlative** degrees.

Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take inflections following the same spelling and phonetic rules as for adjectives:

early	- earlier	- earliest
late	- later	- latest
hard	- harder	- hardest
slow	- slower	- slowest

Several adverbs ending in **-ly** *(quickly, loudly)* form comparatives according to the same pattern, dropping their adverb-forming suffix. These adverbs acquired the form in **-ly** only recently and retained the older forms of the comparative and superlative:

quickly	- quicker	- quickest
loudly	- louder	- loudest

However most disyllabic adverbs in **-ly** and all polysyllabic ones form the comparative and superlative analytically, by means of **more** and **most:**

wisely	*- more wisely*	*- most wisely*
softly	*- more softly*	*- most softly*
deeply	*- more deeply*	*- most deeply*

The adverb *often* occurs with both types of comparison:

often {
oftener
more often

As with adjectives, there is a small group of adverbs with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems **(suppletive forms).** These comparatives and superlatives are identical with those for the corresponding adjectives and can be differentiated from the latter only syntactically.

well	- better	- best
badly	- worse	- worst
little	- less	- least
much	- more	- most
far	further	- furthest
	farther	- farthest

Which do you like **best***?*
This is **least** painful for you.

Either *farther* (farthest) or *further* (furthest) are used when speaking of places, directions, or distance:

He is too tired to walk any *farther (further).*

But only *further* (furthest) is used with the meaning *more, later:*

Don't try my patience any *further.*

Most of the adverbs, however, stand outside the degrees of comparison:

pronominal adverbs denoting place and time
(here, somewhere, there, sometimes, when),

denoting manner
(somehow, thus), and

adverbs of manner denoting gradation
(minimally, optimally, proximally - ближе к центру).

Semantic characteristics

§ 241. According to their meaning adverbs fall into many groups. Here are the main ones:

Adverbs of place: *outside, there, in front,* etc.

Adverbs of time include those denoting duration *(long, continually),* interval *(all day),* timing *(yesterday, today, recently, lately, immediately, once, at once, now),* frequency *(often, now and then, occasionally).* Several of them denote an indefinite time - *soon, yet, always, already, never, ever.*

Adverbs of manner: *well, carefully, intentionally, silently, clearly,* etc.

Adverbs of degree: *thoroughly, very, much, completely, quite, rather, a lot, a little, a great deal, badly, greatly, hardly, barely, scarcely, narrowly, just, almost, mostly, enormously, largely, tremendously, keenly, somewhat, too, so, most, all but.*

Among these some are synonymous *(much, very),* but their combinability is different. Thus *much* is used to modify verbs, nouns, statives and adjectives, and *very* is used with adjectives and adverbs in the positive and superlative degrees, whereas with comparatives only *much* is used:

to travel much	very nice
to be much improved	very glad
much better	very slow
much slower	very quickly
very much in love	
very much alive	
very much alike	
very much afraid	

With participles, however, both *much* and *very* may be used, often they go together:

much admired, *very* surprised, *very much* amused.

Among adverbs of degree there are many the meaning of which has become weakened and which are used as intensifiers, adding emotional colouring to the content of what is said. This group of adverbs is very difficult to define because adverbs of other semantic groups can occasionally function as intensifiers:

awfully *painful,*   **terribly** *unjust,*   **extremely** *beautiful,*

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very *quiet,*	**faintly** *uneasy,*	**too** *frightful,*
rather *calm,*	**really** *pretty,*	**so** *nice,*
most *expensive,*	**positively** *wonderful,*	etc.

Syntactic functions and patterns of combinability

§ 242. Adverbs may perform different functions, modifying different types of words, phrases, sentences. Some adverbs are restricted in their combinability whereas others may modify different words, for instance *enough,* which may be used in *to work enough, not quickly enough, quick enough.* The most typical function of the adverb is that of adverbial modifier.

The combinability and functions of the adverbs are as follows:

1. Adverbs may function as **adverbial modifiers** of manner, place, time, degree to a finite or non-finite form of the verb:
   *He spoke **aloud; I quite** forgot about it; he spoke **well.***

Some adverbs of time though synonymous, are used in different syntactical patterns. Thus, *already* is used in affirmative sentences, and *yet* - in interrogative and negative sentences:

   They have *already* finished.
   They haven't finished *yet.*
   Have they finished *yet?*

However, *already* may occur in interrogative and negative sentences when there is an element of surprise or the question is suggestive, that is the speaker expects an affirmative answer.

   Have they finished *already?* (The speaker is surprised at their having already finished.)

In the same way *still,* meaning "continuously, up to this moment", is used in affirmative sentences and *any more* in negative sentences. If *any more* is used in a question, it implies that the speaker expects a negative answer.

   He *still* works at the library.
   He does not work there *any more.*
   Does he take music lessons *any more?* - No, he doesn't.

2. Adverbs may function as **adverbial modifiers to an adjective or another adverb.** Usually the modifying adverb is an intensifier:
   very, rather, awfully, so, terribly, extremely, most, utterly, unusually, delightfully, unbelievably, amazingly, strikingly, highly, that, etc.

The same applies to composite adverbs, such as
   kind of, sort of, a good bit of, a lot of, a hell of, a great deal of, etc.

She is **terribly** *awkward;* they are **very** *happy;* Meg is *clever **enough;*** you speak *so slowly;* they settled in a **rather** *quiet street;* the boy is **unbelievably** *fat;* she was **strikingly** *handsome;* we did it **sort** *of proudly;* **quite** *definitely,* **too** *much,* **right** *there,* **a great deal** *too much.*
   Some adverbs - *still, yet, far, much, any* combine with comparative adjectives: *much worse, not any better, still greater,* etc.

He could not speak **any** plainer.
You could do it **far** more neatly.
She is **much** wittier than her friend.

Comparative adverbs are used in **clauses of proportional agreement,** that is, parallel clauses in which qualities or actions denoted in them increase or decrease at an equal rate. (See Syntax § 177)

The longer I think about it *the less* I understand your reasons.

To express the idea that a quality or action decreases or increases at an even rate the comparative may be repeated, the two identical forms being connected by *and:*

He ran *faster and faster.*

3. There are some adverbs which may modify nouns or words of nominal character, functioning as **attribute,** as in:

the way ahead, the trip abroad, the journey home, his return home, the sentence above (below), my friend
here, the house opposite, the day before, etc.

A few adverbs can premodify nouns without losing their adverbial character:

the then president, in after years, the above sentence, the now generation.

Their combinability with prepositional phrases can be illustrated by the following:

right up to the ceiling.

Positional characteristics

§ 243. As adverbs modify words of different classes, they accordingly occupy different positions in the sentence. In comparison with other words, adverbs may be considered as the most movable words. However, adverbs are not identical in their ability to be moved to another position in the structure. Thus, **adverbs of manner** and **degree** are very closely attached to the word they modify and cannot be moved away from it. *He sings well* – is the only possible arrangement of the three words, unless the change of position is caused by inversion and a general shift of the communicative focus: *Only well does he sing* (он поет только хорошо). If such an adverb is put in other positions this may result in a change of meaning in which case it is no longer an adverb (it has already been mentioned that adverbs are often defined by position rather than form): *well, he sings when nobody is in.*
If the predicate is an analytical form **adverbs of frequency** and **indefinite time** are usually placed between its parts:

Have you *ever* seen him?
You are *always* laughing at me.

Adverbs of degree usually premodify adjectives or verbs:

awfully painful, terribly unjust, really pretty, so nice, to thoroughly understand, etc.

The most mobile are **adverbs of time** and **place,** which can occupy several positions without any

change in their meaning, as in:

Usually he sings well.
He *usually* sings well.
He sings well *usually.*

The initial position of the **adverb of manner** always makes it emphatic.

Proudly he showed his diploma to his parents.
Carefully he signed his name.

In these sentences, despite the detachment of the adverbial modifier, its connection with the verb is evident *(showed proudly, signed carefully).*

> **Note:**
>
> Care should be taken not to confuse adverbs of manner and modal words, which may have the same word-form and occur in the same position. The only guide in these cases is punctuation and the relation between the words:
> *Naturally* I wanted him to answer - modal word.
> I wanted him to answer *naturally* - adverb.
> They wanted to live *naturally*   - adverb.
> They wanted to live, *naturally*   - modal word.

MODAL WORDS

§ 244. **Modal words** express the speaker''s attitude to what his utterance denotes. The speaker's judgement may be of different kinds, that is, the speaker may express various modal meanings.

Modal words are an invariable part of speech. They may refer to a word, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. Their syntactical function is that of a parenthesis, they may also be a sentence in themselves, in which case they are used to answer a general question:

Will you help me? *Certainly.*
Precisely this.
Except this man, *of course.*

Semantically modal words fall into three groups, denoting:

1. **Certainty/doubt** *(certainly, of course, indeed, surely, decidedly, really, definitely, naturally, no doubt,*
   etc.).
   Certainly, it was astonishing that she should be preoccupied with her schemes for the welfare of Constance.
   Of course, it would have been different if they had married.
   In answers the meaning of these words is weakened.

2. **Supposition** *(perhaps, maybe, probably, obviously, possibly, evidently, apparently,* etc.).

   Manson's nature was extraordinarily intense. *Probably* he derived this from his mother.
   You have come quickly to a resolution. But *perhaps* you have been considering this question for a long
   time?

Obviously you didn't read it.

3. **Estimate proper (good/bad)** – (*luckily, fortunately, happily, unfortunately, unluckily,* etc.).

Fortunately there were few people at the morning surgery.
Unhappily a terrible storm broke out before the travellers had reached their destination.

THE PREPOSITION

§ 245. A preposition is a function word indicating a relation between two notional words. Its semantic significance becomes evident when different prepositions are used with one and the same word, as in:

to go **to** the park, to go **across** the park, to go **round** the park, to go **out of** the park, to go **through** the
park, etc.

A preposition may altogether change the meaning of the verb:

he shot the officer (he aimed at him and hit him),
he shot at the officer (he aimed at him but probably missed).

Although the tradition of differentiating prepositions from other word classes (conjunctions, and in some cases adverbs) is well established, it is not always easy to draw the border-line; nearly all one-word prepositions can also function as adverbs or as conjunctions, their status being determined only syntactically. A few words - *after, before, since, for* (with the change of meaning), *behind* - may function not only as adverbs, adverbial postpositions, or conjunctions, but also as prepositions. Compare the following groups of sentences:

They sailed *up* (postposition).
They sailed *up* the river (preposition).
Everybody was *up* at the sound of the bell (adverb).
The milk boiled *over* (postposition).
He presided *over* the meeting (preposition).
I can't tolerate such men *as* him (preposition).
As he was passing the door he turned back (conjunction).
No one saw him *but* me (preposition).
But no one saw him (conjunction).
He is stronger *than* me (preposition).
He is stronger *than* I am (conjunction).

Morphological composition

§ 246. Most of the common English prepositions are **simple** in structure:
out, in, for, on, about, but (в значении *кроме, исключая), against.*

Derived prepositions are formed from other words, mainly participles:
excepting, concerning, considering, following, including, during, depending, granted, past, except.

There are also many **compound** prepositions:
within, outside, upon, onto, throughout, alongside, wherewith, whereof, whereupon, herein, hereafter, withall.

Composite or **phrasal** prepositions include a word of another class and one or two prepositions, as in *by virtue of, but for, because of, by means of, instead of, in lieu of, prior to, on account of, abreast of, thanks to, with reference to, opposite to, in front of, for the sake of, in view of, in spite of, in preference to, in unison with, for the sake of, except for, due to, in addition to, with regard to, on behalf of, in line with, at variance with.*

A composite preposition is indivisible both syntactically and semantically, that is, no element of it can be varied, abbreviated, or extended according to the normal rules of syntax. Thus in the composite preposition *for the sake of* neither the definite article nor the preposition can be replaced by words of similar meaning.

Semantic characteristics

§ 247. Semantically prepositions form a varied group of words. Most of them are polysemantic *(in, to, for, at, from),* their original meaning having become vague, others have retained their full meaning and are accordingly monosemantic *(down, over, across, off, till, until, save, near, along, among, despite, during,* etc.). This also applies to prepositions borrowed from Latin: *versus, via, plus, minus.*

Relations expressed by prepositions may be of various types:

1) agentive - *the letter was sent **by** a friend of mine;*

2) attributive - a *drawing **in** crayon, the people **in** question* (люди, о которых идет речь);

3) possessive and partial relations - *one of my friends, the roof of the house, a glass **of** brandy, a decline **in***
  *waste, a rise **in** production;*

4) relation indicating origin, material, or source - *a **girl from** Brighton, made of gold:*

5) objective relation – *don't be angry **with** me, I'II look **into** the matter, to work **at** a book, to speak **on** the*
  *matter (**about** the matter, **of** the matter);*

6) relation indicating to whom the action is directed - *to show it **to** him, to give lessons to the children;*

7) instrumental relation - *to write **with** a pencil, to cut **with** a knife;*

8) relation of subordination - *to be secretary **to** a Minister;*

9) relation defining the sphere or field of activity - *the country depends **on** exports **for** its food; Tom is good*
  at football;

10) relation of involvement or association - *to cooperate **with** somebody; coffee with cream, to compare this*
  ***with** that, to get involved **in** a discussion;*

11) respective relation - *he is big **for** a youngster, I did not know I had a blackguard **for** a son;*

12) relation of resemblance - *he is **like** his father;*

13) relation of dissociation and differentiation - *to disburden oneself **of** one's past; to be devoid **of** something, to disentangle oneself **from** something; to know something **from** something, to deduce* **from**
something;

14) various adverbial relations:

a) of manner, means, style and language - **with** *diligence,* **by** *telegram,* **in** *slang,* **in** *bad print,* **in** *a neat*
hand.
in good style, **in** *brief;*

b) of purpose or aim - *to send **for** the doctor, he did it **for** fun, the police were **after** the criminal;*

c) temporal relations. These may be subdivided into those denoting precedence, sequence, duration, etc. -
in *good time,* **at** *5 o'clock, before the dawn;*

d) of cause or reason - *I did it **out** of fear, **through** his negligence, I despise you **for** this;*

e) spacial relation, including directional relation - **past** *the gate,* **by** *the window,* **across** *the river,* **at** *the*
gate;

f) concessive relation - **in spite** *of the bad weather,* **despite our** *protests,* **for** *all his attempts,* **with** *all her*
diligence.

The relations enumerated above to a great degree depend on the meaning of the words connected by prepositions. Sometimes the relation indicated by a preposition is too abstract to be defined in words, as its use is often figurative or metaphorical, as in:

*He broke away **from** them **on** some vague pretext.*

The role of the preposition is difficult to define when it introduces predicatives, when its meaning is

'in the capasity of', 'in the role of', 'having the quality of'.

As a friend he was admirable, but one cannot praise him as a husband.

His career **as** a lawyer was short.
We regard him **as** a fool.
She went to the ball with her aunt **as** chaperone.

When a preposition is used figuratively, the concept expressed by the preposition may be so blurred or weak that one preposition may be replaced by another without any essential alteration to the relation between the words. Thus the following words may be used with different prepositions without change of meaning:

aversion *from, to*
disgust *against, at, towards*

repugnance *against, for, to*
along, down, over the centuries

Words of the same root can be used with different prepositions:

to pride oneself **on**, to be proud **of,** pride **in;**
to confide **in,** confidence **in,** to be confident **of.**

Combinability of prepositions

§ 248. As a rule a preposition governs a noun. However it may also be followed by a pronoun, a gerundial phrase or a clause with nominal function, as in:

*for advantage, **at** five o'clock, **at** taking measures, he was surprised **at** what he saw.*

As prepositions indicate only the relationship between two words their position is clearly defined.

Many prepositions tend to form a phrase called a **prepositional phrase,** often combining either with the preceding verb or adjective, or with the following noun. Such prepositions cannot be replaced by others.

Phrases comprising verbs with prepositions *to laugh at, to call for, to refer to, to look for (at, after)* very often function as idioms, making one whole, so that the verb retains the preposition even if its complement is transferred, as in the passive construction:

*quick action was called **for,** the book is often referred **to.***

With some polysemantic verbs the preposition often indicates its meaning, as in:

to look **for**   - искать
to look **at**   - смотреть (на)
to look **after**   - присматривать (за)
to look **through**   - просматривать

Some verbs are used with or without a preposition, with but slight difference as to content. Thus no preposition is used in *the boy climbed the tree,* but it is found in *he climbed **up** the tree.*

Similarly a preposition is often so closely connected with the adjective or stative it follows, that it has practically no separate meaning, and may be said to be nothing but a formal means of connecting the word with its complement:

*She was afraid **of** the dog; The country is rich **in** minerals.*

Prepositions with nouns or clauses may modify a preceding noun, as in:

*men **at** work, method **of** teaching, the novel **about** which we've been speaking.*

Positional characteristics

§ 249. Normally a preposition stands between two words to express the relation between them. However, there are cases when one of the two words with which the preposition combines either takes the initial position or is not used at all. In these cases the preposition is attached to the remaining word. It occurs in:

1) special questions, both direct and indirect:
What are you driving **at?**
Who shall I send it **to?**
What train shall I go **by?**
I asked him who the flowers were **for.**

However, the preposition may precede the interrogative or relative words. In this case the sentence sounds more formal.

To whom shall I send this?
By what train shall I go?
He did not know **to** whom he should turn for help.

The preposition precedes the interrogative when the preposition forms a stock phrase with a noun.

In what respect was he suspicious?
To what extent is this true?

In abbreviated sentences and clauses consisting only of a preposition and an interrogative word the preposition normally precedes it.

- But **to** whom?

In colloquial style the preposition is at the end.

- Who **by**?
- "Apologize?" she said. "What **about?**"

2) some clauses beginning with conjunctive and relative pronouns and in subordinate contact clauses:

What I am thinking **of** is how he got there.
The man I told you **about** is my relative.
The girl he is in love **with** studies at the University.
It is his talents he relies **on.**

In formal style however, the preposition precedes the connective:

The man **about** whom I told you is a relative of mine.

3) exclamatory sentences:

What a nice place to live **in!**

4) passive constructions:

The doctor was immediately sent **for.**
How strange it is to be talked **to** in this way.

5) some syntactical patterns with the infinitive or gerund:

He is difficult to deal **with.**

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It is not worth worrying **abont.**
This is not a suitable house to live **in.**

Note:

If two or more prepositions refer to one word, the second (third) preposition may be used absolutely:

Holly thought of the lashes **above** and **below** Val's eyes, especially **below.**
His wife was attached **to,** and dependent **on,** him.

THE CONJUNCTION

A conjunction is a function word indicating the connection between two notional words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

Morphological composition

§ 250. According to their morphological structure conjunctions fall into the following types:

1. Simple conjunctions:
  and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when.

2. Derived conjunctions;
  until, unless, seeing, supposing, provided.

3. Compound conjunctions:
  whereas, wherever.

4. Composite conjunctions:
  as well as, in case, for fear, on condition that, on the ground that, as long as, etc.

Several conjunctions form correlative pairs, though strictly speaking the first element is not a conjunction:

both ... and, either ... or, neither ... nor, not only ... but (also), whether ...or.

Semantic characteristics

§ 251. Unlike prepositions, most conjunctions usually retain their specific meaning,

No one was pleased *when* he came.
No one would be pleased *if* he came.
No one was pleased *because* he came.
No one was pleased *though* he came.

Exceptions are those conjunctions which may be used in more than one function *(that, if, whether, as).* Of these the conjunction *that* possesses the most vague semantic content.

According to their meaning (or rather the semantic relation they express) all conjunctions fall into two types: **coordinating** conjunctions and **subordinating** conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions express **copulative, disjunctive, adversative** and **causative-consecutive connections.** These four main types of coordinative connection allow of different shades of meaning,*

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depending on the context. Thus **copulative conjunctions** *(and, nor, as well as, both ... and)* denote not only simple addition, but sometimes express opposition, explanation, consequence. *Nor* expresses copulative connection and negative meaning at the same time, it very often correlates with negation in the preceding clause.

* See also the paragraph on conjuncts which are more specialized connectors, expressing a more specific connection.

He *didn't doubt* it for a moment, *nor* had he any fears about the possible turn of the events.

Note 1:

The coordinating conjunction *and* may be used in a somewhat different function if it joins the same nouns;
the effect may be to suggest that different types of persons or objects should be distinguished:
There are *teachers and teachers.* (There are good and bad teachers.)

If the noun is repeated more than once, the effect is to suggest a large number:
There were *faces and faces and faces* all around him.

The repetition of verbs produces an effect of continuous action or of increase in degree:
He *talked and talked and talked.*

Note 2:

If the pronouns *you* and *I*, or their case forms are joined by the conjunction *and,* conventions of politeness require that *you* should always come first:
you and I; you or me; you and they; you and them.

The **disjunctive conjunctions** *or, otherwise* denote a choice between two alternatives.

I'll call on you on Saturday *or* on Sunday.
Did it matter where he went, what he did, *or* when he did it?

The **adversative conjunctions** *but, not that* denote contrast or contradiction.

He was tall *but* did not look it because of his broad shoulders.
They were silent, *but* there was no resentment on their faces.

There is only one **causal conjunction** *for,* which denotes reason or cause, and one **resultative conjunction** *so.*

He was never in the know of things, *for* nobody told him anything.
It was Saturday, *so* they were back from school early.

Combinability of conjunctions and their functions

§ 252. C o o r d i n a t i n g conjunctions connect homogeneous parts of a simple sentence (words, phrases), clauses of equal rank in a composite sentence or independent sentences. Some of them can only join coordinated clauses *(so, for),* others only homogeneous parts of simple sentences *(both ... and),* others are used to join both clauses and homogeneous parts of the sentence *(and, but, or, either ... or, nor, not only ... but also,* etc.).
Coordinating conjunctions always stand between the elements they join. The most common

coordinating conjunction is *and:*

Slowly *and* painfully he worked through the first volume.
He spoke for the first motion *and* against the second motion.
She moved quickly *and* with grace.
I approached the girl who stood in the corner *and* who looked so shy.

S u b o r d i n a t i n g conjunctions join subordinate clauses to main clauses, although some of them may join a word or a phrase within a simple sentence. They are positionally less fixed than coordinating conjunctions and need not necessarily be between the elements they join, but may precede both the subordinate and the main clauses.

Conjunctions which usually join subject, predicative, object attributive and appositive clauses *(that, whether, if)* are very vague in their meaning and may therefore be used to join clauses of different syntactic value. Other conjunctions retain their lexical meaning.

That the man didn't call the police surprised nobody.
Somehow I felt *that* his feelings had changed.

Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses are conjunctions of **place:**
where, wherever, whence, wherein.

Wherever he turned, he saw flowers.

time:
as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, since, till, until, after, before, while, the moment, the time, the instant, directly, instantly, etc.

When I leave town I never tell my people about it.
What happened *after* I left you?
I wouldn't worry *as long as* I am not bothered.
She was feeling very cheerful *as* they walked from the station.

reason or cause:
as, because, since, seeing, so ... that, lest, considering.

His work was of vital importance to him, *since* all his life was devoted to it.
One day, *because* the days were so short, he decided to give up algebra and geometry.
As she had never heard of such stories, she was puzzled at first.

condition:
if, unless, in case, provided, supposing (that), suppose (that), on condition (that).

If you tell this to anybody I'll never forgive you.
Tom simply could not work *unless* all the conditions were to his liking.
Vagabonds may get a bed there for a week, *provided* their papers are in order.

purpose:
lest, that, in order that, so that, for fear that, so as, so.

They made me hide *so that* the soldier should not see me.
He wanted to be great in the world's eyes *in order* that the woman he loved should be proud of him.

He rose gently to his feet *lest* he should disturb her.

consequence:
that, so that.

The box was so heavy *that* I could not lift it.

manner and comparison:
as, the way, as ... as, not so ... as, than, as if, as though.

And do you know why she carries herself *the way* she does?
As quickly *as* he could he set forth.
He told him this *as though* his discovery was his own fault.

concession:

though, although, as, that, even if, whether ... or.

Though they were so poor, Christine and Andrew knew happiness.

Most subordinating conjunctions introduce more than one kind of clause. For instance *that* may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, appositive clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and consequence. The conjunction *if* may introduce subject, object, predicative, appositive, and conditional clauses. The conjunction *whether* can introduce subject, predicative, object and appositive clauses and can also express a disjunctive coordinating connection when used with *or.* The conjunction *as* may introduce adverbial clauses of time, cause, concession and comparison. The conjunctions *as though, as if* may introduce predicative and adverbial clauses of comparison.

The subordinating conjunction *that* is very often omitted:

He said *that* John would come soon.
He said John would come soon.
He said *that* John would come soon and *that* he would take them by car.
He said *that* John would come soon and he would take them by car.

Of all subordinating conjunctions only *if, though, while* and *when* may be used to link single words and phrases:

a pleasant if talkative child; a cosy, though somewhat dark room; a simple, though profound idea; he did it willingly, if sceptically; she moved quickly, though awkwardly; when at home, he never spoke about business.

Two conjunctions may be used alongside each other in two cases:

1) if each of them introduces a separate clause, and one of the clauses is inserted into the other:

She knew *that unless* her calculations were all at fault he was not going to go.

2) if both conjunctions are combined to express a complex relation.

The butler took his time far more casually, far more naturally, *than if* Dicky had offered to shake hands

with him.

His father was a vigorous out-of-door man, who was never happier *than when* he had a gun or a rod in his

hands.

THE CONJUNCTS

§ 253. Alongside conjunctions there is a numerous group of **conjuncts.** They are words or phrases which like conjunctions are used to link clauses, sentences and sometimes single words. Conjuncts are mainly derived from adverbs:

further, moreover, again, besides, however, now, next, then, yet, still, though*, nevertheless, notwithstanding, otherwise, else, therefore, thus, accordingly.

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* *Though* as conjunct differs from the conjunction *though:* it in characterized by its non-fixed position and by its combinability with other conjunctions *(but though).*

Three of them originated from particles: *also, too, only;* others are phrases: *on the contrary, at the same time, for all that,* etc. Many of conjuncts, unlike conjunctions, are less fixed as to their position and often occur in the middle of the sentence as a parenthesis.

Conjuncts express more specific relations than conjunctions. Those expressing a **copulative connection** may be divided into several subgroups.

1. **Enumerative:**

   first, second, etc., *firstly, secondly,* etc., *next, then, last, lastly, finally, in the first place, in the second*
   place, etc.

   First he bought a reading lamp, *then* pens and books.

2. **Additive.** Most of these suggest a reinforcement of what has already been said before:

   again, also, further, furthermore, more, moreover, above all, etc.

   Her husband was told that he was too old to work. *More,* he was discharged with no pension.

3. **Equative,** suggesting similarity in characterization or content:

   equally, likewise, too, also, similarly, in the same way.

   The boy was forbidden to go out. Younger children *likewise* stayed at home.

4. **Summative:**

   then, thus, all in all, to sum up, then, etc.

5. **Explanatory:**

   namely, in other words, for example (e.g.), for instance, that is (i.e.), viz., to wit, say.

6. **Reformulatory:**

rather, better, in other words.

7. **Transitional,** denoting temporal transition or indicating a continuation of the narration:

meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, now, by the way, by the by.

There is such a comic dignity about cats... *Now* there is nothing haughty about a dog.

Conjuncts do not express disjunctive connection.
Adversative conjuncts may be divided into the following subgroups:

1. Concessive:

however, nevertheless, nonetheless, notwithstanding, only, still, though, yet, in any case, at any rate, for
all that, at the same time, all the same.

Her voice still gave charm to her most commonplace remarks, *yet* it was different from the voice he remembered.
Such an answer would have satisfied any one; it had no effect at all, *though,* on this shameless creature.
He was received with respect. *Nevertheless* he felt awkward.

2. **Antithetic:**

instead, oppositely, on the contrary, on the one hand... on the other hand, etc.

He could ask anyone about the house, *instead* he sulkily went from one house to the other.

3. **Inferential:**

else, otherwise, in that case, etc.

The man evidently suspected something, *else* he wouldn't have asked me all these questions.

Consecutive conjuncts are not divided into subgroups. They form one indivisible group:
accordingly, consequently, hence, therefore, then, thus, as a result.

She liked to be alone, *hence* she hated Sundays when everybody was at home.

Conjuncts often combine with conjunctions:
and so, but then, but though, or else, or again, and besides, and still, and yet, but still, but yet, and nevertheless, but nevertheless, because otherwise, etc.

THE PARTICLE

§ 254. The particle is a part of speech the meaning of which is difficult to define. It either emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word, or phrase, or clause. Particles are invariable and have no syntactical function in the sentence. They form a whole with the part of the sentence (a word or a phrase) they refer to.

Particles may combine with any part of speech.

Don't worry – that's *just* Aunt Fanny practising her balancing act.
- John is very proud of his daughter. - I should *just* think so.
Isn't that *just* beautiful?
She lives *just* round the corner.
I said *just* what I thought.
Just as we thought the sun would sink, it grew still redder.

Particles generally stand before the word they refer to but they may also follow it. *This book is for advanced students* ***only.***
According to their meaning particles fall into six groups.

1. **Intensifying particles:**

just, even, yet, still, all, simply.

They emphasize the meaning of the word (or phrase, or clause) they refer to or give special prominence to the notion expressed by it.

The skirt comes ***just*** *below my knees.*
They ***even*** *offered* him higher wages.
Maggie felt ***all*** *the safer* for that.
These days we're working with *still greater efficiency.*
We had ***yet*** *another discussion.*

The particles *all, still, yet,* mostly intensify the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs.

Play ***yet*** *more softly.*

2. **Limiting particles:**

only, merely, solely, but, alone.

They single out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea (notion) expressed by them.

I ***only*** *wanted to ask* you the time.
Man cannot live *on bread* ***alone.***
Time ***alone*** will show who was right.
She is still ***but*** *a child,* she wants to play.
Mr. Green ***merely*** *hinted* at the possibility.

Just, merely, simply can be used at the beginning of imperative sentences.

You don't have to be present. *Just (merely, simply)* send a letter of explanation.

3. **Specifying particles:**

right, exactly, precisely, just.

They make the meaning of the word or phrase they refer to more precise.

Draw a circle **right** *in the middle* of the map (точно, прямо по середине).
We were **just** *about to start* (как раз собирались ...).
They arrived **precisely** *at ten* (ровно, точно в десять).
The room looks *exactly as it did* when I was here last year (точно так, как).
*What **exactly*** do you mean (что именно ...)?

4. The **additive particle** *else*. It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It shows that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned:

Something *else,* nobody *else,* what *else,* where *else.*

5. **The negative particle** *not.*

Not a word was said about it.
Not saying anything was a bad idea.
Not everyone likes this book.
Do you want to go? - *Not me!*

6. **Connecting particles:** *also, too,* which may function as conjuncts (see § 253 on conjuncts).

Were you at the film? - I was **also** there.
I went there **too.**
Won't you come **too?**

Traditionally particles were classed with adverbs with which some are homonymous:

just, simply, yet, still, exactly, precisely, right, too, barely, etc.

She is old *too* (particle).
She is *too* old (adverb).
He's just the man I'm looking for (particle).
He *has just* arrived (adverb).

Other particles are homonymous with

adjectives *(only, even),*
conjunctions *(but),*
pronouns *(all),*
statives *(alone).*

Only a doctor can do that (particle).
She is the *only* person for the job (adjective).

THE INTERJECTION

§ 255. The interjection is a part of speech which expresses emotions, without naming them. They are invariable, whereas the emotions expressed by the interjections vary.
Interjections express different kinds of feelings, such as:

joy *(hurray, hurrah),*
grief, sorrow *(alas, dear me, dear, oh),*
approval *(bravo; hear, hear),*
contempt *(pooh, gosh, bosh, pah, bah, fie),*
triumph *(aha),*
impatience *(bother),*
anger *(damn),*
surprise or annoyance *(Goodness gracious, My God).*

Some interjections are used merely to attract attention *(hallo, hi, hey, here).*

Hallo! What's happening now?
Hey! Is anybody here?
Oh dear! I've lost my pen.
Mr. Smith is ill again. "*Dear me!* I'm sorry to hear that."
Bother! I've missed my train!
For goodness' sake, stop misbehaving!

The meaning of other interjections is very vague, they express emotion in general and the specific meaning depends either on the context, or the situation, or the tone with which they are pronounced. Thus *Oh* may express surprise, joy, disappointment, anger, etc.

Oh! Really? (surprise)
Oh! How glad I am to see you. (joy)
Oh! I'm sorry! (disappointment)
Oh! Don't be a stupid ass. (anger)

As a rule they do not make part of a phrase, but there are some cases when interjections may be connected with a preposition plus a noun (pronoun) phrase.

We've done it. *Hurray for us!*
Alas for my hopes!

Note:

In these combinations the interjections acquire some verbal character.

SYNTAX

INTRODUCTION

Syntax is the part of grammar which deals with sentences and combinability of words. The core of syntax is the study of the sentence. Syntax embraces on the one hand the structure of the sentence, that is, its components, their structure and the relations between these components, and on the other hand structural and communicative types of sentences.

THE SENTENCE

§ 1. Anything that is said in the act of communication is called an utterance. Most utterances are sentences, although there are some which are not sentences and are called non-sentence utterances. Thus utterances fall into two groups: sentences and non-sentence utterances.

Sentences may be regarded from the point of view of their structure and their communicative value.

Structural classification of sentences

§ 2. From the point of view of their structure, sentences can be:

1. **Simple** or **composite** (compound and complex).
2. **Complete** or **incomplete** (elliptical).
3. **Two-member** (double-nucleus) or **one-member** (single-nucleus).

These three classifications are based on different approaches to the structural organisation of sentences and reflect its different aspects.

The difference between the s i m p l e   s e n t e n c e and the c o m p o s i t e   s e n t e n c e lies in the fact that the former contains only one subject-predicate unit and the latter more than one. Subject-predicate units that form composite sentences are called clauses.

Honesty is the best policy. (one subject-predicate unit)
Still waters run deep. (one subject-predicate unit)
You can take a horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink, (two subject-predicate units, or two
clauses)
You never know what you can do till you try. (three subject-predicate units, or three clauses)

The difference between the compound and c o m p l e x   s e n t e n c e lies in the relations between the clauses that constitute them (see § 137, 138, 144).

C o m p l e t e and i n c o m p l e t e (o r   e l l i p t i c a l)   s e n t e n c e s are distinguished by the presence or absence of word-forms in the principal positions of two-member sentences.

In a complete sentence both the principal positions are filled with word-forms.

When did you arrive?
I came straight here.

In an incomplete (elliptical) sentence one or both of the main positions are not filled, but can be easily supplied as it is clear from the context what is missing.

Cheerful, aren't you?
Ready?
Could've been professional.
Wrong again.

Elliptical sentences are typical of conversational English. One-member and two-member sentences are distinguished by the number of principal parts (positions) they contain: two-member sentences have two main parts - the subject and the predicate, while one-member sentences have only one principal part, which is neither the subject nor the predicate.

Two-member sentences:

The magpie flew off.
We are going to my house now.

One-member sentences:

An old park.
Mid-summer.
Low tide, dusty water.
To live alone in this abandoned house!

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Two-member sentences

§ 3. The basic pattern of a simple sentence in English is one *subject-predicate unit,* that is, it has two main (principal) positions: those of the subject and of the predicate. It is the pattern of a two-member sentence. There are several variations of this basic pattern, depending mainly on the kind of verb occupying the predicate position. The verb in the predicate position may be intransitive, transitive, ditransitive or a link verb.

Here are the main variants of the fundamental (basic) pattern:

1. John ran.
2. John is a student.
3. John is clever.
4. John learned French.
5. John gives Mary his books.
6. John lives ⟋ in London. / there
7. We found John guilty.
8. We found John a bore.

The basic pattern may be u n e x t e n d e d or e x t e n d e d .

An **unextended** sentence contains two main positions of the basic pattern, that of the subject and tlie predicate.

Mary laughed.
Mary is a doctor.
Mary is happy.

An extended sentence may contain various **optional** elements (including attributes, certain kinds of prepositional objects and adverbial modifiers).

John ran quickly to me.
My friend John is a very kind student.
Mary laughed heartily at the joke.

Obligatory extending elements are those which c o m p l e t e the meaning of other words, usually verbs, or pronouns, which without them make no or little sense. Therefore obligatory elements are called c o m p l e m e n t s .

John learned French. (the meaning of "learned" is incomplete without the object "French")
John gives Mary his books. (the meaning of "gives Mary" conveys different meaning without the object
"his books")

John lives in London, (the meaning of "lives" is incomplete without an adverbial of place)

One-member sentences

§ 4. One-member sentences in English are of two types: **nominal sentences** and **verbal sentences.**
N o m i n a l s e n t e n c e s are those in which the principal part is expressed by a noun. They state the existence of the things expressed by them. They are typical of descriptions.

N o m i n a l s e n t e n c e s may be:

a) u n e x t e n d e d .
   Silence. Summer. Midnight.

b) e x t e n d e d.
   Dusk - of a summer night.
   The grass, this good, soft, lush grass.
   English spring flowers!

V e r b a l s e n t e n c e s are those in which the principal part is expressed by a non-finite form of the verb, either an infinitive or a gerund. Infinitive and gerundial one-member sentences are mostly used to describe different emotional perceptions of reality.

To think of that!
To think that he should have met her again in this way!
Living at the mercy of a woman!

Elliptical (incomplete) sentences

§ 5. A two-member sentence may be either c o m p l e t e or i n c o m p l e t e (e l l i p t i c a l) . An elliptical sentence is a sentence in which one or more word-forms in the principal positions are omitted. Ellipsis here refers only to the structural elements of the sentence, not the informational ones. This means that those words can be omitted, because they h a v e o n l y g r a m m a t i c a l , s t r u c t u r a l r e l e v a n c e , a n d d o n o t c a r r y a n y n e w r e l e v a n t i n f o r m a t i o n .
In English elliptical sentences are only those having no word-forms in the subject and predicate positions, i. e., in the positions which constitute the structural core of the sentence.
There are several types of elliptical sentences.

1. Sentences without a word-form in the subject position.

Looks like rain.
Seems difficult.
Don't know anything about it.

2. Sentences without word-forms in the subject position and part of the predicate position. In such cases the omitted part of the predicate may be either a) an auxiliary verb or b) a link verb.

a) Going home soon?
   See what I mean?
   Heard nothing about him lately.

b) Not bad.

Free this evening?
Nice of you to come.
Susan's father?

3. Sentences without a word-form only in part of the predicate position, which may be an auxiliary or a link verb.

You seen them?
Everything fixed?
You sure?
All settled.

4. Sentences without word-forms both in the subject and the predicate position. Such ellipses occur in various responses.

What time does Dave come for lunch? - One o'clock.
What were you thinking about? - You.
What do you want of us? Miracles?
Where're you going? - Home.

5. Sentences without a word-form in the predicate position. Such ellipses occur only in replies to questions.

Who lives there? - Jack.
What's happened? - Nothing.

The Structural Types of Sentence

```
                              Sentence
              ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
            Simple                               Composite
      ┌───────┴───────┐                     ┌───────┴───────┐
  One-member     Two-member             Complex          Compound
                ┌────┴────┐            ┌────┴────┐      ┌────┴────┐
            Complete  Incomplete    Complete  Incomplete
```
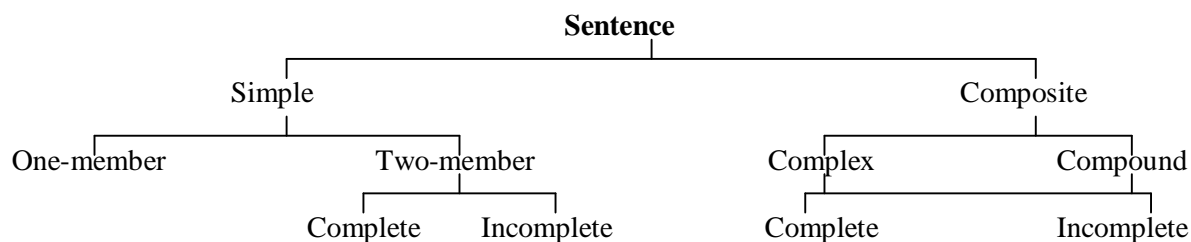
COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES

§ 6. The sentence is a minimal unit of communication. From the viewpoint of their role in the process of communication sentences are divided into four types, grammatically marked: **declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory** sentences. These types differ in the aim of communication and express **statements, questions, commands** and **exclamations** respectively.

Dickens was born in 1812.
When shall I see you again?
Do you know Italian?

Come up and sit down.
What a quiet evening!

These types are usually applied to simple sentences. In a complex sentence the communicative type depends upon that of the main clause, as in:

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I waited till the light turned to green. (statement)
Do you always wait till the light turns to green? (question)
Wait till the light turns to green. (command)
How thoughtless of you not to have waited till the light turned to green! (exclamation)

In a compound sentence, coordinate clauses may as well belong to different communicative types.

Look out, or you may meet with an accident. (command-statement)
I obeyed, for what else could I do? (statement-question)

Declarative sentences

§ 7. A declarative sentence contains a statement which gives the reader or the listener some information about various events, activities or attitudes, thoughts and feelings. Statements form the bulk of monological speech, and the greater part of conversation. A statement may be **positive (affirmative)** or **negative,** as in:

I have just come back from a business trip.
I haven't seen my sister yet.

Grammatically, statements are characterized by the subject-predicate structure with the direct order of words. They are mostly two-member sentences, although they may be one-member sentences, as in:

Very early morning.
No curtain. No painting.

Statements usually have a falling tone; they are marked by a pause in speaking and by a full stop in writing.
In conversation, statements are often structurally incomplete, especially when they serve as a response to a question asking for some information, and the response conveys the most important idea.

Where are you going? - To the library.

Thanks to their structure and lexical content, declarative sentences **are communicatively polyfunctional.** Thus, besides their main function as information-carriers, statements may be used with the force of questions, commands and exclamations, as in:

I wonder why he is so late.
You mustn't talk back to your parents.

Interrogative sentences

§ 8. Interrogative sentences contain questions. Their communicative function consists in asking for information. They belong to the sphere of conversation and only occasionally occur in monological speech.
All varieties of questions may be structurally reduced to two main types, **general questions** (also called "yes-no" questions) and **pronominal questions** (otherwise called "special" or "wh" - questions). Both are graphically identified by a question mark. The two main types have a number of structural and communicative modifications.

General questions

§ 9. In g e n e r a l q u e s t i o n s the speaker is interested to know whether some event or phenomenon asked about exists or does not exist; accordingly the answer may be positive or negative, thus containing or implying "yes" or "no".

A general question opens with a verb operator, that is, an auxiliary, modal, or link verb followed by the subject. Such questions are characterized by the rising tone.

> Does your sister go figure-skating?
> Is that girl a friend of yours?
> Can you speak French?

"Yes-no" questions may be incomplete and reduced to two words only: Can you? Does he?
A negative "yes-no" question usually adds some emotional colouring of surprise or disappointment.

> Haven't you posted the letter yet? (Why?)

General questions opening with *will/would* may be considered as commands and requests according to their communicative role (see § 17).

Owing to their occasional emotional colouring, "*yes-no*" questions may function as exclamations (see § 22).

Tag questions

§ 10. A t a g q u e s t i o n is a short "yes-no" question added to a statement. It consists only of an operator prompted by the predicate verb of the statement and a pronoun prompted by the subject. Generally the tag has a rising tone.

> You know French, don't you? - Yes, a bit.
> George is a football fan, isn't he? - He certainly is.

A tag question is added to a statement for confirmation and therefore is sometimes called aconfirmative question. It corresponds to such Russian tag questions as Не так ли? Не правда ли? Ведь так? The speaker expects the listener to share his view of some situation rather than to give him some new information. The most usual patterns of sentences with tag questions are as follows.

Positive statement - negative tag - positive answer
You knew that before, didn't you? - Yes, I did.

Negative statement - positive tag - negative answer
You didn't know that before, did you? - No, I didn't.

The answer, however, may be unexpected, as in: *You didn't know that before, did you ? - But I did.*
The falling tone of the tag is also possible. It makes the whole sentence sound like a statement. The speaker actually knows the answer and can do without it.
There is one more sentence pattern with a tag question which is less frequently used.

Positive statement - positive tag
You knew about it before, did you?

Negative statement - negative tag

You didn't know about it before, didn't you?

This sentence pattern is used when the speaker comes to a conclusion concerning some event. Such sentences may begin with the conjunction *so.*

So you knew about it before, did you?

A sentence pattern with a tag question may serve as a response to the previous remark. Thus it forms a comment having some emotional attitude, such as surprise, anger, sarcasm.

They even put the car on the ship for you.
- They do, do they? Who takes it off again?

He brought these flowers, too. - He did, did he? - Yes.

Alternative questions

§ 11. An a l t e r n a t i v e   q u e s t i o n implies a choice between two or more alternative answers. Like a "yes-no" question, it opens with an operator, but the suggestion of choice expressed by the disjunctive conjunction *or* makes the "yes-no" answer impossible. The conjunction *or* links either two homogeneous parts of the sentence or two coordinate clauses. The part of the question before the conjunction is characterized by a rising tone, the part after the conjunction has a falling tone.

Will you go to the opera or to the concert to-night?

An alternative question may sometimes resemble a pronominal question beginning with a question word:

Which do you prefer, tea *or* coffee?
Where shall we go, to the cinema *or* to the football match?

Actually such structures fall into two parts, the first forms a pronominal question, the second a condensed alternative question.

Would you prefer tea or coffee?
Shall we go to the cinema or to the football match?

Sometimes the alternative contains only a negation:

Will they ever stop arguing or not?

Suggestive questions

§ 12. S u g g e s t i v e   q u e s t i o n s , also called d e c l a r a t i v e   q u e s t i o n s , form a peculiar kind of "yes-no" questions. They keep the word order of statements but serve as questions owing to the rising tone in speaking and a question mark in writing, as in:

You really want to go now, to-night?
- Yes, nothing could make me stay.

By their communicative function suggestive questions resemble sentences with tag questions; they are

asked for the sake of confirmation. The speaker is all but sure what the answer will be (positive or negative), and by asking the question expects confirmation on the part of the addressee.

> *You are familiar with the town?*
> - I spent winter here many years ago.
> *You still don't believe me, Aunt Nora?*
> - No, I don't.

The answer is sometimes unexpected.

> A child like you talking of "we women"! What next? *You're not in earnest?*
> - Yes, I am.

Unlike ordinary "yes-no" questions, suggestive questions may contain independent elements, such as interjections, modal words or phrases, the conjunction *so,* parenthetical clauses, etc., as in:

> You are joking, *eh?*
> *Surely* you are not offended?
> *So* you knew about, it before?

Suggestive questions are frequently used as question responses with various kinds of emotional colouring, most often that of surprise or incredulity.

> He said you were a very good ski-teacher.
> *- He said that?*
> You sound surprised.

Because of their main communicative function, suggestive questions are very useful as leading questions to get exact information, as seen in the following passage:

> *You mean to say he at no time asked you the actual purpose of your visit?*
> - Not at that interview.
> *- And it did not occur to you to force this information on him ?*
> - Indeed it did...

Pronominal questions

§13. P r o n o m i n a l   q u e s t i o n s open with an interrogative pronoun or a pronominal adverb, the function of which is to get more detailed and exact information about some event or phenomenon known to the speaker and listener.

The interrogative pronouns and adverbs which function as question words are as follows: *what, which, who, whom, whose, where, when, why, how* and the archaic *whence* (= where from), *whither* (= where, where to), *wherefore* (= what for, why).

Adverbial phrases such as *how long, how often* may also function as question words.

Question words may have various syntactical functions in the sentence, depending upon the information the speaker wants to obtain:

> 1. *Who* came first? (subject) - I did.
> 2. *What* makes you think so? (subject) - Your behaviour.
> 3. *Whose* team has won the match? (attribute) - Ours.
> 4. *Which* story did you like best? (attribute) - The last.

5. *Who* is that man? (predicative) - He is my brother.
6. *What* are you doing there? (object) - Nothing.
7. *When* are you going to come back? (adverbial of time) - Tomorrow.
8. *How* can I get to your place? (adverbial of manner) - By bus.

As can be seen from the above examples, word order in a pronominal question is characterized by inversion of the operator and the subject. Inversion does not take place when the question word is the subject or an attribute to the subject (see examples 1, 2, 3).

A question word may be preceded by a preposition.

On what resolution do you insist?

In colloquial English it is preferable to shift the preposition to the end of the question.

What are you laughing *at?*
What did you argue *about?*

In colloquial English the pronoun *who* is used as a question word functioning either as subject or object.

Who has done it?
Who do you see there?

The tone of pronominal questions is usually a falling one.

§ 14. Pronominal questions are often used as short responses. They usually consist of (a) a question word or (b) a question word followed by a preposition.

a) I'm leaving for home. - When?
   George won't come to-night. - Why?
   Let's meet again. - Where?
   I think I can help you. - How?

b) I want to talk with you. - What about?
   Come again. - What for?
   Open the tin. - What with?

The patterns (a) and (b) are employed when some information is missing and the listener asks for the necessary information. The tone is falling.

§ 15. Question words preceded by prepositions are usually employed as echo questions. No information is missing in the previous remark, the whole idea is questioned. The tone is rising and the question word is heavily stressed. They express surprise, incredulity and sometimes incomprehension.

Let's talk about life on Saturn. - About what?
I opened the door with a pin. - With what?
You are a shameless liar, - I am a what?
Our neighbour was born in 1973. - She was born when?

The whole of the question may be reduced to the question word, with the article repeated if necessary.

- Your husband was telling us all about the chromosomes.
- The what?
- The chromosomes, the genes... or whatever they are.

- The Boss wants to see you.
- The who?

The whole of the pronominal question may be re-addressed to gain time for the answer. The re-addressed question takes a rising tone.

When are you going to see me? - When am I going to see you? -Yes, when? - On Sunday, if it suits you.

Rhetorical questions

§ 16. Both general and pronominal questions may serve as r h e t o r i c a l q u e s t i o n s . A rhetorical question contains a statement disguised as a question. Usually it is a positive question hiding a negative statement. No answer is expected.

Can any one say what truth is? (No one can say what it is.)
Do we always act as we ought to? (We do not always act as we ought to.)
What else could I do? (I could do nothing.)
Who would have thought to meet you here? (Nobody would.)

In their form and intonation rhetorical questions do not differ from standard question types. The difference lies in their communicative aim. A rhetorical question does not ask for any new information. It implies a statement and is always emotionally coloured. Besides, it is employed to attract the listener's attention. Since rhetorical questions do not require an answer, they are not followed by a response. The speaker may give an answer himself to clarify his idea. Rhetorical questions are employed in monological speech, especially in oratory, and poetry in the writer's digressions.

To me what is wealth? - it may pass in an hour.
    If tyrants prevail, or if Fortune should frown:
To me what is title? - the phantom of power;
    To me what is fashion ? - I seek but renown. *(Byron)*

And what, after all, can it be other than modesty that makes him [Roy Kear] even now write to the reviewers of his books, thanking them for their praise and ask them for luncheon? *(Maugham)*

Rhetorical questions occur in colloquial English too, as in this fragment of dialogue:

Will you give me a picture of yours? - *What for?*... I'm not Marilyn Monroe or Jane Mansfield.

Imperative sentences

§ 17. I m p e r a t i v e s e n t e n c e s express *commands* which convey the desire of the speaker to make someone, generally the listener, perform an action. Besides commands proper, imperative sentences may express *prohibition,* a *request,* an *invitation,* a *warning, persuasion,* etc., depending on the situation, context, wording, or intonation.

Stand up! Sit down. Open your textbooks.

Be quick!

Formally commands are marked by the predicate verb in the imperative mood (positive or negative), the reference to the second person, lack of subject, and the use of the auxiliary *do* in negative or emphatic sentences with the verb *to be.*

Commands are generally characterized by the falling tone, although the rising tone may be used to make a command less abrupt. In writing commands are marked by a full stop or an exclamation mark.

A negative command usually expresses prohibition, warning or persuasion.

Don't cross the street before the light turns to green.
Don't allow children to play with matches.
Don't worry.

Commands can be softened and made into requests with the help of the word *please,* the rising tone, a tag question or a "yes-no" question beginning with *will* or *would.*

Speak louder, please.
Repeat the last word, will you?
Would you do me a favour?

The falling tone and an exclamation mark at the end of a sentence opening with *will* express irritation and impatience, as in:

Will you stop arguing!
Will you be quiet!

§ 18. Though in the vast majority of commands the subject is only implied, the subject expressed by the pronoun *you* occurs when it is necessary (a) to specify the subject, sometimes for the sake of contrast; (b) to convey the speaker's personal attitude to the event presented in the sentence (for example, irritation, anger, threat, impatience); (c) to soothe somebody. The subject in these cases is heavily stressed.

a) ***You*** *come first, and I'll wait a little.*
   You *come first, and he will have to wait.*

b) ***You*** *say it again, and I'll turn you out of here!*
   Just ***you*** *wait, Mr Higgins.*

c) ***You*** *be a good girl, and don't worry.*

Note the initial position of the operator in negative commands with a subject.

Don't ***you*** *interrupt me.*

§ 19. In the case of first person plural and third person singular and plural subjects, the imperative *let* is followed by a personal pronoun in the objective case.

Let ***him*** *try again.*
Let ***them*** *come in.*
Let ***us*** *have some tea.*

A first-person command often implies invitation or suggestion and may be followed by the tag *shall we.*

> *Lets do it together, **shall we?***

There are two negative constructions with *let* for the first person.

> *Let's not* quarrel about trifles.
> *Don't let's* quarrel about trifles.

A third-person command admits of only one negative construction:

> *Don't let him* interfere in our affairs.

A third-person command may begin with a noun or a pronoun denoting the person addressed.

> ***Somebody** switch off the light.*
> ***Mary and John** fetch dictionaries.*

Here the corresponding negative is:

> *Don't anybody switch off the light!*

§ 20. The imperative of some verbs may acquire interjectional force. Thus the forms *listen, look (here), see (here) (Am.) -* are used to attract attention.

> *Look here,* let's pull ourselves together, shall we?

Come (often doubled) may express encouragement or blame.

> *Come, come,* don't be so foolish. There's nothing to worry about. (Ну, что ты, ну, полно.)
> *Come, come,* you can't expect me to believe you. (Ну нет уж.)

Hear! hear! expresses approval of somebody's words at a meeting, etc. (Правильно, правильно.)

Verbless Commands

§ 21. Commands are sometimes expressed without an imperative verb, as in:

Silence!	Gently, darling.
Water, please.	Careful, please.
To the right!	No smoking!
Off with you!	Hush!

Exclamatory sentences

§ 22. The main distinctive feature of this communicative type of sentence is a specific intonation; structurally it is variable.

> You do look a picture of health! (statement)
> Hurry up! (command)

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The most common pattern of an exclamatory sentence opens with one of the pronominal words *what* and *how. What* refers to a noun, *how* to an adjective or an adverb. An exclamatory sentence has a subject-predicate structure; the order of the subject and the predicate verb (or the operator) is not inverted. An exclamation has a falling tone in speaking and an exclamation mark in writing.

> *What* a funny story she told us!
> *What* valuable advice you've given us!
> *How* beautiful her voice is!
> *How* beautifully she sings!

Exclamatory sentences can be reduced to the word or phrase immediately following the exclamatory signals *what* or *how.*

> *What* a situation!
> *What* a terrible noise!
> *How* kind of you to let me in!

Besides these patterns an exclamation as a communicative sentence type often follows the pattern of other sentence types. Thus it may be formed on the pattern of the following structures:

1. Statements:

> *You do look a picture of health!*

2. Commands:

> *Hurry up!*

3. Questions. These are "yes-no" questions functioning as exclamations owing to the falling tone in speaking and an exclamation mark in writing. The most common pattern has a negative question form with the operator heavily stressed.

> *Isn't it funny!* (How funny it is!)
> *Wasn't it a funny story!* (What a funny story it was!)
> *Doesn't she sing beautifully!* (How beautifully she sings!)

A positive "yes-no" question has not only the falling tone but also stress on both the operator and the subject.

> He said he had to talk. *Did he surprise me!* (How he surprised me!) *Am I fired!* (I am very tired)

4. Pseudo-subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunctions *if* and *that.*

> *If only I were young again!*
> *That this should be the result!*

5. One-member sentences conveying signals of alarm such as *Fire! Bandits!* and highly emotional infinitive or nominal one-member sentences followed by a clause.

> To think that she should have said so!

The idea that they should have behaved like this!

NON-SENTENCE UTTERANCES

§ 23. There are utterances which do not constitute sentences **(non-sentence utterances).** They are:

1. **Vocatives.**

> Charles?
> Mr West!

2. **"Yes-no" utterances.** These are mostly responses to "yes-no" questions.

> Are you coming? - Yes/No.

3. **Interjections.**

> Hi! (Hey!) Oh!
> Dear me! - Боже мой!
> Look here! - Послушай!
> Well, I never! - Вот те на! Вот так так! Ну и ну!
> Goodness gracious! - Боже мой! Господи! Вот те на!

4. **Different conversational formulas.**

> Thanks.
> Good-bye.
> Bye-bye.

NEGATION

§ 24. Both structural and communicative types of sentences fall into affirmative sentences and negative sentences. A sentence is made negative by the particle *not* which is the most widely used negator. It is put immediately after the auxiliary or modal verb. The negator *not* has two forms: u n c o n t r a c t e d and c o n t r a c t e d . The former occurs mainly in formal English; the latter is usual in informal (conversational) English. There are two possible forms of negation contraction: one is when the operator is contracted and the negator uncontracted, and the other is when the negator is contracted but the operator is used in its full form.

Positive	Negative Uncontracted	Contracted
They've come.	They have *not* come.	They've *not* come. They *haven't* come.
Tom is arriving tomorrow.	Tom is *not* arriving tomorrow.	Tom *isn't* arriving tomorrow. Tom's *not* arriving tomorrow. (The 1st form is more common.)
You ought to have come.	You ought *not* to have come at all.	You *oughtn't* to have come at all.

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Note that the contracted negative forms of *can* and *will* are *can't* and *won't* and the uncontracted negative of *can* is *cannot*. The corresponding forms *of shall* are *shall not* and *shan't*.

He *will* be late.	He *will not* be late.	He'*ll not* be late.
		He *won't* be late.
I *can* come early.	I *cannot* come early.	I *can't* come early.
I *shall* come early.	I *shall not* come early	I *shan't* come early.

Only the full negative form is possible for the first person singular of the verb *to be* in declarative sentences, *I'm not* late, the form *ain't* being used only in dialects and uneducated forms of English. However, the verb contraction *I'm* is possible.

If the predicate verb is in the present or past indefinite, the auxiliary *do* is used with *not* to form the negative.

I like that idea.	I *do not* like that idea.	I *don't* like that idea.
He understands you well.	He *does not* understand you at all.	He *doesn't* understand you at all.

As a rule, a sentence can contain only one negator. *Not* is usually , attached to the predicate verb, and other negative words are unnecessary in the sentence, unlike similar cases in Russian.

I *don't know* anything about it. (one negator)	Я *ничего не* знала об этом. (two negators)
I *didn't say* anything to anybody. (one negator)	Я *никому ничего не* сказала. (three negators)

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)

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* This is the first-person form of the verb *to be* in negative questions in British English.

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.
                      - 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.

§ 25. *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 paricle *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.*

§ 26. 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.

§ 27. After the verbs of mental activity *think, believe, suppose* and *imagine* the negation which belongs to the object clause is transferred to the principal clause. This is called t r a n s f e r r e d n e g a t i o n .

I *don't think* you've heard about it (= I *think you haven't heard* about it).
I *don't believe* he has come (= I *believe he hasn't come).*
I *don't suppose* any one will learn about it (= I *suppose no one will learn* about it).

Compare with the Russian:

I don't think you are right. - Думаю, что вы не правы.

§ 28. 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.

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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 *nor* 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 important 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. (Я ничего не подписывал.)
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.

§ 29. 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?

§ 30. 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.

PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

§ 31. Almost every sentence can be divided into certain components which are called parts of the sentence. Parts of the sentence are usually classified into m a i n and s e c o n d a r y . The main parts of the sentence are t h e   s u b j e c t and the p r e d i c a t e . They constitute the backbone of the sentence. The secondary parts of the sentence are t h e   o b j e c t ,   t h e   a t t r i b u t e ,   t h e   a p p o s i t i o n and t h e   a d v e r b i a l   m o d i f i e r . The secondary parts of the sentence modify the main parts or each other.

Besides these two kinds of sentence components there are so-called i n d e p e n d e n t   e l e m e n t s , that is, elements standing outside the structure of the sentence, and therefore of lesser importance. The independent elements are p a r e n t h e s i s and d i r e c t   a d d r e s s .

Ways of expressing parts of the sentence

§ 32. Any part of the sentence may be expressed in four ways, that is, by a single *word-form* or a word-form preceded by a formal word, by a *phrase,* by a *predicative complex,* or by a *clause.* The only exception is the verbal predicate which can be neither a predicative complex nor a clause.

Word-forms

§ 33. A word-form is any form of the grammatical paradigm of the word. *Girl, girls, girl's, girls'; to write, writes, wrote, is writing, has been written, will have been writing,* etc.; *pale, paler; brilliant, more brilliant, most brilliant* are all word-forms.

As seen from the above a word-form may contain either one component or more than one. One-component word-forms are various s y n t h e t i c   f o r m s of the word, while multi-component word-forms are a n a l y t i c a l   f o r m s   of the word which are composed of o n e   o r   m o r e   a u x i l i a r y   c o m p o n e n t s   a n d   o n e   n o t i o n a l   c o m p o n e n t. The auxiliary components may be verbs *(be, have, do, shall, will),* adverbs *(more, most),* particles *(to).*

Note:

In grammar we usually deal with word-forms, not words, though it is customary to make use of the term
   "word" in the sense of "word-form" as well. So in the following chapters both these terms will be used in
   the sense of "word-form", "word-form" being more exact, "word" having the advantage of being shorter.

Phrases

§ 34. A phrase is a group of two or more notional words functioning as a whole. Besides notional words a phrase may contain one or more formal words. Compare: *to see her - to look **at** her.*

Depending on the relation between its components, phrases may be divided into two kinds: phrases which are divisible both syntactically and semantically, and phrases which are indivisible either syntactically or semantically, or both.

Phrases which are divisible both syntactically and semantically

§ 35. Phrases of this kind contain a headword and one or more word-forms dependent on it. Here the following kinds of phrases may be distinguished: n o m i n a l,   v e r b a l,   a d j e c t i v a l,   a d v e r b i a l and s t a t i v a l   p h r a s e s .

1. I n   n o m i n a l   p h r a s e s the headword is a noun, a noun-pronoun, or a numeral modified by one or more word-forms. The latter are mostly adjectives, nouns, or pronouns with prepositions, although they may be participles or infinitives. They may have dependent words of their own: *a **new** way, a **very** good friend, a **recently built** house, the years **to come,** etc.; something **curious,** anything **so unexpected,** everybody **staying here,** all **of them,** nothing **to say;** tire first **of May,** the second **to enter,** etc.* Their relation to the headword is attributive. Phrases of this kind function as nouns treated separately.

The man sat *on the sofa.*
(subject and adverbial modifier expressed by nouns)

The old man was sitting *in a big armchair.*
(subject and adverbial modifier expressed by nominal phrases)

2. I n   v e r b a l   p h r a s e s the headword is a verbal which has one or more word-forms dependent on it. The latter are mostly nouns, noun-pronouns, or adverbs, each of which may have its own dependent

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words: *to know **him,** to see **her again,** going **home in the evening,** speaking a **foreign language.*** In all these phrases syntactical relations between the headwords and dependent words are either objective *(him, her, a language)* or adverbial *(again, home, in the evening).* Phrases of this kind function according to the nature of their headwords, that is, in the same way as their headwords do when used separately.

To see is to believe.	*To see you here* is a real pleasure.
(subject expressed by an infinitive)	(subject expressed by an infinitive phrase)
Do you like *swimming?*	I hate *swimming in cold water.*
(object expressed by a gerund)	(object expressed by a gerundial phrase)

3. I n a d j e c t i v e p h r a s e s the headword is an adjective which has some words dependent on it. They are usually adverbs or nouns with a preposition, or an infinitive. These may have dependent words of their own: ***quite** true, **too** big, **wonderfully** clever, kind **enough,** absent **from** classes, true **to his word,** unable **to say a word,*** etc. Their relation to the headword is either adverbial (where the dependent word is an adverb) or objective (where the dependent word is a noun with a preposition or an infinitive). Such phrases perform the same functions as adjectives used alone.

She has a *kind* heart.	It was a *very dark* night.
(attribute expressed by an adjective)	(attribute expressed by an adjective phrase)
Are you *angry?* (predicative expressed by an adjective)	Are you *quite ready?* (predicative expressed by an adjective phrase)

4. I n a d v e r b i a l p h r a s e s the headword is an adverb modified by some other adverb or (very seldom) by a noun/pronoun with a preposition: ***very** happily, **rather** well, heartily **enough,** fortunately **for the boy,*** etc. Their relation to the headword is either adverbial (in this case the modifying word is an adverb) or objective (in this case it is a noun with a preposition). Such phrases function like separate adverbs.

She thanked him *warmly.*	He set to work *heartily enough.*
(adverbial modifier expressed by an adverb)	(adverbial modifier expressed by an adverbial phrase)

5. I n s t a t i v a l p h r a s e s where the headword is a stative modified either by a noun with a preposition, or by an adverb, or by an infinitive, each of which may have dependent words of its own: *aware **of the danger,** afraid **of cold water, so deeply** asleep, **quite** alone, afraid **to go home,** ashamed **to tell her about it,*** etc. Their relation to the headword is either adverbial (the dependent word is an adverb) or objective (in this case it is a noun with a preposition or an infinitive). Such phrases function as the corresponding statives do when used separately.

The whole land was *aflame.*	The sky above them seemed *afire with stars.*
(predicative expressed by a stative)	(predicative expressed by a statival phrase)

As is seen from the above, the relations between the headword and dependent words within these phrases (1-5) may be of three kinds: attributive, objective, or adverbial.

Phrases which are indivisible either syntactically or semantically or both

§ 36. Phrases of this kind contain two or more notional word-forms used together to designate a person or a non-person, an action or a quality. Syntactical relations between their components are not always explicit, and so they are not analysed separately.

Here belong:

1. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   t h a t   n a m e   o n e   t h i n g   o r   o n e   u n i t .

Will you allow me another *half an hour?*
Here is your *needle and thread.*

2. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   d e n o t i n g   a n   i n d e f i n i t e   n u m b e r   o r   a m o u n t   o f   t h i n g s .

A lot of unpleasant things have been said.

3. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   d e n o t i n g   a r i t h m e t i c a l   c a l c u l a t i o n s .

Two plus two is four.
Ten by three equals thirty.
Four from nine leaves five.

4. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   c o n s i s t i n g   o f   t w o   o r   m o r e   p r o p e r   n a m e s   b e l o n g i n g   t o   o n e   p e r s o n .

George Gordon Byron was born in 1788.

5. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   w h i c h   f o r m   o n e   g e o g r a p h i c a l   n a m e .

New York is the largest city in *the United States of America.*

6. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   c o n t a i n i n g   a   p r o p e r   n a m e   a n d   a   n o u n   d e n o t i n g   a n   o c c u p a t i o n ,   a   t i t l e ,   a   r a n k ,   a   r e l a t i o s h i p ,   o r   n a m i n g   a   s p e c i e s   o f   a n i m a l .

How do you do, *Doctor Brown?*
Mrs. Poppets brought the tray in.
The boy looked up at *Colonel Julian.*
He always reminds me of my *Uncle Podger.*
The *dog Charlie* was full of importance.

Note:

However these groups of words allow of another interpretation: the first word may be treated as a non-detached apposition. See § 92.

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7. G r o u p s   o f   w o r d s   c o n t a i n i n g   a   v e r b   a n d   a   n o u n   d e n o t i n g   a n   a c t i o n .

She looked at him and *gave a sigh.*
Please, *don't make trouble.*

8. A d v e r b i a l   g r o u p s   o f   w o r d s .

He came *two minutes ago.*
A week later she began to recover.

Phrases of this kind (1-8) function in the sentence in accordance with their nominal, verbal or adverbial nature as one whole. (See the examples above.)

Predicative complexes

§ 37. Predicative complexes differ from phrases in that they have two words with predicative relation between the nominal and the verbal parts of the phrase. These words in their turn may have one or more words dependent on them. Though the predicative relation within a complex is grammatically only implicit, its presence makes it possible to turn any predicative complex into a clause, which cannot be done to a phrase.

I saw *him run* ——> I saw *that he was running.*
He still found *life interesting* ——> He still found that *life was interesting.*

Predicative complexes are dealt with in full in § 124-132.

Clauses

§ 38. Clauses, like predicative complexes, contain two words connected predicatively, but unlike predicative complexes the predicative relation in clauses is expressed explicitly in the grammatical forms of the subject and the predicate.

I don't know *what you mean.*
She came *when nobody was in.*

Levels of syntactical analysis

§ 39. Within the sentence we usually distinguish two syntactical levels of analysis, one belonging to the sentence proper, which is called *the sentence level,* and one belonging to various phrases treated as a whole and functioning in the sentence with the same force as separate words. This level is called *the phrase level.*
The subject and the predicate belong to the sentence level only. The object, the adverbial modifier, the attribute, and the apposition may belong either to the sentence level or to the phrase level.

He did not tell *me anything about it. (Me, anything, about it* are objects to the verb-predicate - the sentence level.)
You are unhappy *about something,* aren't you? *(About something* is an object to the predicative *unhappy,*
which is part of the predicate - the sentence level.)
He will come *tomorrow. (Tomorrow* is an adverbial modifier to the verb-predicate - the sentence level.)
You seem *very* tired. *(Very* is an adverbial modifier to the adjective *tired,* which is part of the predicate –
the sentence level.)
Poor Amy could not answer. *(Poor* is an attribute to the noun, which is the subject - the sentence level.)

In other cases objects, adverbial modifiers, attributes and appositions are included in various phrases within which they are not usually treated separately, the whole phrase functioning as part of the sentence on the sentence level.

He insisted *on going by train. (On going by train* is an object to the verb-predicate - the sentence level;

within the phrase *on going by train* we distinguish an adverbial modifier *by train* referring to the word-

form *going* - the phrase level.)

When analysing a sentence we deal mainly with the sentence level only, unless it is necessary for some reason to state the syntactical relations between the words within a phrase.

The subject

§ 40. 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 i m m e d i a t e l y b e f o r e t h e p r e d i c a t e , whereas in questions its position is i m m e d i a t e l y a f t e r *a n o p e r a t o r* . 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

§ 41. The subject is expressed by:

1. A n o u n i n t h e c o m m o n c a s e (including substantivized adjectives and participles) or a n o m i n a l p h r a s e w i t h a n o u n .

> *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 fairer yet.
> *Four and three* is seven.
> *A great number of frees* 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 type of subject is rather emphatic.

2. A p e r s o n a l p r o n o u n i n t h e n o m i n a t i v e c a s e .

> *I* shall do the best I can.
> *She is* very beautiful.

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3. A n y   o t h e r   n o u n - p r o n o u n .

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   n u m e r a l   (e i t h e r   c a r d i n a l   o r   o r d i n a l)   o r   a   n o m i n a l   p h r a s e w i t h   a
   n u m e r a l .

Seven cannot be divided by two.
Two of them were left in the camp.
The third was a young man with a dog.

5. A n   i n f i n i t i v e   o r   a n   i n f i n i t i v e   p h r a s e .

To understand is to forgive.
To deny the past is to deny the future.

6. A   g e r u n d   o r   a   g e r u n d i a l   p h r a s e .

Talking mends no holes.
Working for someone keeps a woman calm and contented.

7. A n   i n f i n i t i v e   o r   a   g e r u n d i a l   p r e d i c a t i v e   c o m p l e x .

For her to fall asleep in broad daylight was not at all usual.
His walking out of the room in the very middle of the argument was quite unexpected.

8. A n y   w o r d   o r   w o r d s   u s e d   a s   q u o t a t i o n s .

"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   c l a u s e   (t h e n   c a l l e d   a   s u b j e c t   c l a u s e) ,   w h i c h   m a k e s   t h e w h o l e
   s e n t e n c e   a   c o m p l e x   o n e .

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

This kind of subject is treated in full in § 147-148.

Grammatical classification of the subject

§ 42. From the point of view of its grammatical value the subject may be either *notional* or *formal*.
The   n o t i o n a l   s u b j e c t   denotes or (if expressed by a pronoun) points out a person or a non-person.

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The f o r m a l s u b j e c t 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

§ 43. The notional subject denotes or points out a person or non-person, that 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, whose name may be substituted by *if* 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 cat. *It* is very small.

The formal subject

T h e f o r m a l s u b j e c t *it*

§ 44. The formal subject expressed by *it* is found in two patterns of sentences: those with i m p e r s o n a l *it* and those with i n t r o d u c t o r y *it.*

1. T h e f o r m a l s u b j e c t *it* is i m p e r s o n a l 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. T h e f o r m a l s u b j e c t *it* is i n t r o d u c t o r y (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 by the notional subject, whereas the pattern without it 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 —/—> *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 consequence, not the subject, and so cannot be placed before the predicate:

It was too late to start —/—> *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 —/→ *To take their departure was time.*

Thus, the subject *it* may be personal, impersonal, and introductory. In the latter two cases it is formal, (see the scheme after § 45).

<p style="text-align:center">T h e   f o r m a l   s u b j e c t *there*</p>

§ 45. 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.

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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 *no knowing* when he will come.

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

There weren't (were *not) any* flowers on the balconies.
There isn't 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

```
                        Subject
            ┌──────────────┴──────────────┐
        Notional                        Formal
      ┌─────┴─────┐              ┌─────────┴─────────┐
  Personal    Non-personal   Impersonal          Introductory
                   │                          ┌───────┴───────┐
               It-suject                   It-subject   There-subject
```
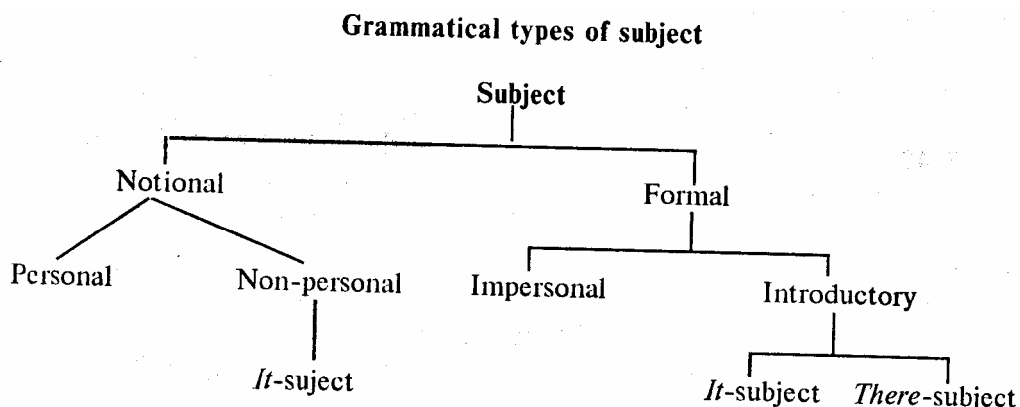
The predicate

§ 46. The predicate is the second main part of the sentence and its organizing centre, as the object and nearly all adverbial modifiers are connected with, and dependent 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 (see § 49).

According to the meaning of its components, the predicate may denote an action, a state, a quality, or

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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

§ 47. 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.*

Structural types of predicate

```
                    Predicate
                        |
        ┌───────────────┴───────────────────┐
      Simple                             Compound
        |                                    |
   ┌────┴────┐                    ┌──────────┴──────────┐
 Verbal   Nominal              Verbal                Nominal
                          ┌───────┼───────┐        ┌─────┴─────┐
                       Phasal   Modal  Of double  Proper   Double
                                       orientation
```
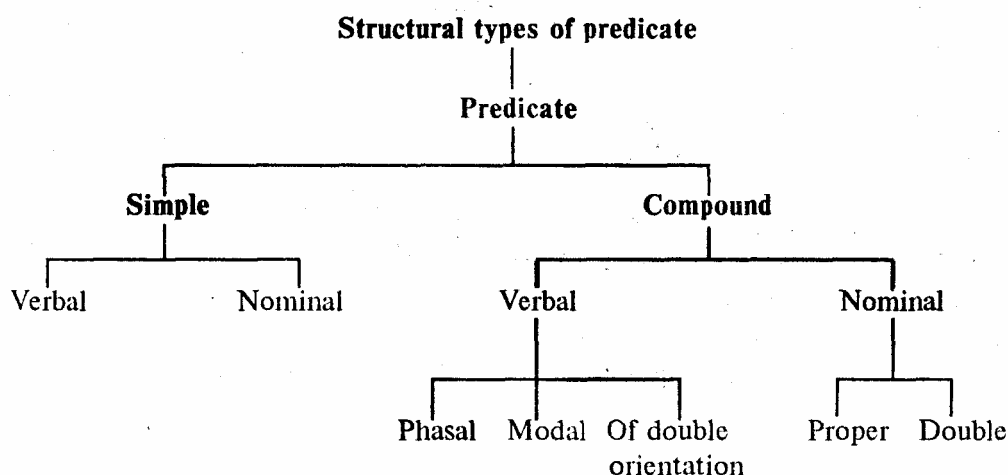
The simple predicate

The simple verbal predicate

§ 48. The simple verbal predicate is expressed by:

1. A verb in a synthetic or analytical form.

John *runs* quickly.
I *was sent in* to get my tea.
Perhaps you *will* even *remember* that woman.
When *did* life *begin* on earth?
I *didn't care* about the consequence.
Don't come too late.

2. A verb phrase (a phraseological equivalent of a verb denoting one action).

Here belong:

a) Phrases denoting single actions:
   to have a look, to have a smoke, to have a talk, to give a look, to give a laugh, to give a cry, to take a
   look, to make a move, to make a remark, to pay a visit, etc.

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They comprise a transitive verb and a deverbal noun with the indefinite article.

Nurse Sharp *gave* him *a look* and walked out.
The man *gave a violent start.*
Did you *have a sleep?*
It's time we *were making a move.*

b) Phrases denoting various kinds of actions. In most cases they comprise an abstract noun used with no
article but often preceded by an attribute:
to change one's mind, to get rid (of), to get hold (of), to lose sight (of), to make fun (of), to make up
one's mind, to make use (of), to take care (of), to take leave (of), to take part (in), etc.

I *have* never *taken much interest* in German songs.
She *paid* little *heed* to what was going on in the world outside.
Are you *taking part* in the concert?

The simple nominal predicate

§ 49. The simple nominal *predicate is expressed by a noun, or an* adjective, or a verbal, ft does not contain a link verb, as it shows the incompatibility of the idea expressed by the subject and that expressed by the predicate; thus in the meaning of the simple nominal predicate there is an implied negation.

He a *gentleman!*	Ну какой же он джентльмен!
You a *bother!* Never.	Ты - зануда! Ну, что ты!
Fred, a *priest!*	Чтобы Фред был священником!
Rondal, *jealous!*	Рондел - ревнует! (Быть того не может!)
Nick, *dishonest!*	Ник - нечестный! Не может быть!
Such an old lady *to come* so *far!*	Чтобы такая пожилая дама пришла издалека!

Sentences with the simple nominal predicate are always exclamatory evidently owing to the implication of a negation or of an evaluation.
The predicate is mostly commad off (separated by a comma), but a comma is not regarded as a strict rule.
These predicates are used in colloquial English, although not frequently.
The simple nominal predicate can be expressed by:

1. A noun.

My son *a clergyman!*
She, *a nun!*
Me, *a liar!*

2. An adjective.

My ideas *obsolete!*
Ronnie, *good-looking!*
You *sad!*

3. An infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

Hercule Poirot *to sleep while murder is committed!*
My boy *insult a gentleman at my table!*

4. Participle I or a participial phrase.

She *spying!*
Me *trying to be funny!*

The compound predicate

§ 50. The compound predicate consists of two parts: *the notional* and *the structural.* The structural part comes first and is followed by the notional part.

The notional part may be expressed by a noun, an adjective, a stative, an adverb, a verbal, a phrase, a predicative complex, or a clause.

The structural part is expressed by a finite verb - a phasal verb, a modal verb, a verb expressing attitude, intention, planning, etc., or a link verb.

From the point of view of meaning the most important part of the compound predicate is the notional part as it contains the information about the person or non-person expressed by the subject.

From the point of view of structure the most important part of the predicate is the first one, since it is expressed by a finite verb and carries grammatical information about the person, number, tense, voice, modal, attitudinal and aspective (phasal) meaning of the whole predicate.

The compound verbal predicate

The compound verbal phasal predicate

§ 51. The compound verbal phasal predicate denotes the beginning, duration, repetition or cessation of the action expressed by an infinitive or a gerund. It consists of a *phasal verb* and *an infinitive* or *a gerund,* Accordingly its first component may be a phasal verb of:

1. Beginning:
   to begin, to start, to commence, to set about, to take to, to fall to, to come.

   Andrew and he *began to talk* about the famous clinic.
   Jack *started training out* at Hogan's health farm.
   So I *took to going* to the farm.
   He *fell to poking* the fire with all his might.
   I *come to think* that you are right.

2. Duration:
   to go on, to keep, to proceed, to continue.

   The talk *kept running* on the possibility of a storm.
   As we *continued to laugh his* surprise gave way to annoyance.

3. Repetition:
   would, used (denoting a repeated action in the past).

   Alfredo *used to talk* to me about it.
   During her small leisure hours she *would sit* by the window or *walk* in the fields.

4. C e s s a t i o n :
to stop, to finish, to cease, to give up, to leave off.

The band *had ceased playing.*
Give up smoking.

Note the difference in the functions of the gerund and the infinitive after the verb *to stop:*

She *stopped talking* to him. (part of a compound verbal phasal predicate) - Она перестала с ним говорить.
She *stopped to talk* to him. (an adverbial modifier of purpose) - Она остановилась, чтобы поговорить с
ним.)

T h e   c o m p o u n d   v e r b a l   m o d a l   p r e d i c a t e

§ 52. The compound verbal modal predicate consists of *a modal part* and *an infinitive* (or a gerund). It shows whether the action expressed by an infinitive is looked upon as possible, impossible, obligatory, necessary, desirable, planned, certain, permissible, etc. In most cases it denotes the attitude to the action of the person expressed by the subject or by the speaker.
The modal part may be expressed by:

1. A m o d a l   v e r b .

You *must forget* it.
He *can't say* a word, he *can't* even *apologize.*
I *had to bite my lip* to prevent myself from laughing.
Ought he *not to treat* her generously?
May I *ask* you a question?

2. A   m o d a l   e x p r e s s i o n of nominal nature:

to be able, to be allowed, to be willing, to be going, to be anxious, etc.

You *are going to attend* the college at Harvard, they tell me.
Are you *able to walk* another two miles?
We *were anxious to cooperate.*

The modal part may have two modal verbs or a modal verb and a modal expression.

He *may have to return.*
She *must be willing to come* here again.

3. An a t t i t u d i n a l verb such as *to like, to hate, to attempt, to expect, to hope, to intend, to mean, to plan, to try, to have a mind, to wish, to want* followed by an infinitive denote the attitude of the person expressed by the subject to the action denoted by the infinitive.
The predicate of this type may be called a c o m p o u n d   v e r b a l   a t t i t u d i n a l p r e d i c a t e .

He *hoped to see* them the next day.

I *mean to find* out the truth.

The compound verbal predicate
of double orientation

§ 53. The compound verbal predicate of double orientation consists of two parts. The first part is a finite verb which denotes the attitude to, evaluation of, or comment on, the content of the sentence expressed by the speaker or somebody not mentioned in the sentence. The second part denotes the action which is (was/will be) performed by the person/non-person expressed by the subject.

The Gadfly *seemed to have taken* a dislike to her ————>It seemed (to the people) that the Gadfly had

taken a dislike to her.

Philip Bosinney *was known to be a young man* without fortune ————> They knew that Philip Bosinney

was a young man without fortune.

He *is said to be looking for a* new job. (Говорят, что он ищет новую работу)
The plane *is reported to have been lost.* (Сообщают, что самолет пропал)

In this case we see different orientation of the actions which are regarded from two points of view: that of the speaker and that of the person (or non-person) expressed by the subject. .

In a number of cases semantically this type of predicate has much in common with the compound verbal modal predicate, as in: You *can't have misunderstood* me, but formally these predicates are different, because in the compound verbal modal predicate the first component is a modal verb, whereas in the compound predicate of double orientation it is a verb or phrase expressing attitude, evaluation, or comment. They belong to one of the following verb groups:

1. Intransitive verbs of **seeming** or **happening** with the general meaning of evaluation in the active voice:

to seem, to appear, to prove, to turn out, to happen, to chance.

He *seemed to understand* everything I said.
Money just *doesn't happen to interest* me.
No one *appears to have noticed* his escape.

2. Some verbs in the passive voice:

a) Verbs of saying:

to say, to declare, to state, to report, to rumour.

This country *is said to be rich* in oil.
The rocket *is reported to have started* its night at 6.30.

b) Verbs of mental activity:

to believe, to consider, to expect, to find, to know, to mean, to presume, to regard, to suppose, to think,
to understand.

Mr. Sharp *was* always *expected to say* he preferred cold meat.
He *has* never *been known to lose his temper* before.

c) Verbs of perception:

to feel, to hear, to see, to watch.

My dog *was heard to bark* in the yard.
The lady *was seen to leave* the house.

3. Phrases with some modal meaning:

to be (un) likely, to be sure, to be certain.

The adjectives *likely, unlikely, sure* and *certain* indicate the speaker's attitude to the future:

The weather *is not likely to change.*
This event *is certain to produce* a sensation.
If you don't post the letter at once, it *is unlikely to arrive in time.*
George *is sure to see* Mary. *(Sure* indicates the attitude of the speaker, it is the speaker rather than George
who is sure)

The compound nominal predicate

T h e   c o m p o u n d   n o m i n a l   p r e d i c a t e   p r o p e r

§ 54. The compound nominal predicate consists of *a link verb* and a *predicative* (nominal part). The link verb is the structural element of the predicate, as it joins the subject and the predicative. It expresses the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect and mood.
The predicative is the notional part of the compound nominal predicate. It characterizes the person or non-person expressed by the subject. The characterization may concern the following:
1. The properties of the person or non-person (the state or quality or quantity of it).

The girl *looked tired but pretty.*
I *felt sore* for a minute.
But he *is not* always *alone.*
The visibility *seemed* very *good.*
He *was forty* and *in his prime.*
We *are seven.*

2. The identity of the person or non-person, that is, what class of persons or things they belong to.

This man *is my father.*
Old Mr Clare *was a clergyman.*
Miss Sedley's papa *was a man of some wealth.*
My wish *is to learn many languages.*

§ 55. Among the class of link verbs we may distinguish:

1. Those which have lost their original lexical meaning *(to be, to get).*

He *is* just *the kind of man* I want.
Elisabeth *got* very *restless.*

2. Those which have only partly lost their lexical meaning *(to remain, to become, to grow, to turn, to look, to seem).*

That request *seemed superfluous.*
The room *looked snug and cheerful.*
Ellen's eyes *grew moist.*

In both cases (1,2) the link verbs proper are used.

3. Those which have fully preserved their lexical meaning but still serve as link verbs followed by a predicative. They are used in the passive voice: *to elect, to call, to leave, to keep, to make.*

The boy *was called John.*
She *was left alone.*
He *was elected president.*

According to their semantic characteristics link verbs fall into three groups: *link verbs of being, of becoming, of remaining.*

l. L i n k   v e r b s   o f   b e i n g :

to be, to feel, to sound, to smell, to taste, to look, to appear, to seem, etc.

Of these only the verb *to be* is a pure link verb of being, as the others may have some additional meaning (see examples below).
When he *was seven,* starting school had been a nightmare and a torture to him.
His face *looked awful* all the time.
I *felt* better *pleased* than ever.
His voice *sounded cold and hostile.*
He *seemed bewildered.*
Everything *appeared* very *grand and imposing* to me.

Note how the link verbs *to taste* and *to feel* are translated into Russian:

Lemons *taste sour.* - Лимоны кислые на вкус.
The fur *feels soft.* - Мех мягкий на ощупь.

2. L i n k   v e r b s   o f   b e c o m i n g :

to become, to grow, to turn, to get, to make.

The noise of the rattling dishes *becomes intolerable.*
The Elephant's Child's nose *grew longer and longer.*
The girl's face suddenly *turned red.*
The girl *will make a* good *teacher.*

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3. L i n k   v e r b s   o f   r e m a i n i n g :

to remain, to continue, to keep, to stay.

She *remained vexed* with him.
The children *kept* suspiciously *silent.*

W a y s   o f   e x p r e s s i n g   t h e   p r e d i c a t i v e

§ 56. The predicative can be expressed by:

1. A noun in the common case or in the genitive case.

Miss Sedly's father *was a merchant.*
The face *was Victoria's.*

2. An adjective or an adjective phrase.

Ellen's eyes *grew angry.*
She *was full of enthusiasm.*
The man *was difficult to convince,*

Note:

It should be remembered that in some cases a predicative adjective in English corresponds to an adverbial modifier expressed by an adverb in Russian.

The apples *smell good.*
Яблоки **хорошо** пахнут.

The music *sounded beautiful.*
Музыка звучала **прекрасно.**

She — looks — bad   - Она **плохо** —— выглядит
      feels   чувствует себя

In English the verbs *to smell, to sound, to look, to feel* are link verbs and are the first part of the compound nominal predicate. The predicatives (which form the second part of these predicates) qualify the subject and can therefore be expressed only by a d j e c t i v e s . In Russian the corresponding verbs form simple verbal predicates and are therefore modified by adverbials expressed by an adverb.

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3. A pronoun.

It *was he.*
It's *me.* (There is a growing tendency to use personal pronouns as predicatives in the objective case.)
She is *somebody.*
The hat *is mine.* (In this function only the absolute form of the possessive pronoun is used.)
Who are you?
She *was not herself* yet.

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4. A numeral.

He *was sixty* last year.
I'm the first.

5. An infinitive (or an infinitive phrase or construction).

His first thought *was to run away.*
My idea is *to go* there *myself.*
The only thing to do *is for you to whip him.*

6. A gerund (or a gerundial phrase or construction).

My hobby *is dancing* and his *is collecting stamps.*
The main problem *was his being away* at the moment.

7. A participle or a participial phrase.

The subject *seemed strangely chosen.*

Participle I seldom occurs in this function unless it has become an adjective.

That *sounded quite distressing.*

8. A prepositional phrase.

She *is on our side,*

9. A stative.

I *was* wide *awake* by this time. .

10. An indivisible group of words.

It *is nine o'clock* already.

11. A clause.

That'*s what has happened.*

S e m a n t i c   c h a r a c t e r i s t i c s   o f   t h e   p r e d i c a t i v e

§ 57. The three most typical semantic characteristics of a predicative are: *identification, classification* and *characterisation.*

1. A n   i d e n t i f y i n g   p r e d i c a t i v e expresses equality between the notion expressed by the predicative and by the subject, or means that they are of the same rank or value. In this case the predicative and the subject are positionally interchangeable. Such predicatives are expressed by a noun with the definite article.

London is *the capital of Britain.* = The capital of Britain is *London.*

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Mount Everest is *the highest mountain in the world.* = The highest mountain in the world is *Mount Everest.*

2. A c l a s s i f y i n g   p r e d i c a t i v e names a class of persons or non-persons to which that denoted by the subject belongs. The predicative in this case is expressed by a noun with the indefinite article.

John is *a student.*
My father is *a teacher.*
This is *a book.*

3. A c h a r a c t e r i z i n g   p r e d i c a t i v e denotes a state or quality of a person or non-person and is expressed by an adjective or a stative.

The room is *dark.*
The sky was *blue.*
The patient fell *asleep.*
The house was *aflame.*

A characterizing predicative may also be a noun which in this case has no article.

He turned *traitor.*
He was elected *president.*

T h e   c o m p o u n d   n o m i n a l   d o u b l e   p r e d i c a t e

§ 58. The compound nominal double predicate combines, as its name suggests, the features of two different types of predicate. It has the features of the simple verbal predicate and those of the compound nominal predicate. It consists of two parts, both of which are notional. The first one is verbal and is expressed by a notional verb denoting an action or process performed by the person/non-person expressed by the subject. From this point of view it resembles the simple verbal predicate. But at the same time the verbal part of this predicate performs a linking function, as it links its second part (which is a predicative) to the subject.

The second part of the compound nominal double predicate is expressed by a noun or an adjective which denotes the properties of the subject in the same way as the predicative of the compound nominal predicate proper does.

The moon *was shining cold and bright.*

The predicate here denotes two separate notions:

1) *The moon was shining,* and at the same time
2) *The moon was cold and bright.*

There are a number of verbs that often occur in this type of predicate, performing the double function of denoting a process and serving as link verbs at the same time. They are: *to die, to leave, to lie, to marry, to return, to rise, to sit, to stand, to shine,* etc. As in Modern English there is a growing tendency to use this type of predicate, the verbs occurring in it are not limited by any particular lexical class.

My daughter *sat silent.*
He *died a hero.*

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She *married young.*
The light *came gray and pale.*
The men *stood silent and motionless,*
They *met friends and parted enemies.*
The moon *rose round and yellow.*

Mixed types of compound predicate

§ 59. Compound predicates can combine elements of different types. Thus we have:

1. The compound modal verbal nominal predicate.

   Jane *must feel* better *pleased* than ever.
   She *couldn't be happy.*
   He *may have been ill* then.

2. The compound modal nominal verbal predicate.

   Are you *able to walk* another two miles?
   We *were anxious to cooperate.*

3. The compound phasal nominal predicate.

   He *was beginning to look desperate.*
   George *began to be* rather *ashamed.*

4. The compound modal phasal predicate.

   You *ought to stop doing* that.
   He *can't continue training.*

5. The compound nominal predicate of double orientation.

   Mrs Bacon *is said to be very ill.*
   Walter *seems to be unhappy.*

Agreement of the predicate with the subject

§ 60. 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.*

World *literature **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 predicative noun, as in:

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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's they who are responsible for the delay.

§ 61. The verb-predicate is in the 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 **does** not 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 were 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 проделал такое. (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 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 stories, 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 subject

§ 62.

1. 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 «всё» 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.

2. Interrogative pronouns *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?*

3. 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.*

4. 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

§ 63. 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** a traditional 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 object 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 not repeated.

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*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 and a white kitten was playing.)*
*The yellow 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.*

§ 64. With homogeneous subjects connected by the conjunctions *not only... hut also, either... or, or, neither... nor* the verb-predicate agrees with the nearest noun-subject. (This is the so-called "proximity rule".)

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

§ 65. 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** a teacher.*
*The manager as well as/rather than/more than/as much as the members of the board **is** responsible for the*
present situation.

Notional agreement

§ 66. Notional agreement is to be found in the following cases:

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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 (see § 176, II), 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 one 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 does not 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. Subjects 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 quantity: *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. Subjects expressed by such invariable plural nouns as *goods* (товар, товары), *contents* (содержание, содержимое), *riches* (богатство, богатства), *clothes* (одежда), *wages* (зарплата), *eaves* (карниз крыши) 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. Subjects 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 "singularia tantum" "всегда единственное число», as they have no plural.

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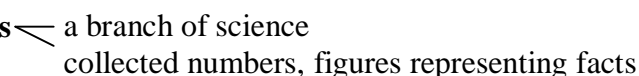
The corresponding Russian nouns used as subjects are either plural invariables (деньги, ворота, похороны) or have both the singular and the plural forms (совет - советы, новость - новости).

6. Subjects expressed by invariable nouns ending in **-s** ("pluralia tantum" «всегда множественное число») and denoting an indivisible notion or thing have a singular verb-predicate : *measles* (корь), *mumps* (свинка), *billiards, dominoes, linguistics, economics, news, headquarters* (штаб), *works* (завод).

*No news **is** good news.*
The new works that ***has*** been built in our district ***is** very large.*
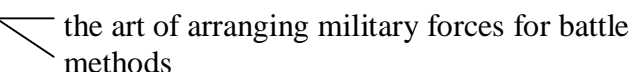
Though nouns in **-ics** which are names of sciences and other abstract notions have a singular agreement when used in their abstract sense; they may have a plural verb-predicate when denoting qualities, practical applications, different activities, etc. *(ethics* – "moral rules", *gymnastics* – "physical exercises"). Thus these nouns may be followed by either a singular or a plural verb.

statistics — a branch of science
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 academies.
Your *tactics **are** obvious.* Please, don't insult my intelligence.
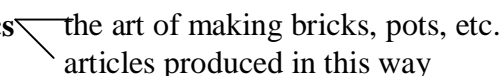
politics — a profession
political affairs, political ideas

*Politics **is** a risky profession.*
*Politics **have*** always *interested me.*
What are your politics?

ceramics — the art of making bricks, pots, etc.
articles produced in this way

*Ceramics **is** my hobby.*
Where he lives isn't the 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 emminent* rarely ***do.***

The object

§ 67. The object is a secondary part of the sentence referring to some other part of the sentence and expressed by a verb, an adjective, a stative or, very seldom, an adverb completing, specifying, or restricting its meaning.

She has bought *a car.*
I'm glad *to see you.*
She was afraid *of the dog.*
He did *it* unexpectedly *to himself.*

Ways of expressing the object

§ 68. The object can be expressed by:

1. A noun in the common case or a nominal phrase, a substantivized adjective or participle.

I saw *the boys* two hours ago.
The nurses were clad *in grey.*
First of all she attended *to the wounded.*
Greedily he snatched *the bread* and *butter* from the plate.

2. A noun-pronoun. Personal pronouns are in the objective case, other pronouns are in the common case, or in the only form they have.

I don't know *anybody* here.
I could not find my own car, but I saw *hers* round the corner.
He says he did not know *that.*

3. A numeral or a phrase with a numeral.

At last he found *three of them* high up in the hills.

4. A gerund or a gerundial phrase.

He insists on *coming.*
A man hates *being run after.*

5. An infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

She was glad *to be walking with him.*
Every day I had to learn *how to spell pages of words.*

6. Various predicative complexes.

She felt *the child trembling all over.*
I want *it done at once.*
Everything depends on *your coming in time.*

7. A clause (then called an object clause) which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

I don't know *what it was.*
He thought *of what he was to say to all of them.*

Thus from the point of view of their structure, objects may be *simple, phrasal, complex* or *clausal.**

* Complex objects with verbal and non-verbal second elements (objective predicatives) are treated in detail in § 124-129.

Types of object

§ 69. From the point of view of their value and grammatical peculiarities, four types of objects can be distinguished in English:

the direct object, the indirect object, and *the cognate object.*

1. **The direct object** is a non-prepositional one that follows transitive verbs, adjectives, or statives and completes their meaning. Semantically it is usually a non-person which is affected by the action of the verb, though it may also be a person or a situation. The situation is expressed by a verbal, a verbal phrase, a complex, or by a clause.

I wrote a *poem.*
You like *arguing,* don't you?
Who saw *him leave?*
I don't know *what it all means.*
She was ready *to sing.*

When the direct object is expressed by an infinitive (or an infinitive phrase or a clause) it may be preceded by the formal introductory object it (see § 78).

I find **it** exciting *to watch tennis.*
He found **it** hard *to believe the girl.*

2. The **indirect object** also follows verbs, adjectives and statives. Unlike the direct object, however, it may be attached to intransitive verbs as well as to transitive ones. Besides, it may also be attached to adverbs, although this is very rare.
From the point of view of their semantics and certain grammatical characteristics indirect objects fall into two types:

a) The indirect object of the first type is attached only to ditransitive verbs. It is expressed by a noun or pronoun which as a rule denotes (or, in the case of pronouns, points out) a person who is the addressee or recipient of the action of the verb. So it is convenient to call an object of this type **the indirect recipient object.** It is joined to the headword either *without a preposition* or *by the preposition to* (occasionally *for).* The indirect recipient object is generally used with transitive verbs.

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He gave *the kid* two dollars.
She did not tell anything *to anyone.*
Will you bring a cup of coffee *for me?*

b) The indirect object of the second type is attached to verbs, adjectives, statives and sometimes adverbs. It is usually a noun (less often a pronoun) denoting an inanimate object, although it may be a gerund, a gerundial phrase or complex, an infinitive complex or a clause. Its semantics varies, but it never denotes the addressee (recipient) of the action of the governing verb. So it may be called *the indirect non-recipient object.* **The indirect non-recipient object** can only be joined to its headword *by means of a preposition.*
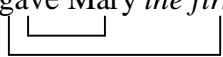
One must always hope *for the best.*
She's not happy *about her new friend.*

The indirect non-recipient object is used mainly with intransitive verbs. It is usually the only object in a sentence, at least other objects are not obligatory.

3. **The cognate object** is a non-prepositional object which is attached to otherwise intransitive verbs and is always expressed by nouns derived from, or semantically related to, the root of the governing verb.

The child smiled *the smile* and laughed *the laugh* of contentment.
They struck him a heavy *blow.*

4. **The retained object.** This term is to be applied in case an active construction is transformed into a passive one and the indirect object of the active construction becomes the subject of the passive construction. The second object, the direct one, may be retained in the transformation, though the action of the predicate-verb is no more directed upon it. Therefore it is called a **retained object.**

They gave Mary *the first prize* ——>   Mary was given *the first prize*

(direct object)   (retained object).

Types of Objects

Object

Direct object	**Indirect object**	**Cognate object**	**Retained object**
	Recipient Non-recipient		
Non-prep.	Non-prep. Prep. Prep.	Non-prep.	Non-prep.
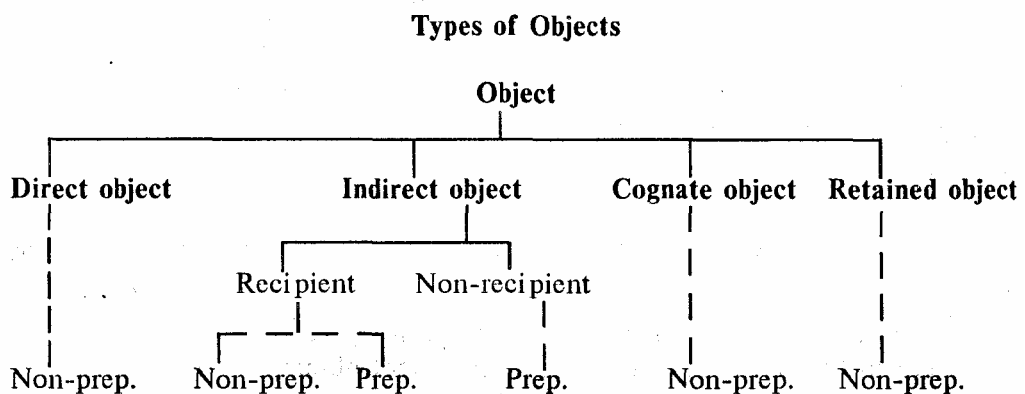
The direct object

§ 70. The direct object is used irrespective of the absence or presence of other objects attached to the same verb.

He wrote *the article* two weeks ago.

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Tommie did not know *anything* about it.
Ned ordered him *to start.*

Some English verbs which take a direct object correspond to Russian verbs followed by an indirect non-recipient object with a preposition. These verbs are:

to address smb	- обращаться **к** кому-либо
to affect smb, smth	- влиять **на** кого-либо, что-либо
to answer smth	- отвечать **на** что-либо
to approach smb, smth	- подойти, приблизиться **к** кому-либо, чему-либо
to attend smth	- присутствовать **на** чем-либо
to enjoy smth	- получать удовольствие **от** чего-либо
to enter smth	- входить **во** что-либо
to follow smb, smth	- следовать **за** кем-либо, чем-либо
to join smb, smth	- присоединяться **к** кому-либо, чему-либо
to mount smth	- сесть верхом, взобраться **на** что-либо
to need smth, smb	- нуждаться **в** чем-либо, ком-либо
to play smth	- играть **на** чем-либо, **во** что-либо
to reach smth	- дойти, достать **до** чего-либо
to watch smb, smth	- следить **за** кем-либо, чем-либо

The position of the direct object

§ 71. The most usual position of the direct object is that immediately after the predicate verb it refers to.

Then he found *her* in the hall.

The direct object is separated from the predicate verb in the following cases:

1. If there is a non-prepositional indirect recipient object to the same verb in the sentence. In this case the direct object follows the indirect one.

I never told *him anything.*

Note:

The direct object may come before the non-prepositional indirect object if it is the pronoun *it,* and the indirect object is any other personal pronoun.
I never told *it him.*
Give *it me,* will you?

---

2. If the direct object is modified by a phrase or a clause. In this case it may be separated from the verb by a prepositional indirect non-recipient object or an adverbial.

Ged had kept *for his winter journey the cloak lined with fur.*
He took *into his hands a small beast.*

3. If the direct object is expressed by a noun or a pronoun (except a personal pronoun) referring to a phrasal predicate verb consisting of a verbal part and a postposition such as *about, back, down, in, off, on, out, over, through, up.*

He *laid down his stick.*
Ged *took off his cloak* that was heavy with water.

With most of those verbs, however, the direct object may also precede the adverb.

He *laid down his stick.* = He *laid his stick down.*

If expressed by a personal pronoun, the direct object always precedes the postposition.

He *laid down his stick.* = He *laid it down.*

§ 72. The direct object comes before the predicate verb it refers to in the following cases:

1. In pronominal questions referring to the direct object or to its attribute.

What did they give you?
Whose car was he driving?
Which piece shall I take?

2. In certain exclamatory sentences.

What *a wonderful boat* he has built!

3. In case it is necessary to connect the idea expressed in this sentence with the preceding one. This makes the object more emphatic.

The people of the village gathered in silence to watch his quick hands.
This job too he did well and patiently.

4. For the sake of emphasis or contrast.

I enjoyed arithmetic, as always. *Grammar* I could not understand in the least.

The indirect object

The indirect recipient object

§ 73. As has been mentioned above, the indirect recipient object is used mainly with transitive verbs, which thus take two objects, and are accordingly called **ditransitive.** Verbs governing the indirect recipient object fall into two classes, which in accordance with their general semantics are called ***verbs of benefaction*** and ***verbs of inducement.***

V e r b s   o f   b e n e f a c t i o n denote an action that is addressed to a person or is done for that person's sake or benefit.

First she *gave **him** his supper.*
I've *bought a pair of beautiful earrings **for you**,* dear.

V e r b s   o f   i n d u c e m e n t denote an action which causes a person to do some other action.

Ann *told **him** to leave* her alone.

I *beg **you*** *to forgive* me.

§ 74. The indirect recipient object is generally used together with the direct object and precedes it (see the examples above).

If the indirect object is attached to a verb of benefaction, the direct object is usually a noun, a pronoun, or a clause.

Bring *the man his things.*
I told *her everything.*
They did not show *him what it was.*

Some verbs of benefaction can take an infinitive or a gerund as their direct object.

Help me *(to) do it.*
She promised me *to be punctual.*
Miss Craggs taught them *singing.*

If the indirect recipient object is attached to a verb of inducement, the direct object can only be an infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

She asked him *to come to dinner.*

When attached to verbs of benefaction, the indirect recipient object may sometimes be used alone, that is, without a following direct object. This occurs:

a) Where it is attached to the predicate verb in the passive.
At last the check was given *her* and she left.

b) After the verbs *to answer, to ask, to envy, to forgive, to help, to teach.*
She used *to teach me* once.
I've *helped you* all my life.

Note:

The indirect recipient object may also be used alone after the verbs *to read, to explain, to dictate, to spell, to sing, to write,* but in the case of the first five it always takes the preposition **to,** whereas with *to write* both forms are possible.

Why do you never *read to me* now?
Will she *sing to us* tonight?
At first she *wrote to him* twice a week.
Write me back as soon as you get the cable.

When attached to verbs of inducement, the indirect recipient object can never be used alone.

F o r m   a n d   p o s i t i o n   o f   t h e   i n d i r e c t   r e c i p i e n t   o b j e c t s

§ 75. As to their form and position the following cases must be distinguished:

1. If the indirect recipient object is attached to a verb of inducement, it is always non-prepositional and has a fixed position in the sentence just before the direct object.

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Mother ordered *me to get down.*
He urged *her to write a story about it.*

2. If it is attached to the verbs of benefaction *to announce, to ascribe, to attribute, to communicate, to contribute, to dedicate, to dictate, to disclose, to explain, to interpret, to introduce, to open, to point out, to repeat, to submit, to suggest,* it is always prepositional and has two possible positions in the sentence, either before the direct object or after it. In both cases it is governed by the preposition *to.* It usually precedes the direct object if the latter is modified by an attribute.

He dictated *the letter **to his secretary.***
Up to her death in 1935 she did not open ***to me** her secret.*
Then she explained ***to me** the cause of her refusal.*

3. If the indirect recipient object is attached to a verb of benefaction other than those listed above, its form and position vary according to certain rules:

a) The indirect recipient object is non-prepositional when it precedes the direct object.

She offered ***him** a sandwich.*
Jane sang ***me** a song.*

b) The indirect recipient object is prepositional when it follows the direct object. In this case the most frequent preposition is *to.*

She has given *some kind of task to each girl.*
I'm going to offer *something to you.*

If the indirect recipient object denotes a person for whose benefit the action is done, it has the preposition *for.*

I'll buy *this **for you.***

c) The position of the indirect recipient object after the direct object is sometimes obligatory. This is the case either when both objects are personal pronouns, as in:

Give *him to me.*
Send *me to them.*

or when the direct object is a personal pronoun, while the indirect object is a noun, as in

Give *them to Nanny.*
Show *it to John.*

If the direct object is the pronoun *it* and the indirect recipient object is any other personal pronoun, the indirect recipient object may take the preposition or not.

Give *it to him* = Give *it him.*

The latter is more colloquial.

§ 76. Sometimes the indirect recipient object may be placed before the predicate verb. This occurs in the following cases:

1. In pronominal questions referring to the indirect recipient object or its attribute.

Whom did you show the brooch *to*?
To whom did you send the parcel?
Which boy has she given the money *to*?
To which porter did you give your suitcase?

As seen from the examples, the preposition *to* can either retain its position after the direct object or come before the question word. Questions of the first type are characteristic of colloquial style, while those of the second type are formal.

> **Note:**
>
> In colloquial speech the nominative case form *who* often replaces the objective form *whom*. In this case the preposition can only be placed at the end of the sentence.
>
> *Who* did you give the money *to*?

2. In attributive clauses.

This friend of his *whom* she had shown the letter *to* did not appear to know anything.
The man *to whom* she had given two loaves of bread never came back.

3. If the object is to be made more emphatic for the sake of contrast.

To you he's telling his tales, not to me.

The indirect non-recipient object

§ 77. The indirect non-recipient object is a prepositional object that follows both transitive and intransitive verbs and completes their meaning, The indirect non-recipient object may be preceded by various prepositions.

I thought *about it* a good deal.
Invention arises *from idleness.*
How would you deal *with the problem?*
I could hardly stand *on my skates* then.

The formal object *it*

§ 78. Some verbs cannot take an infinitive object or a clausal object. In this case the formal object *it* precedes the notional object. It is called *introductory* (or *anticipatory) it.* The sentence thus has two objects, the formal object *it* and a notional object, which is an infinitive or a clause. The formal object *it* may be either a direct object, or an indirect non-recipient object.

1. As a direct object *it* occurs after the verbs *to take, to like, to find, to understand, to learn* and some others.

Is she *to take it that everything is O.K.?*
I *understand it that you are my wife's brother.*
We *found it difficult to talk to him.*

2. As an indirect non-recipient object it occurs after certain verbs which take objects with obligatory prepositions: *to count (on), to depend (on), to hear (of), to insist (on), to object (to)* and some others.

He *objected to it that they should be taken to the island too.*

§ **79.** There is another use of *it* as o *formal object:* it can be attached to transitive or intransitive verbs to convey a very vague idea of some kind of an object.

I was angry. I made him take the present away. An hour later he returned and we *made it up.*
We therefore decided that we would sleep out on fine nights, and hotel *it,* and inn *it,* and pub *it,* when it
was wet.

The cognate object

§ **80.** The verbs that most frequently take a cognate object are:

to live (a life), to smile (a smile), to laugh (a laugh), to die (a death), to sigh (a sigh), to sleep (a sleep), to
dream (a dream), to run (a race), to fight (a, fight,, a battle).

He *died the death of a hero.*
Here she stopped and *sighed a heavy sigh.*
One must *live one's own life,* you know.

The cognate object is always used with words modifying it, never alone:

the death of a hero, a heavy sigh, one's own life, etc.

to die the death of a hero = to die like a hero;
to sigh a heavy sigh = to sigh heavily, etc.

Semantically cognate objects characterize the action expressed by the predicate-verb. Nevertheless they are considered to be objects, not adverbial modifiers, because:

a) they are expressed by nouns without prepositions, which is not characteristic of adverbials;

b) they may occur in the position of the subject of a passive construction.

He never doubted that *life* should be lived as he lived.

Objects to adjectives

§ **81.** There are quite a number of adjectives that *can* take an object, although not quite in the same way as verbs do. In the sentence these adjectives are mainly used as predicatives. The objects they take are of two kinds:

1. Direct objects expressed only by infinitives or infinitive phrases. No noun or pronoun is ever possible in this position.

> Mack was *very glad to get home.*
> Mary was *happy to have met us.*

II. Indirect non-recipient objects governed by various prepositions. These objects are usually expressed by a noun or pronoun, sometimes by a gerund, a gerundial phrase or complex, or by a clause, depending on the combinability of the adjective.

> Now she was *ready for anything.*
> I was *surprised at her being so shy.*
> She was *only half conscious of what was going on.*

As can be seen from the above examples, structurally objects to adjectives may be of the same types as objects to verbs, that is, simple, phrasal, complex, or clausal.

Objects to statives

§ 82. The statives that can take objects are few in number. The most frequent of them are: *afraid, aware, alive, ashamed, ahead, akin.* Their objects may be direct infinitive or clausal objects, or an indirect non-recipient object. The latter may be expressed by a noun (pronoun), a gerund, a gerundial phrase or predicative complex, or a clause.

> She had never been *afraid to experiment.*
> I think he was *afraid I shouldn't remember him.*
> I was *afraid of you,* my pretty.
> I was not *aware of your being a scoundrel.*
> He was fully *aware of what he was doing.*

Objects to adverbs

§ 83. There are some adverbs which can take objects, but these can only be indirect non-recipient objects.

> *Fortunately for himself,* he could not be present.

The attribute

§ 84. The attribute is a secondary part of the 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

§ 85. An attribute may be expressed by different parts of speech:

1. B y (a) a d j e c t i v e s or (b) a d j e c t i v a l p h r a s e s, 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 parts of speech by means of the participle-forming suffix *-ed,* as in:

It was a *low-ceilinged L-shaped* room.
They sat on the *pine-needled* sand.

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

Martin lived 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 p r o n o u n s or p r o n o m i n a l p h r a s e s, which help to identify or define 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 n u m e r a l s, o r d i n a l or c a r d i n a l, 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) n o u n s i n t h e c o m m o n c a s e s i n g u l a r o r (b) p r e p o s i t i o n a l n o m i n a l p h r a s e s, 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 post modifying:

a) It happened on a *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 Crowie* (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; не нос, а морковка),
an angel of a girl (не девушка, 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 - *не девка, а огонь; не ребенок, а сущий дьяволенок,* 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. B y n o u n s o r p r o n o u n s i n t h e g e n i t i v e c a s e .

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. B y (a) p a r t i c i p l e s I a n d II a n d (b) p a r t i c i p i a l p h r a s e s, 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 refuelled* 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. B y (a) g e r u n d s, (b) g e r u n d i a l p h r a s e s, o r (c) g e r u n d i a l c o m p l e x e s. 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 interrupted by the sound *of a door being banged.*
There is no chance *of our seeing him again.*

9. B y (a) i n f i n i t i v e s, (b) i n f i n i t i v e l p h r a s e s, o r (c) c o m p l e x e s, 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 imparts 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. B y (a) a d v e r b s o r (b) a d v e r b i a l p h r a s e s, 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 impatience.

11. B y s e n t e n c e s u s e d a s a w h o l e (t h e s o - c a l l e d "q u o t a t i o n n o u n s"). These are used mainly as hyphenated chains before the headword.

She looked at me with a kind of *don't-touch-me-or-I'll-slap-you* air.
It was a '*You-must-take-us-as-you-find-its'* attitude to things, and it saved me a lot of trouble... In this '*a-*
place-for-everything-and-everything-in-its-place' kitchen he felt ill at ease.

12. B y a c l a u s e (then called an attributive clause) which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

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

The position of attributes

§ 86. The position of an attribute depends on the following:

1. T h e m o r p h o l o g i c a l n a t u r e o f t h e a t t r i b u t e. 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 changed out of *riding clothes* and was on his way to the party.
The *apple trees* were in blossom.
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.
Participles II, statives, and adjectives of verbal origin used as attributes also tend to occupy the position after the headword.

The *people involved* were reported to the police.
When we build cities we think about *generations unborn.*

Adjectives ending in *-able, -ible* are mostly postpositive as attributes. They often follow a headword preceded by *only* or a similar word with a limiting meaning.

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. T h e   e x t e n s i o n   o f   t h e   a t t r i b u t e . 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.*

Here are some more examples:

They passed the bodies of British *soldiers killed that night.*
It was a little log *house with whitewashed walls.*
He held a letter in his hands, a *letter from his mother.*
He appeared to be a small *man of about fifty.*
They chose a *way longer than the other.*

3. T h e   m o r p h o l o g i c a l   n a t u r e   o f   t h e   h e a d w o r d . Such words as demonstrative or indefinite pronouns and numerals cannot have an attribute in preposition.

***Those** coming first* occupied the best seats.
Most of their time animals spend in search of ***something** eatable.*
There is ***nothing** interesting* in this book.
***All** present* were disgusted by his behaviour.

Note 1:

Non-detached postmodifying attributes are found in traditional phrases borrowed from French or Latin, such as *blood royal, time immemorial, the second person plural, heir apparent (heir presumptive). Lords spiritual, Lords temporal.*

Note 2:

There are cases when the headword is embedded between parts of the attribute, as in:

I was told that you were the *best man available (the best available man).*

Types of connection between an attribute and its headword

§ 87. From the point of view of their connection with the headword and other parts of the sentence, attributes may be divided into **nondetached (close)** and **detached (loose)** ones.

Non-detached attributes

§ 88. Non-detached attributes form one sense group with their headword and are not separated from it by commas.

They generally adjoin the headword, either premodifying, postmodifying, or embedding it, and are connected with other parts of the sentence only through the headword.

Non-detached premodifying attributes may be unextended, consisting of one word only, or form chains of homogeneous attributes with identical reference, as in: *a nice girl, a pretty house; crimson, white,* and *yellow flowers.*

Attributes with identical reference *(crimson flowers, white flowers, and yellow flowers - crimson, white, and yellow flowers)* are usually interchangeable *(yellow, white, and crimson flowers)* and are set off by commas *(crimson, white, yellow flowers)* or joined by a conjunction as they are in the example given above.

Attributes may form a string with different reference, that is, those of them which are closer to the noun form one whole with subsequent words:

her usual (good temper);
a clever (young man) (compare with *crimson, white, yellow flowers);*
a large black and white (hunting dog).

In the word-group *a large black and white hunting dog* the adjective *large* refers to *black and white hunting dog, black and white,* refers to *hunting dog,* and *hunting* refers to *dog.* This relation of attributes embedded inside a string of them requires a fixed order and no comma is used to separate them. The phrase *an old lady's hat* allows of two possible interpretations: *(An old lady)'s hat* and *an old (lady's hat).*

If there are relations other than attributive within the string of premodifying words, the whole string functions as one attribute. In this case they are usually hyphenated, as in:

most deeply-felt emotions; too-new shoes, a word-for-word translation, a brass-coffee-pot-like thing (a
thing looking like a brass coffee-pot);
a dirty-collar, unbrushed-coat man (a man with a dirty collar and in an unbrushed coat).

One of the characteristic features of English, especially in academic and newspaper style is a marked tendency to form long strings of phrasal attributes (usually called *compositional phrases),* which express in a compressed form the content of a clause or sentence and which can be easily turned into one, if necessary form words are added (prepositions, link verbs, etc.) and the morphological changes are introduced, as in:

Fish-breeding plants. (Plants that breed fish.)
Efficient salt-producing mines. (Mines that produce salt efficiently.)
The uranium-supply industry. (Industry that supplies uranium to...)
The last decade's scarcity of hands in the country. (In the last decade hands were scarce in the country.)
The long-looked-for hours. (The hours which were looked for long.)

Detached attributes

§ 89. A detached attribute is only loosely connected with its headword and is often optional from the point of view of structure, although very important semantically. It forms a separate sense group in speech and is accordingly separated by commas in writing.

A detached attribute may be placed in preposition, post-position, or often at some distance from the headword.

Carrie looked about her, *very much disturbed and quite sure* that she did not want to work here.

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Unlike non-detached attributes, a detached attribute may modify personal and relative pronouns.

Big and strong, he impressed us greatly.

Very often a detached attribute refers not only to the headword, but also to another part of the sentence, thus forming a double connection. For example, a detached attribute referring both to the subject of the sentence and to the predicate may have in addition to its attributive meaning some adverbial shade of meaning, such as conditional, causal, or concessive.

And for a moment I hesitated, *unable to start talking* (**as** I was unable to start talking).
Familiar with these details, Michael paid them little attention (**because** he was familiar with these details).

The apposition

§ 90. An apposition is a part of the sentence expressed by a noun or nominal phrase and referring to another noun or nominal phrase (the headword), or sometimes to a clause.

The apposition may give another designation to, or description of, the person or non-person, or else put it in a certain class of persons or non-persons. In the latter case it is similar to an attribute, as it characterizes the person or non-person denoted by the headword.

Beyond the villa, *a strange-looking building,* began the forest.
He had remembered her at once, for he always admired her, *a very pretty creature.*
He knows about everything - *a man of the world.*
The whole thing was indescribable - *a terrific spectacle, a stupendous symphony of sound.*

Like the attribute, the apposition may be in preposition or postposition. However, unlike the attribute, which is always subordinated to its headword and is usually connected with other parts in the sentence only through it, words in apposition are, at least syntactically, coordinated parts, that is, both the headword and the apposition are constituents of the same level in the sentence. This may be illustrated by two possible types of transformation of sentences with words in apposition.

Mr Smith, *the local doctor,*   The local doctor, *Mr Smith,*
was known to everybody.   was known to everybody.

However, an apposition can rarely replace the headword in the sentence. Substitution is possible only if the apposition meets the following conditions:

1. It denotes the same person or non-person as the headword.

Winterbourne was back on the Somme, *that incredible desert,* pursuing the retreating enemy.

If it puts the person or non-person in a certain class of persons or nonpersons, no substitution is possible. Thus the sentence *Mr Smith, a local doctor, was known to everybody* cannot be transformed into the sentence **A local doctor was known to everybody.*

2. It is expressed by words of the same morphological class as its headword. Otherwise the apposition may be unacceptable in the structure of the sentence because of its grammatical or lexical meaning. This can be illustrated by the sentence: *She was seized by a gust of curiosity to see that wife of his,* which does not allow the substitution of the apposition for the headword - *She was seized by a gust of to see that wife*

of his.

3. It follows the headword immediately and has no dependent words which may hinder substitution. Otherwise, the dependent words may block the connection and make the apposition unacceptable in the structure of the sentence. Thus, the sentence *John, at that time a student, wrote several articles on architecture* cannot be transformed into *At that lime a student wrote several articles on architecture,* for it changes the meaning of the sentence altogether.

The sentences discussed above show the peculiarity of the appositive relation: although it **resembles coordination syntactically** (in that the headword and the apposition are constituents of the same level within the sentence), **communicatively they are not of the same rank.**

Appositions may be joined by a coordinating conjunction, or follow one another asyndetically. In both cases appositions refer directly to the headword.

Dr and *Mrs* Macphail were left alone.
A man of action and a born leader, now forced into a state of thought, he was unhappy.
A daughter of poor but honest parents, I have no reason to be ashamed of my origins.

Types of connection between an apposition and its headword

§ 91. From the point of view of their relation to the headword, appositions, like attributes, are subdivided into non-detached (close) and detached (loose) ones.

Non-detached appositions

§ 92. Non-detached appositions form one sense group with their headword and very often enter into such close relation with it that the two words form one whole. This is especially true in the case of titles, military ranks, professions, kinship terms, geographical denotations, etc., used as apposition.

> Sir Peter, Mr Brown, Doctor Watson, Colonel Davidson, Uncle Podger, Mount Everest, the River Thames.

Being very closely connected with each other such appositions and their headwords may be treated as indivisible word-groups.*

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* See also § 36 item 6.

Detached appositions

§ 93. Detached, or loose appositions form separate sense groups and are wider in their meaning than close appositions: they may give identification, explanation, etc., especially when referring to pronouns. They may follow the headword immediately or be separated from it.

> He actually envied Jolyon the reputation of succeeding where he, *Soames,* had failed.
> Cooper was three inches taller than Mr Warburton, *a strong, muscular young man.*

An apposition may also refer to a clause or a sentence, usually as an explanatory remark.

> The night was muggy, a bit drizzly, windless, and very dark - *the ideal conditions for a gas bombardment.*

The adverbial modifier

§ 94. The adverbial modifier (or the adverbial) is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies
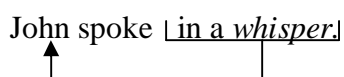
another part of the sentence expressed either by a verb (in a finite or non-finite form), or an adjective, or a stative, or an adverb.

In case it modifies a verb the adverbial characterizes the action or process expressed by tlie verb and denotes its quality, quantity, or the whole situation.
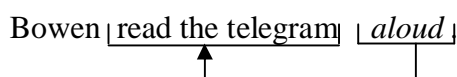
The adverbial modifier may refer to:

a) T h e   p r e d i c a t e - v e r b   o r   t o   a   v e r b a l   p h r a s e .

John spoke ⌐in a *whisper.*⌐
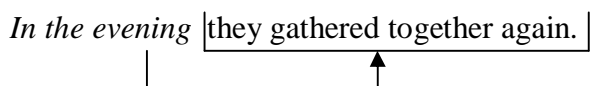
Bowen⌐read the telegram⌐ ⌐*aloud*⌐

b) T h e   w h o l e   o f   t h e   s e n t e n c e , especially if placed at the beginning of the sentence.

In the evening ⌐they gathered together again.⌐

If an adverbial modifies a non-finite form, it becomes part of a gerundial, participial, or infinitive phrase or construction.
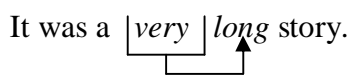
Felicity fell to the ground and *after lying still for a moment* began to crawl forward.
Scobie watched the bearers *go slowly up the hill, their bare feet very gently flapping the ground.*
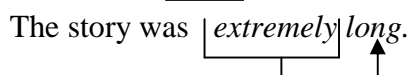
Adverbials modifying adjectives, statives and adverbs usually denote degree or quantity. These adverbials modify:

a) A d j e c t i v e s   i n   t h e i r   a t t r i b u t i v e   o r   p r e d i c a t i v e   f u n c t i o n .
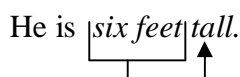
It was a ⌐*very* ⌐ *long* story.

The story was ⌐*extremely*⌐*long.*
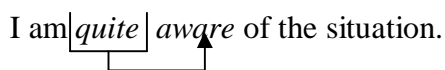
He is ⌐*six feet*⌐*tall.*
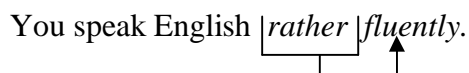
b) Statives in their predicative function.

I am⌐*quite* ⌐ *aware* of the situation.

c) A d v e r b s   i n   t h e i r   m a i n   f u n c t i o n   a s   a n   a d v e r b i a l .

You speak English ⌐*rather* ⌐*fluently.*

Obligatory and non-obligatory adverbial modifiers

§ 95. Adverbials are structurally more independent of the verb than objects. Their use is often optional. However, when introduced into the sentence, adverbials are of great communicative value. Thus in the sentence *Professor Brown is leaving for London to-morrow,* both adverbials *for London* and *to-morrow* give important pieces of information, although grammatically the sentence *Professor Brown is leaving* is

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complete.

Adverbials are obligatory when the sentence structure demands one or when their absence changes the meaning of the verb. This is the case:

a) A f t e r   t h e   v e r b s *to behave, to act, to treat.*

He behaved *bravely.* **He behaved* has no sense.
The Murdstones treated David *cruelly.* - Мердстоны жестоко обращались с Давидом.
The doctor treated David - доктор лечил Давида.

b) A f t e r   s t a t a l   a n d   d u r a t i v e   v e r b s ,   s u c h   a s *to live, to dwell, to wait, to last, to weigh.*

John lives *in London. (John lives* has a different meaning: *'he exists', 'he is alive'.)*
The lecture lasted *two hours.*

c) A f t e r   t r a n s i t i v e   v e r b s   i m p l y i n g   d i r e c t i o n ,   s u c h   a s *to put, to take, to send.*

Put the book *on the shelf.*
Take these letters *to the post-office.*

d) A f t e r   i n t r a n s i t i v e   v e r b s   o f   m o t i o n   a n d   p o s i t i o n   i n   s p a c e ,   s u c h   a s
to come, to go, to arrive, to return, to step, to sit, to lie, to stand.

Brett went *to the dressing-room.*
Robert was standing *at the window.*

The absolute use of the above verbs, that is without adverbials, is possible if the speaker is interested in the process itself or if the use of an adverbial is unnecessary because of the situation.

He was too weak *to stand.*
Everybody *has come.*

e) W h e n   a n   a d v e r b i a l   i n f l u e n c e s   t h e   m e a n i n g   o f   a   v e r b   f o r m .

I am going to the library *to-morrow,* ('am going' denotes intention, not an action).

f) W h e n   i t s   a b s e n c e   c h a n g e s   t h e   m e a s i n g   o f   t h e   r e s t   o f   t h e   s e n t e n c e .

Can you speak English *without making mistakes?*
I've never been there *since my childhood.*

Non-obligatory adverbials are those which are not necessary for the structure of the sentence. They neither influence the meaning of the verb form, nor change the structure or the meaning of the rest of the sentence, no matter how important they are from the communicative viewpoint.

She left the room *without saying a word.*
Before speaking he pressed the bell at his side.

Detached adverbial modifiers

§ 96. Detached adverbials being more loosely related to the modified parts of the sentence than non-detached adverbials are never obligatory. They are separated from the rest of the sentence by intonation in speaking and by commas in writing. Detachment of adverbials may be caused by various factors, the most important of which are their meaning, the form of expression, their extension, their position in the sentence, or the speaker's desire for emphasis. Owing to their structure and meaning, absolute constructions are nearly always detached:

Wesley saw the boat, *its decks deserted.*

Participial phrases as adverbials also tend to be detached.

She then returned to her place, *not having spoken another word.*

Adverbials are detached when they are placed m an unusual position, as in the following examples:

Like him, she saw danger in it.
Randall, *for all his tiresomeness and badness,* had always been her Randall.

Any adverbial may be detached if the speaker wishes to emphasize its meaning.

"He was her father," said Frances Wilmot, *gravely.*

Ways of expressing adverbial modifiers

§ 97. Adverbials are grouped according to their structure (ways of expression) and their meaning. There is no one-to-one correspondence between these two groupings, though we may observe certain tendencies in the ways of expressing this or that kind of adverbial modifier.

An adverbial modifier may be expressed by:

1. A n   a d v e r b   (s o m e t i m e s   p r e c e d e d   b y   a   p r e p o s i t i o n).

Jane sings *beautifully.*
George is *always* busy.
The ship sailed *east.*

2. A n   a d v e r b i a l   p h r a s e ,   w i t h   a n   a d v e r b   a s   h e a d w o r d .

We met *ten years ago* and parted *two years later.*
They worked *till late at night.*

3. A   n o u n ,   p r o n o u n   o r   n u m e r a l   p r e c e d e d   b y   a   p r e p o s i t i o n   o r
p r e p o s i t i o n a l   n o m i n a l   p h r a s e .

A dim light was burning in the archway *under the inner gate.*
Beyond it Mr Watson could see the outer gate.
Behind him he could hear Kirstie sobbing.
We met *in 1975.*
Classes begin *on the first of September.*

4. A noun without a preposition or a non-prepositional noun phrase, the latter usually containing such words as *this, that, every, last, next.*

Wait *a minute!*
Come *this way,* please.
We meet *every day.*

5. A non-finite verb form:

a) a gerund or a gerundial phrase.

Remember to open the window *before doing your morning exercises.*
One day, *on returning to his hotel,* he found a note in his room.

b) an infinitive or an infinitive phrase.

The problem is too difficult *to solve.*
We've come here *to ask you a favour.*

c) a participle or a participial phrase.

Sighing, Betty returned to the kitchen.
Pounding the house, they entered a quiet, walled garden.

6. A predicative complex:

a) a gerundial construction.

Are you angry *because of my being late?*

b) a for-to-infinitive construction.

The problem is too difficult *for a child to solve.*

c) a non-prepositional or prepositional absolute construction.

The meal over, they went to the fuel store.
There having been no rain, the earth was dry.
Earphones on, Fred sat alone in Ivor's room.
I don't want to quarrel *with the children listening.*

7. An adjective, an adverb, a participle, a noun, a prepositional phrase, an infinitive, an infinitive or participial phrase introduced by a conjunction.

I'll come earlier *if necessary.*
Her conduct *when there* was most unaccountable.
When argued with, Ida had one answer.
As a little girl she used to make daisy-chains.
I began to wonder whether he'd manage to give an interview *while still in his right mind.*

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He quickly did this, and *while doing it* dropped his umbrella.
As if to bring matters to a focus, Tess's father was heard approaching at that moment.

8. A Clause (as part of a complex sentence).

Won't you stay *till the rain stops?*
We stayed at home *because it rained.*

Structural classification of the adverbial modifier

§ 98. From the point of view of its structure the adverbial modifier, may be *simple, phrasal, complex, clausal.*

We started *early.*
We started *at five in the morning.*
John sat *with his elbows on the table and his hands clasped.*
When the cat is away, the mice will play.

Semantic characteristics of the adverbial modifier

§ 99. Semantically adverbials denote *place, time, manner, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, attendant circumstances, comparison, degree, measure, exception,* thus forming semantic classes, such as adverbials of place, time, etc.

The semantic class of an adverbial may be identified *directly* (absolutely) or *indirectly* (relatively). It is identified directly by lexical meaning of the word or phrase used as an adverbial, as in:

I saw him *yesterday.* (time)
She spoke *in a loud voice.* (manner)

In other cases the semantic type is identified relatively, that is, only through the relationship of the adverbial to the modified part of the sentence, as is often the case with participles, infinitives, and some prepositional phrases. Thus the phrase *with fear* functions as an adverbial of manner in the sentence *She spoke with fear* and as an adverbial of reason in the sentence *She shook with fear.* The phrase *Walking along the track to Buckmaster's* denotes motion in some direction, but in the sentence *Walking along the track towards Buckmaster's Bowen burst into song* it acquires temporal meaning and serves as an adverbial of time.

In the majority of cases, an identifying question may help to distinguish between adverbial modifiers from the semantic point of view. *When?* suggests time, *where? -* place, *in what case? -* condition, etc. However, it is not always possible to find an identifying question for every adverbial. Sometimes one and the same question word may correspond to different kinds of adverbials. Thus *how?* may suggest manner, comparison and degree. On the other hand such adverbials as those of result and attendant circumstances have no corresponding question words.

Semantic classes of adverbial modifiers

The adverbial of place

§ 100. This adverbial expresses:

a) Place proper.

John was born *in Australia,* but lives *in England.*

b) D i r e c t i o n   o r   d e s t i n a t i o n .

He moved *to Australia* in 1975.

c) D i s t a n c e .

He lives *far from his parents.*

The identifying questions are *where?* for place proper, *where to? where from?* - for direction, *where? how far?* - for distance.

The adverbial of time

§ 101. The adverbial of time has four variations:

a) T h e   a d v e r b i a l   o f   t i m e   p r o p e r denotes the time of some event. It may be expressed in almost all the ways enumerated in § 97.

> We shall meet *tomorrow.*
> *Ten days later* she returned.
> *When angry* count a hundred.

b) T h e   a d v e r b i a l   o f   f r e q u e n c y indicates how often the event denoted by the predicate takes place. It is mostly placed before the notional part of the predicate (if it is expressed by an adverb).

> I am *always* careful.
> We *often* see each other.
> Does he ever visit museums? - *Once* in a blue moon.
> He calls me *from time to time.*
> We have a get-together *every year.*

Adverbials of frequency are expressed by adverbs and adverbial phrases.

c) T h e   a d v e r b i a l   o f   d u r a t i o n indicates the period of time during which some event takes place. They are often expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions *for, during, since, till, until.* The preposition *since* denotes the starting point and the preposition *till/until* - the final point of some period.

> Have you been there *long? - A couple of hours.*
> They want to rest (for) *a day or two.*
> The sun gives us light *during the day.*
> We are to wait *till the end of the exam.*
> This has been going on *since our arrival.*
> He lived *to be ninety.*

Note:

The preposition *for* is optional after the verbs of duration.

d) T h e a d v e r b i a l o f t i m e r e l a t i o n s h i p p r e s e n t s t h e i d e a o f t i m e a s r e l a t e d t o s o m e o t h e r e v e n t i n t i m e . This adverbial is expressed by such adverbs as *still, yet, already, at last, before, after, by a noun, a gerund, or a prepositional phrase with the prepositions by, before, after.*

Thus the sentence *It was still raining* implies that *it had been raining for some time before.*
He hasn't given his consent yet means that *up to now we do not know anything about his consent.*
The train has left already means that *it has left by this time.*
He graduated at last suggests *after a long time or delay.*

Here are some other examples of adverbial of time relationship:

Promise to come back *by the end of the week.*
We'll see about it *after classes.*
Before answering the Boss stepped back to the chair and sank into it.

The same relationship can be seen in sentences with participial phrases, as in:

Arthur, *having read the letter twice,* put it in an envelope. (After he had read the letter twice...)

The adverbial of manner

§ 102. The adverbial of manner characterizes the action of the verb by indicating the way it is performed or by what means it is achieved. The identifying questions are *how? in what way? by what means?*

Adverbials of manner are mainly expressed by adverbs or prepositional phrases (including gerundial phrases) introduced by the prepositions *with, without, by, by means of,* or *with the help of,* the latter three suggesting means.

Hooper danced *badly,* but *energetically.*
She walked *with short quick steps.*
You begin learning a language *by listening to the new sounds.*
Thoughts are expressed *by means of (with the help of) words.*

Adverbials of manner may also be expressed by participial phrases and absolute constructions.

I looked up again and saw that *coming from the door behind Palmer,* she had entered the room.
She said the last words *with a voice lowered.*

Some adverbials of manner border on the instrumental object in cases like the following:

He opened the tin *with a knife.*

The identifying questions are either *How did he open the tin?* or *What did he open the tin with?*

The adverbial of cause (reason)

§ 103. The identifying questions, of this adverbial are *why? for what reason? because of what? due to what?* Adverbials of reason are expressed by prepositional nominal phrases, participial and infinitive phrases, sometimes by absolute constructions.

Most prepositions of reason are composite and the causal meaning of the phrase, and thus of the

adverbial modifier, is due to the meaning of the preposition, for example, *because of, due to, owing to, on account of, for the reason of, thanks to* and some others.

> You mean you've failed *because of me?*
> The accident happened *owing to bad driving.*
> *Thanks to my parents* I got a decent education.

A number of polysemantic prepositions acquire causal meaning when combined with nouns denoting a psychological or physical state.

> She couldn't speak *for happiness (anger, fear, joy).*
> She cried *out of fear (anger).*
> She did it *out of pity (spite).*
> Many people have come here *from curiosity.*
> He was trembling *with hatred.*

Participial phrases and nominative absolute constructions are freely used as adverbials of reason, most often with the verb *to be* and verbs of feeling, wish, or mental perception.

> I was happy *just being with him.*
> *Wanting a cigarette,* I took out my case.
> *There being nothing else to do,* we went home.

The adverbial of purpose

§ 104. This adverbial answers the identifying questions *what for? for what purpose?* It is most frequently expressed by an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or complex.

> Jane has come *to help us.*
> I've repeated my words *for you to remember them.*

The meaning of purpose may be emphasized by the composite prepositions *in order* or *so as,* which are never used before an infinitive complex.

> We must go early *in order not to be late.*
> We hurried *so as not to be late.*

The adverbial of purpose may also be expressed by a noun, a prepositional phrase, nominal or gerundial, introduced by the preposition *for.*

> We reserved this table *for lunch.*
> We use the thermometer *for measuring temperature.*

After the imperative of the verbs *to go* and *to come* another imperative is preferable to the infinitive, as in:

> Go *and help him.* (Not Go to help him.)
> *Come and wash up.* (Not Come to wash up.)

The use is optional for the verb *to see.*

Come to see me, or *Come and see* me.
Go to see him, or Go *and see* him.

The adverbial of result (consequence)

§ 105. The adverbial of result has no identifying questions. It refers to an adjective, a noun with qualitative meaning, or an adverb accompanied by an adverb of degree, such as *too, enough, sufficiently, so... (as).* The adverbial of result is expressed by an infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or complex.

It is **too** cold *to go out.*
The lecturer spoke slowly **enough** *for us to take down everything he said.*
He was fool **enough** *to believe it.*
John was **so** fortunate *as to get the first prize.*
He felt he was **enough** of a citizen of the world *not to mind it.*

The adverbial of degree *too* signals a negative result, *enough* suggests the necessary amount of quality to perform the action. The correlative phrase so... *as* implies a realized action, unlike the phrase *so as* before adverbials of purpose suggesting a hypothetical event. Compare these sentences:

John was **so** fortunate *as to get the first prize* (and he got it) - result.
John trained hours **so as** to get the first prize for boating (we do not know whether he has got it or not) –
purpose.

The adverbial of condition

§ 106. The identifying questions are *in what case?* or *on what condition?* The adverbial of condition is generally expressed by a noun or a pronoun, or by a prepositional phrase (nominal or sometimes gerundial) with the prepositions *but for, except for, without.*

But for you I wouldn't be here at all.
Except for the sound of his breathing I wouldn't have known he was there.
Without faith there can be no cure.

This adverbial is sometimes expressed by a participle or an adjective with the conjunctions *if* or *unless.*

Jane won't sing *unless asked to.*
We'll come earlier *if necessary.*

Less frequently it is an infinitive or a participle.

I would have done better *to have followed my first thought.*
Skilfully managed, conversation with him might prove amusing.

The adverbial of concession

§ 107. This adverbial expresses some idea that contradicts what is stated in the modified part of the sentence. Thus in its meaning it is opposite to the adverbial of reason. The identifying question is *in spite of what?*
The adverbial of concession is expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by *in spite of, despite, for all, with all* and phrases introduced by the conjunction *though.*

In spite of his anger John listened to me attentively.
Cleary, *for all his reputation,* was already out of date.
With all his faults, I like him.
Though a bad painter, he had a delicate feeling for art.

Note:

The conjunction *if* introduces concessive adverbials in cases like the following:

Your remark is witty, *if rather cruel* (...хотя и несколько жестокое).

Adverbials of attendant circumstances and subsequent events

§ 108. These adverbials have no identifying questions. The adverbial of attendant circumstances expresses some fact that accompanies the event presented by the modified part of the sentence. This adverbial may be expressed by a gerundial phrase, a participial phrase, any kind of absolute construction, and rather rarely by an infinitive phrase.

We walked three miles *without meeting anyone* (and did not meet anyone)
"No," said Gabriel, *turning to his wife* (and turned to his wife)
I dropped my fists and walked away, *"Scout's a coward" ringing in my ears.*
In the study with the door closed, he stood before the window, *smoking his pipe.*

The adverbial of subsequent events points out an event following the event presented in the modified part of the sentence. This adverbial is most frequently expressed by an infinitive, or sometimes by a participle.

He woke up *to see that it was daylight.*
They said something to her, *receiving no answer.*

The adverbial of comparison

§ 109. This adverbial is introduced by the conjunctions *than, as, as if, as though* or the preposition *like.* The adverbial with *than* is preceded by the comparative of the adverb or the adjective it modifies, the adverbial with *as* - by the correlative adverbs *as* or *so:*

A mountain is **higher** *than a hill.*
The boy is now **as** tall *as his father.*
Tom is not **so** tall *as his brother.*
Tom speaks French **as** fluently *as a born Frenchman.*
Tom speaks French *like a Frenchman.*

The difference between the use of *like* and *as* is important.
Ann talked to us like a teacher means that *Ann is not a teacher,* whereas the sentence *Ann talked to us as a teacher* implies that *she is a teacher* and in talking to us her professional manner was apparent.

The conjunctions *as if* and *as though* give the comparison a modal shade of meaning: They precede a participle, an infinitive, or a prepositional phrase, as in:

As if obeying him, I turned and stared into his face.

He prospered greatly, *almost as though against his will.*

The adverbial of degree

§ **110.** This adverbial modifies various parts of the sentence expressed by verbs, adjectives, adverbs and statives, characterizing actions, states and quality from the viewpoint of their intensity. The identifying questions being *how much? to what extent?*

Adverbials of degree are expressed mainly by adverbs and by prepositional phrases with the preposition *to.*

> The story is *extremely* long.
> All was planned *to the split second.*
> Now you may read *to your hearts content.*

Sometimes nouns can be modified by an adverbial of degree, as in:

> You are *quite* a man, my boy.

The adverbial of measure

§ **111.** This adverbial is expressed by a noun denoting a unit of measure *(length, time, weight, money, temperature).*

It is used after statal verbs denoting processes, states, or characteristics allowing measurement, such as *to measure, to last, to wait, to sleep, to walk, to run, to weigh, to cost.* Nouns as adverbials of measure are preceded by numerals or the indefinite article in its, numerical function.

> The room measures *30 feet across.*
> We walked *(for) five miles.*
> The box weighs *a ton.*
> The temperature went down *ten degrees below zero.*

The adverbial of exception

§ **112.** This adverbial is expressed by nouns or prepositional phrases introduced by the prepositions *but, except, save, but for, except for, save for, apart from, aside from, with the exclusion of.*

> I looked everywhere *except in the bedroom.*
> Your English is decent *apart from spelling.*
> The road was empty *except for a few cars.*

The prepositions *save* and *save for* are more formal and occur in writing, as in:

> These men were in fact quite civil *save during certain weeks of* autumn and winter.

Independent elements of the sentence

§ **113.** I n d e p e n d e n t   e l e m e n t s   o f   t h e   s e n t e n c e , as the term implies, generally are not grammatically dependent on any particular part of the sentence, but as a rule refer to the sentence as a whole. Only occasionally they may refer to a separate part of the sentence. The independent element may consist of a word or a phrase. Its position is more free than that of any other parts of the sentence and accordingly it may occur in different positions in the sentence.

There are two groups of independent elements:

I. D i r e c t   a d d r e s s . A direct address is the name of a person (or occasionally a non-person) to whom the rest of the sentence is addressed. It may be emotionally charged or neutral, but semantically it does not influence the sentence.

I'm sorry, *Major,* we had an arrangement.
Jenny, darling, don't say such things.
How's the world, *good friend?*

II. P a r e n t h e s i s . As to its meaning the parenthesis may be of several types:

a) It may express the speaker's attitude to the relation between what is expressed in the sentence and reality *(perhaps, maybe, certainly, of course, evidently, oh, Goodness Gracious,* etc.).

Undoubtedly you are both excellent engineers.
Surely he had too wide a mouth.
The cottages were, *in fact,* boxlike and rather towny.
Oh, we can't go.

b) It may connect the sentence it belongs to with the preceding or the following one expressing different relations *(first, firstly, secondly, finally, after all, moreover, besides, by the way, on the contrary, that is* (i.e.), *for example* (eg), etc.).

I was listening and thinking. *Besides,* I wanted to tell you something.
After all, he'd only been doing his duty.
Finally the whole party started walking.

c) It may specify that which is said in the sentence or express a comment *(according to my taste, in my opinion, to tell the truth, in other words, as is known, by the way,* etc.).

According to your theory, we're in a mighty soulful era.
To tell you the truth, the total was more than a thousand francs.

As a rule a parenthesis refers to the sentence (or clause) as a whole.

Frankly speaking, he had been amazed at his failure.
This streak of light was, *in all likelihood,* a gleam from a lantern.

Sometimes, however, a parenthesis refers only to, a secondary part of the sentence.

Miss Barlett might reveal unknown depths of strangeness, though not, *perhaps,* of meaning.

As to its morphological nature, a parenthesis can be expressed by:

1. A   m o d a l   w o r d :
perhaps, no doubt, indeed, certainty, in fact, evidently, maybe, etc.

Perhaps they would go soon.

2. A n   i n t e r j e c t i o n :

oh, ah, eh, dear me, by God, Good heavens, etc.

You like the outfit, *eh?*
Dear me, I had no idea you were such a determined character.

3. A c o n j u n c t (that is, an adverb combining the function of a parenthesis with that of a connector):
finally, anyway, consequently, besides, moreover, otherwise, etc.

But there's no chance here. *Besides,* he couldn't make two ends meet on the job.

4. A p r e p o s i t i o n a l p h r a s e :
in my opinion, in short, by the way, on the other hand, on the contrary, at least, to one's surprise, etc.

In my opinion you are wrong.
You can't make me! *In short,* I won't do it.

5. A n i n f i n i t i v e p h r a s e :
to tell the truth, to be sure, to begin with, to do smb justice, etc.

That was, *so to speak,* another gift for you.
To do that lady justice, Miss Spencer bore the ordeal very well.

6. A p a r t i c i p i a l p h r a s e :
frankly speaking, strictly speaking, generally speaking, etc.

Generally speaking I think you're right.

7. A c l a u s e (see the item on parenthetical clauses).
As *it was,* Nell departed with surprising docility.

WORD ORDER

§ 114. The words in an English sentence are arranged in a certain order, which is fixed for every type of the sentence, and is therefore meaningful. We find several principles determining word order in a sentence, so that word order fulfils several functions - **grammatical, emphatic,** or **communicative,** and **linking.** These functions are manifested in different arrangements of the parts of the sentence.

The grammatical function of word order

§ 115. The main function of word order is t o e x p r e s s g r a m m a t i c a l r e l a t i o n s a n d d e t e r m i n e t h e g r a m m a t i c a l s t a t u s o f a w o r d by fixing its position in the sentence. There exist two ways of arranging words - *direct word order* and *inverted word order.*

Direct word order

§ 116. The most common pattern for the arrangement of the main parts in a declarative sentence is **Subject - Predicate - (Object),** which is called *direct* word order. Direct word order is also employed in pronominal questions to the subject or to its attribute.

Direct word order **allows of only few variations** in the fixed pattern, and then only for the secondary

parts. Thus if there are two objects, the indirect one precedes the direct one, or the prepositional follows the direct one. Thus the pattern has the following form:

Subject - Predicate - ⎰ **Indirect object - Direct object**
                          ⎱ **Direct object - Prepositional object**

  The birds have come.
  Ann has seen this film.
  The boy gave me no answer.
  The boy gave no answer to me.

As to other secondary parts of the sentence, such as attributes and adverbial modifiers, their position is less fixed. Usually those words that are closely connected tend to be placed together. Accordingly secondary parts referring to their headwords are placed close to them, or are incorporated into, or else frame them up. Thus attributes either premodify or postmodify or frame up their headwords: a *bright* morning, the problems *involved,* the scene *familiar* to us, the *happiest* man *alive,* the *best* skier *in the world.*

Adverbials and different form words seem to be the most movable parts in the sentence. Their mobility is partly accounted for by their varied reference to different parts of the sentence.

The place of adverbials

§ 117. When referring to a verb adverbials may be placed in:

1. F r o n t   p o s i t i o n .

  Again he was late.

2. C o n t a c t   p r e p o s i t i o n .

  He *often* said it. He *occasionally* sees them.

3. I n t e r p o s i t i o n   b e t w e e n   t h e   e l e m e n t s   o f   a   c o m p o s i t e   v e r b a l   p a r t .

  He has *never* seen her.

The latter position is occupied mainly by adverbs of indefinite time and degree: *already, always, sometimes, often, hardly, still, just.*

In case the predicate includes more than one auxiliary or a modal verb and an auxiliary, the adverbial is usually placed after the first one, although it may also occur after the second one.

  This principle *must constantly be* borne in mind.
  It *must be constantly* borne in mind.

Adverbials may sometimes separate the particle *to* from the infinitive. This construction is called *the split infinitive.*

  I don't expect you *to thoroughly understand* it.

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4. C o n t a c t   p o s t - p o s i t i o n .

They are *never* on time.
He demanded *angrily* to see the manager.

5. E n d   p o s i t i o n .

Are you married *yet?*
Tom works *carefully,* but *slowly.*

Positions 1, 4 and 5 are usually occupied by adverbials of place, time (definite time adverbs) and attendant circumstances.

He left the stage *amid thunderous applause.*
In the evening we came *to the place again.*
He returned *from London.*

When adverbials refer to adjectives, adverbs, nouns, numerals, or pronouns they are usually placed close to these words, generally preceding them.

He is *quite* a hero.
Mother was *much* upset about it.

> **Note:**
>
> The adverbial expressed by *enough* always follows the adjective it refers to.
>
> Are you warm *enough?*
> He is a decent *enough* fellow.

For adverbials allowing of different reference (to a verb, to an adjective, etc.) any change of position may result in a change of meaning. Compare the following sentences:

Nearly all died. (They died with few exceptions.)
All *nearly* died. (Everybody was on the verge of dying.)

The place of prepositions

§ 118. The usual place of a preposition is between the words the relation of which it denotes. However, in some cases it may be placed at the end of the sentence. These cases are:

1. W h e n   t h e   p r e p o s i t i o n a l   o b j e c t   (a   w o r d   o r   a   c l a u s e)   i s   i n   f r o n t   p o s i t i o n .

This I can dispense *with.*
What he says you can rely *on.*

2. W h e n   t h e   p r e p o s i t i o n a l   o b j e c t   i s   m a d e   t h e   s u b j e c t   o f   a   p a s s i v e   c o n s t r u c t i o n .

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He was much laughed *at.*
The bed has not been slept *in.*

3. I n   q u e s t i o n s   a n d   e x c l a m a t i o n s ,   w h e n   t h e   o b j e c t   i s   p l a c e d   i n   f r o n t
    p o s i t i o n .

Who are you speaking *to*?
What a nice girl she has grown *into!*

4. I n   c o n t a c t   a t t r i b u t i v e   c l a u s e s   i n   w h i c h   t h e   o b j e c t   t o   t h e   p r e d i c a t e
    b e l o n g s   t o   t h e   m a i n   c l a u s e   o r   i s   o n l y   i m p l i e d .

It is the very thing I've always dreamed *of.*
It appeared better than we dared to hope *for.*

Inverted word order

§ 119. Another common pattern of word order is the inverted one (or inversion). We distinguish f u l l i n v e r s i o n (when the predicate precedes the subject, as in *Here comes the lady of the house)* and p a r t i a l   i n v e r s i o n (when only part of the predicate precedes the subject, as in *Happy may you be!).* Some grammarians also distinguish d o u b l e   i n v e r s i o n (when parts of the predicate are placed separately before the subject, as in *Hanging on the wall was a picture).*

§ 120. In some cases inversion may be taken as a normal order of words in constructions with special communicative value, and is thus devoid of any special colouring. In other cases inversion is a sort of reordering for stylistic effect or for emphasis. First we enumerate those cases where inversion is a normal word order.

1. Inversion is used **to distinguish between the communicative types of sentences.** With this function it is employed in:

a) G e n e r a l   q u e s t i o n s ,   p o l i t e   r e q u e s t s   a n d   i n   t a g   q u e s t i o n s .

Is it really true?
Won't you have a cup of tea?
You are glad to see me, *aren't you?*

b) P r o n o m i n a l   q u e s t i o n s ,   e x c e p t   q u e s t i o n s   t o   t h e   s u b j e c t   a n d   i t s
    a t t r i b u t e ,   w h e r e   d i r e c t   w o r d   o r d e r   i s   u s e d .

What *are the police* after?

c) *T h e r e* - s e n t e n c e s   w i t h   t h e   i n t r o d u c t o r y   n o n - l o c a l   *t h e r e ,* f o l l o w e d
    b y   o n e   o f   t h e   v e r b s   d e n o t i n g   e x i s t e n c e ,   m o v e m e n t ,   o r   c h a n g e   o f
    t h e   s i t u a t i o n .

*There **has been** an accident.*
*There **is** nothing in it.*
There **appeared** *an ugly face* over the fence.
There **occurred** *a sudden revolution* in public taste.
There **comes** *our chief.*

d) E x c l a m a t o r y   s e n t e n c e s   e x p r e s s i n g   *wish, despair, indignation,* or other strong emotions.

Long live the king!
Come what may!

e) E x c l a m a t o r y   s e n t e n c e s   w h i c h   a r e   n e g a t i v e   i n   f o r m   b u t   p o s i t i v e
in m e a n i n g .

Have I not watched them! (= I have watched them.)
Wouldn't that be fun! *(=* It would be fun.)

f) N e g a t i v e   i m p e r a t i v e   s e n t e n c e s .

Don't you do it.

2. Inversion is used as **a grammatical means of subordination in some complex sentences joined without connectors:**

a) I n   c o n d i t i o n a l   c l a u s e s .

Were you sure of it, you wouldn't hesitate.
Had she known it before, she wouldn't have made this mistake.

b) I n   c o n c e s s i v e   c l a u s e s .

Proud as he was, he had to consent to our proposal.

c) I n   t h e   s e c o n d   p a r t   o f   a   s e n t e n c e   o f   p r o p o r t i o n a l   a g r e e m e n t
(although inversion is not obligatory in this case).

The more he thought of it, *the less clear was the matter.*

3. Inversion is used **in sentences beginning with adverbs denoting place.** This usage is traditional, going back to OE norms.

Here is another example.
There goes another bus (туда идет еще один автобус, еще автобус идет).

4. Inversion is used **in stage directions,** although this use is limited to certain verbs.

Enter the King, the Queen.
Enter Beatie Bryant, an ample blond.

5. Inversion may be used **in sentences indicating whose words or thoughts are given as direct or indirect speech.** These sentences may introduce, interrupt, or follow the words in direct or indirect speech, or may be given in parenthesis.

"That's him," *said Tom* (Tom said).
How did he know, *thought Jack,* miserably.

Direct word order can also be used here.

6. Inversion is used **in statements showing that the remark applies equally to someone or something else.**

I am tired. - *So am I.*
He isn't ready. - *Neither is she.*

Note:

If the sentence is a corroboration of a remark just made, direct word order is used.

You promised to come and see me. - *So I did.*
We may meet him later. - So *we may.*

The emphatic and communicative functions of word order

§ 121. The second function of word order is t o m a k e p r o m i n e n t o r e m p h a t i c that part of the sentence which is more important or informative in the speaker's opinion. These two functions (to express prominence or information focus, and emphasis) are different in their purpose, but in many cases they go together or overlap, and are difficult to differentiate.

Prominence and emphasis are achieved by placing the word **in an unusual position**: words normally placed at the beginning of the sentence (such as the subject) are placed towards the end, whereas words usually occupying positions closer to the end of the sentence (such as objects and predicatives) are shifted to the beginning.

End position is always emphatic **for the subject.** Very often this reordering results in the detachment of the subject.

Must have cost a pretty penny, *this dress of yours!*

Fronting of an object or a predicative is also often accompanied by detachment.

Horrible these women are, ugly, dirty.
Many and long were the conversations they held through the prison wall.
For debt, drink, dancers he had a certain sympathy; but the pearls - no!

If the object is prepositional, the preposition may be put after the verb or verb-group, or else after the whole sentence.

This nowadays one hears not *of.*

However, front position of an object does not always mean that this part is emphasized. In some cases this sort of reordering is employed to get the predicate (or what is left of it) emphasized. *Talent* Mr. Macowber **has,** *capital* Mr. Macowber **has not.**

Front position is emphatic for adverbials (of time, manner, degree) usually attached to the predicate. It is often accompanied by inversion.

Well do I remember the day.
Many a time has he given me good advice.

With **words functioning now as adverbs, now as postpositions,** front position reveals their adverbial nature most distinctly, as postpositions are never placed here. With this reordering the emphasis is thrown upon the predicate.

Off he **went.**
Up they **rushed.**

For **attributes** emphasis may be achieved by putting them after their headword. In this way the modifier becomes the focus and has the principal stress of the word-group.

The day *following* was to decide our fate.

Note:

In assessing the emphatic effect of a postmodifying attribute we should bear in mind that for certain attributes this position is normal (see § 86).

However, the fixed patterns in English limit the opportunities to shift prominence or emphasis from one part of the sentence to another, especially for main parts. Therefore prominence and emphasis are generally achieved not by reordering, but by using special constructions. One such construction used for emphasizing the subject is the introductory non-local *there* + verb + noun, followed by an attributive clause.

There was **a girl** whom he loved.
There comes **a time** when one should make up one's mind.

Another device for shifting emphasis is the construction with the introductory *it*, the main information being supplied by the subordinate clause. By means of this construction emphasis may be thrown upon any part of the sentence, except the predicate. Such sentences are called *cleft sentences.* This can be illustrated by the following:

It was **she** who opened the door.
It is **not easy** to find a position.
It was **to Moscow** that she went.

Special emphasis on words functioning as direct or indirect object may be achieved by the use of the passive construction, in which the words to be emphasized are moved either to front position or closer to the end.
Compare the sentences:

The teacher gave the children *an easy task.*
The children were given an easy task *by the teacher.*
An easy task was given to the children *by the teacher.*

The linking function of word order

§ 122. The third function of word order is t o e x p r e s s c o n t i n u i t y o f t h o u g h t in sentences (or clauses) following one another. This continuity is often supported by demonstrative pronouns and adverbs.

Some people looked down on him. *Those people* he despised.
They must sow their wild oats. *Such* was his theory.
And, oh, that look! *On that look* Euphemia had spent much anxious thought.
Women are terribly vain. *So* are men - more so, if possible.

Similarly, for purposes of enumeration, a word (or words) marking continuity is sometimes placed at the beginning of the sentence, with the verb immediately following.

Next comes the most amusing scene.

THE PREDICATIVE COMPLEXES

Predicative complexes (or constructions) are structures intermediate between a phrase and a clause. Unlike phrases they contain two words I which semantically are in subject-predicate relations to one another, as one (the nominal part) denotes the doer of the action or the bearer of the state or quality, while the other (the predicated part) may be either verbal (an infinitive, a participle, a gerund) or non-verbal (an adjective, a stative, an adverb, a noun). But unlike clauses the subject-predicate relations in complexes are not grammatically explicit, that is there is no finite verb-form in them, functioning as the verbal predicate or as a link-verb of a nominal predicate. Therefore complexes have neither **real subject,** nor **real predicate.**

Still as they have two parts with subject-predicate relations between them the complexes may be transformed into a clause, as in:

I heard *him cry* ——> I heard *that he cried.*

Other peculirities result from their structural features:

The fact that they are devoid of the finite verb form renders them dependent on the embedding sentence, and the very absence of the finite verb form is sufficient to show their dependent status as will be shown in the case of different constructions:

It raining cats and dogs, we stayed at home (adverbial).
It is *for you to decide it* (predicative).
I saw *him cross the streat.* (object)

But in most cases the dependent status of the construction is manifested by special structural devices of linking:

1. It may be **overlapping** (наложение) when the embedding sentence and the complex share a common element, as in the case of objective predicative complexes:

I saw him enter this door.

where *him* has a double role, referring formally to the predicate of the embedding sentence *(I saw him)* and referring semantically to the complex, as it denotes the doer of the action (*he entered this door);* in such cases the construction functions as one part of the sentence (a complex object).

In some cases overlapping is possible with verbs taking a preposition, then the latter is retained between the verb and predicative comples:

We **listened to** him **talking** to his neighbour.

2. It may be **blending** (слияние), when elements of two structures blend into one syntactical part, usually i n t o   a   c o m p o u n d   p r e d i c a t e   o f   d o u b l e   o r i e n t a t i o n when two elements refer to different doers of the action, as in the subjective predicative construction:

He **is supposed** **to have arrived** already —> It is supposed (they suppose) that he has arrived already.

The first part of the predicate refers to an implied doer not expressed in the sentence, though formally it agrees with the subject *he*. The second part *to have arrived* refers to the doer expressed by the subject, though grammatically the reference is not expressed. The elements of the complex structurally make two parts of the sentence - the subject and part of the predicate of double orientation.

Predicative complexes comprise the following structures: subjective predicative construction, objective predicative construction, nominative absolute predicative constructions, for-to-infinitive constructions, gerundial complexes.

The first two constructions have permanent functions in the sentence, the functions of the last three may vary.

Due to the nature of the second part of the constructions (verbal or non-verbal) all the constructions (complexes) fall into two large classes:

1. **verbal constructions** and 2. **non-verbal constructions.**

I. **Verbal constructions** can be transformed into clauses with a verbal predicate:

We saw the storm approaching ————> *We* saw that the storm was approaching.

It raining cats and dogs, we stayed at home. ——> As it was raining cats and dogs, we stayed at home.

The train is reported to have landed. ————> *lt* is reported (They report) that the plane has landed.

II. **Non-verbal constructions** can be transformed into clauses too, but with a compound nominal predicate.

The door was painted green.——> The door was painted and it became green.
They elected him president.——> They elected him and he became president (and he is president now).
He stood there trembling with his face ablaze. ——> He stood and his face was ablaze.

Verbal constructions fall into two groups:

1. those containing an infinitive and 2. those containing a participle.

The infinitive constructions are:

the objective infinitive construction, the subjective infinitive construction, the for-to-infinitive construction
and *the absolute nominative infinitive construction.*

The participial constructions are:

the objective participial construction, the subjective participial construction, the nominative absolute participial construction and *the prepositional absolute participial construction.*

The subjective predicative constructions *

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* It is traditionally called *the Complex Subject.* The other term often used *the Nominative with the infinitive construction* does not embrace all variants, as the second element may be not an infinitive.

The subjective construction with an infinitive

§ 123. The construction consists of a noun (or a noun-pronoun) in the common case or a personal pronoun in the nominative case and an infinitive. The peculiarity of the construction is that the first element is separated from the second one by a finite verb-form which together with the infinitive forms a compound verbal predicate of double orientation, whereas the nominal part of the construction forms the subject of the sentence. Thus the construction does not function as one part of the sentence but falls into two parts each functioning separately.

Semantically of these two parts of the predicate only the second one refers to the subject, as only this part denotes either the action or the state of the person or non-person expressed by the subject. Thus in the sentence: *He is said to know five languages* it is the relation. *He knows five languages* that is important.

In between the subject and the infinitive there is a part of the predicate expressed by a finite verb which grammatically indicates subject-predicate relations. However, Semantically this finite verb cannot serve as the predicate of the subject, as it denotes some **comment,** or **estimate,** or **judgement,** or **conclusion,** or **attitude** to the action or state expressed by the infinitive. The comment or attitude comes from somebody not mentioned in the sentence, therefore such sentences can be transformed into complex ones with the indefinite-personal subject in the principal clause:

He is reported to have left. —————> They report (or somebody reports) that he has left.

The car was heard to turn round the corner. ——> They heard (somebody heard) that the car turned round
the comer.

The subjective infinitive construction is used with a limited number of finite verbs either in the passive or in the active voice:

I. V e r b s   u s e d   i n   t h e   p a s s i v e   v o i c e   f a l l   i n t o   f o u r   g r o u p s :

1) **verbs of sense perception** (*hear, see, observe, watch,* etc.). When used in the passive voice they are followed by a to-infinitive. They express the idea of evidence. The same idea is also rendered by some other verbs in the passive voice (such as *find, discover).*

He **was seen** to enter the building. (Somebody was a witness of this fact)
They **were heard** to quarrel. (Somebody heard them and therefore was a witness of their quarrel)
The boy **was found** to be sleeping at home. (Somebody found the boy and he was sleeping)

2) **verbs of mental perception** (*think, know, mean, believe, expect, consider, assume, presume, suppose)* With this construction these verbs denote different shades of expectation, opinion, judgement:

Pat **was supposed** to come with me tonight.
The Paliament **is expected** to introduce some changes into the laws.
Programmed instruction **is considered** to have many advantages.

3) **verbs of saying and reporting** (*say, report, declare, predict,* etc). These verbs also express some judgement or opinion:

Blackberries **are said** to have a lot of vitamins.
A new star **was reported** to have appeared in the East.

4) **Causative verbs** (*cause, make, order, allow,* etc.) The verb *to make* when used in the passive voice is followed by a to-infinitive.

Jule **was made** to repeat her words.
The doctor **was ordered** to change his shift.
No dam **was allowed** to be built in this part of the country.

II. T h e   f o l l o w i n g   v e r b s   a c e   u s e d   i n   t h e   a c t i v e   v o i c e :

1. **Verbs expressing subjective** or **personal attitude to facts and their evaluation** (*to seem, to appear, to happen, to chance, to turn out,* etc.).

The structure **seemed** to have been properly designed.
Your friend **turned out** to be stronger than we expected.
Everybody **appeared** to be enjoying themselves.
He **chanced** to be in the park when I was there.
I was to tell you the news if I **happened** to run into you.

2. **Modal phrases expressing different shades of probability or certainty** (*to be (un)likely, to be sure, to be certain, to be bound);* also adjectives or nouns with the link-verb *to be* expressing **estimate of different kind** (*pleasant, hard, easy, difficult, terrible, apt,* etc.). As probability mostly implies a future action the non-perfect infinitive is generally used after *to be likely.* With modal phrases expressing certainty both non-perfect and perfect infinitives are possible. The modal phrases *to be apt, to be bound* generally refer to habitual actions or states and are accordingly followed by the non-perfect infinitive:

We **are certain** to come to an agreement.
You **are not likely** to believe my story.
A strawberry, unless fresh-picked, **is bound** to exude juice.
These objects **are sure** to be wanted as evidence.
He **is** always **liable** to do idiotic things.
A girl **is apt** to be a little nervous on her wedding day.
Chrisis **is apt** to strike suddenly like influenza.

Subjective predicative constructions with non-verbal (nominal) second parts

These constructions structurally belong to the same type of subjective predicative constructions, but semantically they are different from those with verbal parts, because the second part of the predicate being a noun or an adjective denotes a **new quality or state acquired as a result of the action or denote judgement, opinion of the quality.** Because of its meaning the nominal part is sometimes called a *subjective predicative.*

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The door was painted **green.**
Suddenly **the door** was flung **open.**

Some verbs require the second part of the predicate with the preposition *as.*
The plan was declared **as ridiculous and absurd.**

The list of verbs used in these constructions partly coincides with verbs mentioned above as preceding the infinitive. Their number is limited.
T h e   f o l l o w i n g   v e r b s   a r e   u s e d   i n   t h e   p a s s i v e   v o i c e :

1. **Verbs of mental perception** (*to accept, to believe, to think, to consider, to expect, to presume, to estimate, to regard, to suppose,* etc.); also verbs of **saying** and **reporting** *(to declare, to describe, to call, to say, to report).*

He **is believed** as honest as anyone here.
The girl **was thought** clever.
The plan **is considered** impractical.
He **was called** 'rising', 'promising' before.

2. **Verbs implying that the result of the action will be a new quality, state,** or **reaction.** These verbs are rather numerous and fall into several subclasses:

A. Verbs with **causative meaning** *(to make, to render)*

The room **was made** comfortable for the child.
He was made a knight.
The audience **were rendered** speechless by these words.

B. **Verbs denoting an action resulting in the change of colour**
(to paint, to tinge, to dye, to stain, to dust, etc.).

The walls **were painted** light pink.
Her hair **was dyed** red.
After staying on the beach an hour his skin **was tinged** pink.
His car **had been dusted** grey by the journey over bad roads.

C. **Verbs denoting actions resulting in the change of social rank, status, function of, or giving identification to, a person** *(to appoint, to call, to christen, to elect, to raise, to select) to mark,* etc.); also *to train, to bring up,* which acquire the meaning of "the change of social status" only in this construction.

He was appointed secretary of the state.
The child **was christened** Fernando.
The road to the estate **was marked** private.
The boy **had been brought up** as a Catholic.

D. **Verbs implying movement to a different position or state** *(to bring, to fling, to set, to tear,* etc.).

All the windows **were *flung*** open.

The little bird **was set** free.
The envelope **was torn** open.

The objective predicative constructions*

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* This construction is often called *the complex object.*

§ 124. The objective predicative construction functions as **a complex object.** It consists of a nominal part and a part which stands in subject-predicate relations to the first part. The nominal part is a noun or a noun-pronoun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case. The second element of the construction is a verbal (an infinitive, participle I, participle II) or non-verbal (an adjective or a noun). Accordingly the following objective construction can be distinguished:

I. The objective with the infinitive construction:

I saw **Nick take** your book.
We hate **him to go away.**

II. The objective with participle I (or participle II) construction:

They heard **somebody knocking** at the door.
We found **him murdered** in his own house.

III. The objective with a non-verbal part construction:

I never thought **her clever.**

The objective with the infinitive construction

§ 125. This construction is the most recurrent as it may be used after a wider range of verbs, both taking a direct (*I didn't want **him to see** me here)* and an indirect non-recipient object (*We were relying **on him to put things right**)*; in the latter case the objective construction is introduced by the preposition generally used with this particular verb.

The objective predicative construction of this type is used after the following verbs:

1. **Verbs of wish and intention** *(to wish, to want, to desire, to choose, to prefer, should/would like, to intend, to mean).* Owing to the meaning of these verbs, the infinitive in the construction can be only non-perfect, as it denotes an unfulfilled action.

He **would like** *you to see him in his office.*
I **did not mean** *it to be told to her.*

2. Verbs of **emotion and attitude** *(to like, to dislike, to love, to hate, cannot/could not bear).* Those too can be followed only by non-perfect forms of the infinitive.

I can't bear *people to be unhappy or upset.*
I **hate** *you to go away.*

3. **Verbs of mental activity** *(to think, to suppose, to consider, to believe, to know, to find, to expect, to imagine, to understand, to assume, to acknowledge, to feel, to trust,* etc.). After these verbs the infinitive may be used in any form, depending on the time relation between the two actions:

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He **believed** *Jennie to be playing in the garden.*
I **supposed** *him to have been married to her years ago.*

If the action of the infinitive refers to the person denoted by the subject, the corresponding reflexive pronoun is used.

I **know** *myself to be rather slow.*

4. **Verbs of declaring** *(to declare, to report, to pronounce).* With these all forms of the infinitive are possible.

They **reported** *the plane to have been lost.*

5. **Causative verbs** *(to make, to have)* take a complex object with a bare infinitive, usually it is a non-perfect infinitive, as the action is the result of inducement. The verb *to gel* takes a complex object with a to-infinitive.

With other verbs of **inducement** *(to order, to command, to ask, to allow,* etc.) the objective with the infinitive construction can have only the passive infinitive.

She **would not allow** *the life of the child to be risked.*

Note:

If the infinitive attached to such verbs is active, it does not form a complex with the preceding nominal part; both the elements should be treated as different parts of the sentence, the first as an indirect recipient object, the second as a direct object:

He **ordered** him to come. (Whom did he order come? What did he order him?)

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6. **Verbs of perception** *(to see, to watch, to hear, to feel, to observe, to notice).* After these verbs a bare non-perfect active infinitive is used.

We **saw** *planes zoom into the air.*
They **felt** *the earth shake under their feet.*

After these verbs structures with the link verb *to be* are not used. Where the need arises, a subordinate clause is used.

I saw *that she was pretty.* (---/---> I saw her to be pretty.)

§ 126. As was mentioned in § 125 the objective with the infinitive construction may be used with a few verbs as their indirect non-recipient object. These verbs are *to wait (for), to rely (on), to listen (to), to look (for), to count (upon).* All of them except the verb *to listen* take the infinitive with the particle *to.* With the verb *to listen* a bare infinitive is used.

Can I really **count** *upon him to undertake the job?*
I **was relying** *on him to put things right.*
I **listened** *to them talk about me.*

The objective with participle I construction

This construction comprises a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case and participle I, which is in subject-predicate relation to the nominal part. In comparison with the infinitive in this position participle I shows more clearly the durative character of the action. The construction functions as a complex object.

§ 127. The objective with participle I construction can be used with verbs of three semantic groups, although with two of them it occurs very seldom. In all cases only non-perfect forms of participle I can be used. These groups are as follows:

1. **Verbs of sense perception** (see, hear, feel).

   There we **saw** *the crocodiles swimming about.*
   Over his shoulder he could **hear** *them snuffing.*
   I **felt** *tears running* down my chieks.

2. **Verbs of wish.** These verbs combine with the construction only occasionally.

   Nobody **wanted** *him going there alone.*

3. The **causative verbs** *to have* and *to get.*

   He **got** *them running his errands* every day.
   We'll **have** *them trembling with fear.*

The objective with participle II construction

§ 128. This construction shows that the action expressed by participle II **is** (or **was**) performed not by the person denoted by the nominal part due to the passive meaning of participle II for most verbs. However after the verbs *to have, to get, to want* participle II may denote an action performed at the request of the person denoted by the nominal part.
The objective with participle II construction can be attached to verbs of four semantic groups.

1. **Verbs of sense perception** *(to see, to hear, to feel, to watch):*

   We **heard** *the door shut.*
   They **watched** *him examined by the doctor.*
   I heard *my name echoed in the distance.*

2. **A few verbs of mental activity** *(to think, to believe, to consider, to remember).*

   At first she **thought** *Johnny killed.*

3. **Verbs of wish.**

   Nobody **wanted** *it done* in such a way.

4. **The causative verbs** *to have* **and** *to get.* With these verbs the construction means that the action of participle II is done for the benefit of the person expressed by the nominal part of the construction.

How do you think the men **would have** *their wounds dressed,* **get** *themselves washed,* **have** *their beds*
made if nobody worked on a Sunday?

The objective with participle construction attached to the verbs of this group cannot be transformed into object clauses because these verbs do not take object *that-* clauses.

Objective constructions with non-verbals

§ 129. Adjectives and nouns which form the second part of these objective constructions are in subject-predicate relations to the first part and show what the person or non-person expressed by it is or becomes, or what quality it acquired. Because of its meaning the nominal part is often called **an objective predicative.**

T h e s e   c o n s t r u c t i o n s   m a y   b e   u s e d   a f t e r   t h e   f o l l o w i n g   v e r b s :

I. Verbs of mental activity and sense perception, which acquire in this construction the meaning of **judgement, opinion** or **conclusion** *(to appreciate, to believe, to claim, to class, to consider, to condemn, to count, to deem, to esteem, to fancy, to feel, to figure, to imagine, to impart, to interpret, to judge, to look (at, on, upon), to perceive, to picture, to place, to pronounce, to recognize, to regard, to see, to sum up, to take, to think, to view, to visualize,* etc.); also after some other verbs *(to find, to discover, to welcome,* etc.) expressing the same meaning. Occasionally a non-verbal element is introduced by the prepositions *as* or *for.*

> He **judged** *her young and pleasing.*
> The girl **condemned** *herself as stupid.*
> They saw *him as the greatest man in Europe.*
> The town **esteemed** *him as a successful man.*
> I **figured** *you for a good guy.*

These constructions may be transformed into object clauses:

> I thought it a wonderful opportunity ——> I thought that it was a wonderful opportunity.

> He found his life dull ——> He found that his life was dull.

Several verbs of this group *(to consider, to deem, to feel, to find, to regard, to suppose, to think,* and some others) may take a complex object with the nominal part expressed by a verbal (an infinitive, a gerund) or by a clause. In this case the formal introductory object **it** is used:

> He **thought** it useless *going to Paris* .——> He thought that going to Paris was useless.
> **I consider it** possible to *talk to him now.*
> They **will think it** strange *that you should be frightened.*

II. **Verbs implying that the result of the action will be a new quality, state, social standing,** or **attitude to the action.** These verbs are rather numerous and form several semantic subclasses.

A. Verbs with **causative meaning** (*to make, to render, to hit, to have, to worry, to scare,* etc.) **implying**
change of state or impression, as in:

> This blow **made** *him crazy.*

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The sight of the animal **scared** *the boy stiff.*
His sudden appearance **rendered** *us speechless.*

B. **Verbs denoting the action resulting in the change of colour** *(to paint, to dye, to stain, to tinge,*
to

dust)

They **painted** *the door green.*
She **has dyed** *her hair blonde.*
The storm **dusted** *everything grey.*

C. **Verb denoting actions resulting in the change of social rank, status, function of, or giving identification to, a person** (*to appoint, to call, to christen, to elect, to raise, to select,* etc.) as in:

They **elected** him President.
They **appointed** him chief in the office.
I'll **raise** my kid a Catholic.
The parents **christened** the boy Paul.
They deliberately **selected** Elizabeth as an ideal mother-substitute.

D. **Verbs denoting motion, movement to a different position or state** *(to bring, to carry, to deliver, to*
fing, to kick, to march, to pick, to put, to send, to tear, to toss, etc.).

She **pulled** the drawer open.
I **tore** the letter open.
Christin **kicked** the door open.
The girl **clicked** her bag shut.

Most of the verbs in group II have a very general vague meaning, they are often incomplete without the adjective or noun denoting the result of the action. Therefore they are very closely connected with it, forming a set expression:

to make 〈
somebody   crazy (mad, happy, important, famous, an eager listener, restless, stunned)
something   invisible (concrete, interesting, handy, certain, clear)

to make oneself agreable (comfortable, cosy)

to set 〈
somebody   free
something   straight

to drive mad (crazy, desperate)

to leave somebody stunned (doubtful, weak, indifferent, blind, crippled)

to keep 〈
somebody   busy
something   clean (handy)

to consider 〈
somebody   responsible (famous, big, great, unique, a master, charming, pleasing, awful)
something   as possible (extreme, ridiculous, dreadful, a nuisance)

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to render ⎡ somebody   spellbound (speechless, motionless, blind, dumb.)
         ⎣ something   useless (hopeless, unimportant)

to have ⎡ somebody   as a teacher
      ⎣ something   clear (right, definite)

to count ⎡ somebody   an enemy (a friend, as the greatest man)
       ⎣ something   as useless (as ugly, as most attractive)

The absolute nominative constructions

§ 130. These constructions are called 'absolute' because they are not dependent on any other part of the including sentence, though they cannot be used without it, as they lack a finite verb form and thus have no predicate.

From the point of view of their transformational possibility, absolute constructions fall into two types, verbal and non-verbal ones.

I. C o n s t r u c t i o n s   w i t h   v e r b a l s   a s   t h e i r   s e c o n d   p a r t. When transformed into clauses they retain their predicate part, which takes a proper tense-aspect form.

*She sat on the porch, **Mary playing with her doll** ————> She sat on the porch, and (while) Mary was*
playing with her doll.

The clauses resulting from such transformations usually have a simple verbal predicate. If the second part includes a form of the verb *to be,* the predicate of the clause is, of course, a compound nominal one:

It being late, he went home ——> As it was late, he went home.

II. C o n s t r u c t i o n s   w i t h   n o n - v e r b a l s   w i t h   a n   a d j e c t i v e ,   a   s t a t i v e , an   a d v e r b   o r   a   n o u n   (w i t h   a   p r e p o s i t i o n)   a s   t h e i r   s e c o n d   p a r t. When transformed into clauses, a proper form of the link verb *to be* must be introduced, as these constructions lack a verbal component of their own.

He marched out of the room, his head high up ——> He marched out of the room, and his head was high
up.

Thus clauses resulting from the transformation of constructions of this type always have a compound nominal predicate.

§ 131. Absolute constructions may have two forms: non-prepositional and prepositional. The latter is introduced by the preposition *with* (in the case of the infinitive construction it may be *without).*

Dinner over, everybody rose.
He was slowly coming to us, *with his hands up.*

Non-prepositional absolute constructions

§ 132. Non-prepositional absolute constructions are: *the absolute nominative with participle I*

construction, the absolute nominative with participle II construction, the absolute nominative with the infinitive construction, the absolute nominative with the adjective construction, the absolute nominative with the adverb construction, the absolute nominative with a prepositional noun construction.

The absolute nominative with participle I construction is the most frequently used. It consists of a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case and participle I. Within it all forms of participle I are possible.

> *It being late,* he bolted the windows.
> Everything remained as she left it, *the fire still burning.*

As can be seen from the above examples, the position of the construction varies: it may either open the sentence or close it.

The absolute nominative with participle I construction is generally used as an *adverbial of reason* or *of attendant circumstances,* although sometimes it is an *adverbial of time.* Occasionally, especially with the verbs *to permit* or *to fail,* it is an *adverbial of condition.*

The construction should be translated into Russian by means of different corresponding adverbial clauses:

1. Of reason.

> *The weather being unusually mild at that time for the season of the year,* there was no sleighing —
> —>As
> the weather was...
> (Поскольку (так как) погода была...)

2. Of attendant circumstances. In this case the construction usually comes at the end of the sentence.

> With a yell, he sprang back, *a sweat coming on his skin* ———> *... and* a sweat came... (и кожа его покрылась потом.)

3. Of time.

> *The car having stopped,* the boys jumped out onto the grass ——> *When* the car stopped... (Когда машина остановилась...)

4. Of condition.

> *Circumstances permitting,* they will be through with it by the end of May ——> If circumstances permit... (Если обстоятельства позволят...)

The absolute nominative with participle II construction is usually an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances or time:

1. Of attendant circumstances.

> "Bye," he said, and walked away, *his farewell unanswered* ——> *...but* his farewell was unanswered,
> (...но его прощание осталось без ответа.)

2. Of time.

Dinner served, Mrs Marlow rang the bell ——> *When* dinner was served... (Когда обед был подан...)

The absolute nominative with the infinitive construction functions as an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.

There they remained, *some of them to be entirely forgotten* ——> *...and* some of them were to be entirely

Forgotten. (...причем некоторым суждено было быть полностью забытыми.)

The absolute nominative constructions with non-verbals differ from those described above in that their predicate part is verbless, being expressed only by an adjective, stative, adverb or a noun with a preposition. They are semantically in predicate relations to the nominal part of the construction. Therefore in case of transformation an appropriate form of the link verb *to be* must be supplied.

He stepped forward, *his face red with anger* ——> *...and* his face was red with anger.

I. **The absolute nominative with the adjective** construction may be an adverbial of attendant circumstances or of reason:

1. Of attendant circumstances.

She stood under the tree, *her head full of strange ideas* ——> *...and* her head was full... (...и голова ее
была полна...)

2. Of reason. .

Her heart full of despair, she could not say a word ——> *As* her heart was full... (Так как сердце ее
было переполнено отчаянием...)

II. **The absolute nominative with the stative** construction is usually an adverbial of reason or manner:

1. Of reason.

The gallery door slightly ajar, I could hear the steps of the soldiers ————> *As* the gallery door was
slightly ajar... (Так как дверь была слегка приоткрыта...)

2. Of manner.

This time the fish attacked from below. It hurtled up under the woman, *jaws agape* ——> *...and* its jaws
were agape. (...с открытой пастью.)

III. **The absolute nominative with the adverb** construction is usually an adverbial of time.

Tea over, she again summoned us to the fire ——> *When* tea was over... (После чая...)

IV. **The absolute nominative with a prepositional noun** construction is usually either an adverbial of attendant circumstances or time:

1. Of attendant circumstances.

I waited, *every nerve upon the stretch ———>...and* every nerve was upon the stretch. (...и каждый нерв
у меня был напряжен.)

2. Of time.

All in the room, she called in Molly ———> *When* all were in the room... (Когда все собрались в комнате...)

Prepositional absolute constructions

§ 133. There are prepositional absolute constructions with participle I or II, with an infinitive, with an adjective, with a stative, 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 participle I.

With his head aching from the slap of the bullet and the blood dripping over the ear, he went over to the
Frenchman ———> He went over to the Frenchman, his head was aching... and the blood was dripping...
(...голова у него болела... кровь сочилась.)

II. The prepositional absolute construction with participle II.

A Negro boy lay on the pavement, *with his throat cut* ——> *...and* his throat was cut. (...с перерезанным горлом.)

III. The prepositional absolute construction with the infinitive.

You'll lose the last minutes, *without someone to take care of you ———>...if* nobody takes care of you. (...если никто о тебе не позаботится.)

This construction is very seldom used.

IV. Prepositional absolute constructions with non-verbals.

1. The prepositional absolute construction with the adjective.
She hurriedly left the room *with her eyes red ———> ...and* her eyes were red. (...и глаза у нее были
красные.)

2. The prepositional absolute construction with the stative.
He stood there trembling, *with his face ablaze ——> ...and his* face was ablaze. (...и лицо его

пылало.)

3. The prepositional absolute construction with the adverb.
He turned away, *with his hand still up* ——>...and his hand was still up. (... все еще не опуская руки.)

4. The prepositional absolute construction with a noun.
They marched towards the square, *with little flags in their hands* ———> *...and* there were little flags
in their hands. (...с флажками в руках.)

The *for-to*-infinitive constructions

§ 134. The *for-to*-infinitive construction is expressed by a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case and an infinitive with the particle *to*. It is introduced by the preposition *for*. The construction may function as different parts of the sentence:

1. **Subject.** In this function it usually follows introductory *it* and is very seldom placed before the predicate.

It was practically impossible *for them to meet anybody*.
For one to spend a summer with them was a wonderful experience.

2. **Predicative.** The usual link verb is *to be,* although other link verbs are also possible.

That **is not** *for me to decide*.
What it all means **remains** *for an expert to say*.

3. **Object.** The construction can be used as an indirect non-recipient object of certain verbs *(to ask, to watch)* and adjectives (*anxious, eager, impatient, sorry, willing,* etc.).

I watched *for him to appear through the bushes*.
Everybody was impatient *for the experiment to begin*.

4. **Attribute.** In this function it modifies nouns or indefinite, negative, and universal pronouns.

She gave orders *for everyone to stop packing*.
There was nothing *for him to say*.

5. **Adverbial modifier:**

a) **of purpose.**

I rang *for you to show the lady out*.

Unlike the infinitive, the *for-to*-construction in this function can be placed only after the predicate.

b) **of consequence.**

The chance was too good *for Jack to miss it*.
The real cause of the explosion was evident enough *for everyone to discuss it*.

The gerundial predicative constructions

§ 135. The gerundial predicative construction is a predicative complex in which the nominal part is generally a noun/noun-pronoun in the possessive case or a possessive pronoun. Sometimes, however, it may be a noun/noun-pronoun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case. The construction may function as different parts of the sentence:

1. **Subject.** It is used either with or without the introductory *it.*

   Your doing nothing won't help anybody.
   Is **it** worth while *your quarrelling all the time?*

2. **Predicative.**

   The only way out will be *his taking the job.*

3. **Object.** The construction may be either a direct object to a verb or an indirect non-recipient object to a verb or adjective.

   She liked *his worrying about his wife.*
   He insisted *on my claims being acknowledged.*

4. **Attribute.** The construction is generally used with the preposition *of,* althougt other prepositions are also possible.

   The prospect *of someone else getting a job* moved them to strong moral indignation.

5. **Adverbial modifier:**

   a) of time.

      After his being away for some time the crisis came.

   b) of attendant circumstances.

      The car slid away *without my having to say anything.*

   c) of concession.

      In spite of it being cold the bushes swarmed with insects.

In this function the construction is always introduced by a preposition.

THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

§ 136. The composite sentence is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses. In its structure a clause is similar to a simple sentence, but unlike a simple sentence it forms part of a bigger syntactical unit.

Within a composite sentence clauses may be joined by means of *coordination* or *subordination,* thus forming *a compound* or a *complex sentence* respectively.

Coordination is a way of linking grammatical elements to make them equal in rank.

Subordination is a way of linking grammatical elements that makes one of them dependent upon the other (or they are mutually dependent).

1. The door of Henry's lunch-room opened, and two men came in.
2. I have come to you, because I know from reading your accounts that you are Mr Sherlock Holme's most
   intimate acquaintance.

These sentences may be graphically presented in the following way:

1. | The door... opened | ————and———— | two men came in |

2. | I have come to |

   | you because I know... |

   | that you are... |
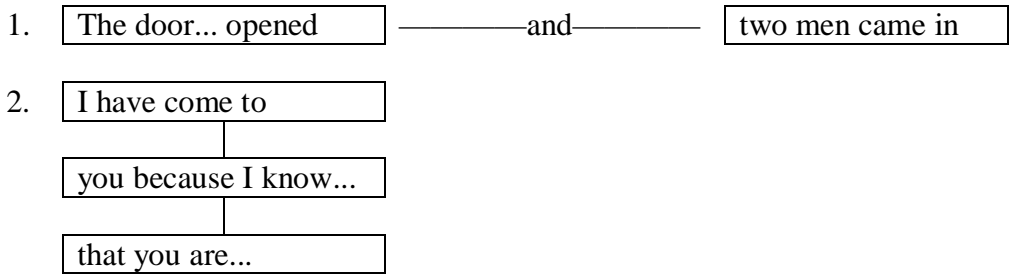
A compound sentence may contain coordinate clauses extended by subordinate clauses, and the resulting structure is a compound-complex sentence.

Pooh was very proud when he heard this, and he felt that Heffalump was as good as caught already, but
there was just one other thing which had to be thought about.

The scheme of the above compound-complex sentence
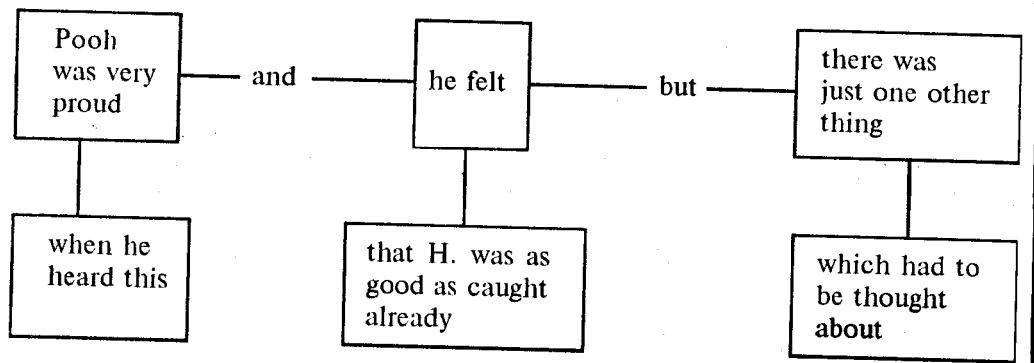
A complex sentence may contain subordinate clauses joined by means of coordination, the resulting structure being a *complex sentence with homogeneous subordinate clauses.*

I must impress upon you again that you are in a very great danger, and that the utmost frankness is necessary.

The scheme of a complex sentence with homogeneous clauses

```
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │  I must impress upon │
                    │      you again       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
                               │
          ┌────────────────────┴────────────────────┐
 ┌─────────────────┐                        ┌─────────────────┐
 │ that you are in  │                        │ that the utmost │
 │ a very great     │──────── and ──────────│ frankness is    │
 │ danger           │                        │ necessary       │
 └─────────────────┘                        └─────────────────┘
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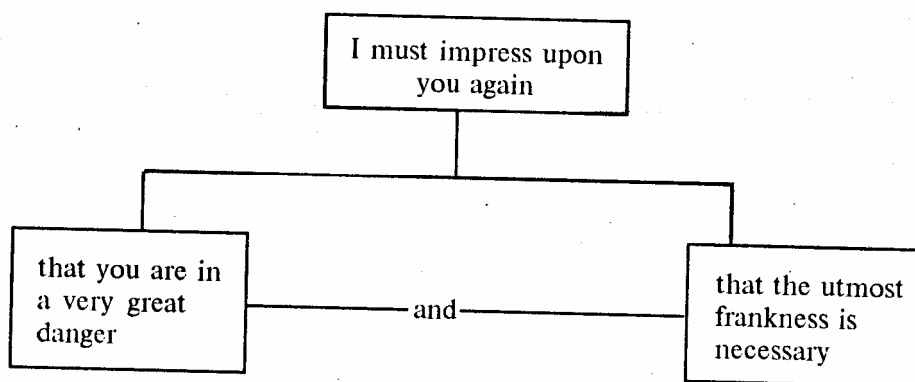
THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

§ 137. A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank which form one syntactical whole in meaning and intonation. Clauses that are parts of a compound sentence are called *coordinate,* as they are joined by coordination.

Coordinate clauses may be linked together with or without a connector; in the first case they are joined *syndetically.*

> Yesterday I bought a penny fiddle
> *And* put it to my chin to play,
> *But* I found its strings painted,
> *So* I threw my fiddle away.

in the second case - *asyndeticaily:*

> Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall,
> Humpty Dumpty had a great fall;
> All the king's horses, and all the king's men
> Cannot put Humpty Dumpty together again.

Syndetic coordination is realized with a number of connectors - **conjunctions,** such as *and, but, or, nor, for,* etc., or with **conjunctive adverbs,** such as *moreover, besides, however, yet, still, otherwise, therefore,* etc.

In writing coordinate clauses may be marked off by a comma, a semicolon, a colon or occasionally a dash. Sometimes they are not separated graphically at all. In speaking they are separated by pauses.

§ 138. The main semantic feature of the compound sentence is that it follows the flow of thought; thus the content of each successive clause is related to the previous one. Hence come two syntactical features of the compound sentence which distinguish it from the complex sentence.

The first is as follows. The opening clause mostly plays the leading role, and each successive clause is joined to the previous clause.

Note :

A sentence may begin with a coordinating connector, but in this case the whole sentence is joined to the previous sentence in the text.

> The first time Mrs. Moffat invited him to watch television with her, Simon declined. He would rather
> read, he said. *So* she gave him books, she gave him classics. ***But*** the books he craved were garden books.

The second feature is that the clauses are sequentially fixed. Thus a coordinate clause cannot change place with the previous one without changing or distorting the meaning of the whole sentence, as in:

> It was pitch dark, ***for*** the fog had come down from London in the night, ***and*** all Surbiton was wrapped in
> its embraces.

However the change is possible if the clauses contain description. The third feature is that coordinate clauses, either opening or subsequent, may belong to different communicative types.

> You may go, ***but*** don't be late for dinner! (declarative and imperative clauses)
> I had to leave at once, ***for*** whatever else could I have done? (declarative and interrogative clauses)

§ 139. From the point of view of the relationship between coordinate clauses, we distinguish four kinds of coordinate connection: *copulative, adversative, disjunctive* and *causative-consecutive.* The type of connection is expressed not only by means of coordinating connectives, but also by the general meaning of clauses conveyed by their lexical and grammatical content. This accounts for asyndetic coordination and for various uses of the conjunction *and,* when it expresses other relations - that of contrast or consequence.

§ 140. C o p u l a t i v e   c o o r d i n a t i o n implies that the information conveyed by coordinate clauses is in some way *similar.*

The copulative connectors are: the conjunctions *and, nor, neither... nor, not only... but (also), as well as,* and the conjunctive adverbs *then, moreover, besides.*

And is the conjunction most frequently used to realize copulative coordination. It may suggest mere **addition.**

> Then she went home *and* wrote Brody a thank-you note for being so nice, *and* she also wrote a note to the
> chief of police commending young Martin Brody.

The events described in copulative coordinate clauses may be **simultaneous** or **successive.**

> The black Cadillac made its hunting sound through the night, *and* the tyres sang on the slab, *and* the black
> fields stretched with mist swept by. *(simultaneity)*
> The front door to the house opened, *and* a man and a woman stepped out on the wooden porch. (*succession*)

Occasionally the second clause may contain some **commentary on the previous clause.**

> She was familiar with the petty social problems, *and* they bored her.

Owing to its vague copulative meaning the conjunction *and* may also link clauses with adversative or causative-consecutive connections. The meaning of the second clause is either contrasted to the first or

contains its consequence.

Why were her own relations so rich, *and* Phil never knew where the money was coming from for to-
morrow's tobacco?

In sentences beginning with a verb in the imperative mood, the first clause implies *a condition for the fulfilment of the action in the second clause.*

Take *these pills, and* you will feel better. (If you take...)

The conjunction *nor* joins two negative clauses.

I didn't recognize the girl, *nor* did I remember her name.

The correlative pairs *neither... nor, not only... but (also)* express mere addition, sometimes with accentuation on the second clause.

I *not only* remembered the girl's name, *but* I *also* knew everything about her family.

The conjunctive adverb *then* joins clauses describing **successive events.**

We went along the street, *then* we turned to the left.

Copulative connection may also be expressed asyndetically, the clauses so joined may describe simultaneous or successive events.

Our Elsie was looking at her with big imploring eyes; she was frowning; she wanted to go. (simultaneity)

§ 141. A d v e r s a t i v e c o o r d i n a t i o n joins clauses containing *opposition, contradiction* or *contrast.* Adversative connectors are: the conjunctions *but, while, whereas,* the conjunctive adverbs *however, yet, still, nevertheless,* and the conjunctive particle *only.* Adversative coordination may also be realized asyndetically. The main adversative conjunction is *but,* which expresses adversative connection in a very general way. The clause introduced by *but* conveys some event that is opposite to what is expected from the contents of the first clause.

The story was amusing, *but* nobody laughed.

But may join clauses contrasted in meaning.

The English system of noun forms is very simple, *but* the system of verb forms is most intricate.

The conjunctions *while* and *whereas* specialize in expressing *contrastive relations.*

Peter is an engineer, *while* his brother is a musician.
Some people prefer going to the theatre, *whereas* others will stay at home watching TV programmes.

Contrastive relation may be conveyed by asyndetic coordination.

Two or three scenes stood out vividly in his mind - all the rest became a blur.

Among coordinative connectives the particle *only* is frequently used to join clauses with adversative connection, mainly in colloquial English.

There was an electric light, *only* Arthur had not switched it on.

§142. D i s j u n c t i v e   c o o r d i n a t i o n implies a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. The disjunctive conjunctions are *or, either... or,* the conjunctive adverbs are *else (or else), otherwise.*

You can join us at the station, *or* we can wait for you at home.

The correlative *either* emphasizes the **exclusion** of one of the alternatives.

Either listen to me, or I shall stop reading to you.

The clause introduced by *or* may express a **restatement** or **correction** of what is said in the first clause.

We were talking about a lot of things, *or* rather he was talking and I was listening.

Coordinate clauses joined by disjunctive connectors may contain an **implied condition,** real or unreal.

Hurry up, *or* you will be late. (real condition implied) (If you don't hurry, you will be late.)

If the first part is negative, the implied condition is positive.

Don't be late, *otherwise* you may not be let in. (If you are late, you may not be let in.)
John is busy, *otherwise* he would be here. (unreal condition implied) (If John weren't busy, he would be
here.)
John is busy, *or* he would have come. (If John were not busy, he would have come.)
John was busy last night, *otherwise* he would have come. (If he hadn't been busy, he would have come.)

§ 143. C a u s a t i v e - c o n s e c u t i v e   c o o r d i n a t i o n joins clauses connected in such a way that one of them contains **a reason** and the other - **a consequence.** The second clause may contain either the reason or the result of the event conveyed by the previous clause. The only causative coordinating conjunction is *for.*

The days became longer, *for* it was now springtime.

A causative clause may be also joined asyndetically.

At first I thought that they were brother and sister, they were so much alike.

The conjunction *for* is intermediate between subordination and coordination. It is most often treated as a coordinating conjunction, because its semantic application is to introduce clauses **containing an explanation or justification** of the idea expressed by the previous clause.

The land seemed almost as dark as the water, *for* there was no moon.

Sometimes the consequence may serve as a justification of the previous statement.

John must have gone, *for* nobody answers the call.

A *for*-clause differs from a subordinate clause of reason in that it never precedes the clause it is joined to. If a sentence begins with *for,* it means that the sentence is linked with the previous one.

When I saw her in the river I was frightened. *For* at that point the current was strong.

Consecutive connectives are conjunctions *so, so that,* and conjunctive adverbs *therefore, hence, then, thus.*

The weather was fine, *so* there were many people on the beach.

So that is a conjunction intermediate between subordination and coordination. When used after a comma in writing or a pause in speaking its connection with the previous clause is looser and it performs the function of a coordinating conjunction.

John is unlikely to come soon, *so that* we'd better go home.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

§ 144. While coordination is a connection of two or more clauses of equal rank and function, subordination is usually defined as a non-symmetrical relation, that is, in a complex sentence with a minimal composition of two clauses, one is the basic element, whereas the other is a constituent or part of the first. The first one is called *the main* (or principal) *clause,* the second *the subordinate clause.*

Formal indicators of subordination (connectors)

§ 145. Subordination is marked by some formal signals contained either in the subordinate clause *(This is the news **which** he didn't know; You should pardon John, **as** he didn't know the rules; He was turning round the corner **when** we saw him),* or in both — the main and the subordinate clause *(He was as ignorant **as** any uneducated person is. **The more** he looked at the picture, **the more** he liked it).*
These formal signals may be conjunctions or connectives.
Conjunctions are specialized formal devices (connectors) the only function of which is to link clauses and express the relation between them. They usually stand at the beginning of a subordinate clause. The only exception to this rule is the complex sentence with a concessive clause, where owing to partial inversion the conjunction may come second, after the word which is the focus of concessive meaning *(tired **though** he was..., hard **as** we tried...).*
Conjunctions may be one word-form *(that, because, though,* etc.), phrasal *(in order that, providing that, for all that, so far as,* etc.), or paired (or correlative, that is, correlated with some element(s) in the principal clause: *as... as, such... as,* etc.). Some conjunctions may be used in combination with particles *(even if, even though, even when, just as, if only).*
Connectives combine two functions - that of linking clauses and that of a part in the subordinate clause: *He doesn't care what happens to us; This is **where** we live,* etc. *(what* has a linking function and at the same time is the subject of the subordinate clause; likewise, *where* has a linking function and is an adverbial of place).
Connectives are subdivided into **conjunctive words** (conjunctive subordinating pronouns and adverbs), which are used to join **nominal clauses** and **relative words** (pronouns and adverbs), used to

join attributive clauses. Some conjunctive and relative words coincide in form, and it is therefore necessary to give some criterion according to which the two types can be distinguished.

The difference between conjunctive words and relative words lies in their role within the sentence or clause. In the case of conjunctive words the choice is determined by the structure and meaning of the subordinate clause itself:

I don't know *who* he is. (*who* is a predicative: *he is who*)
I don't know *where* he is. (*where* is an adverbial: *he is where*)
I don't know *when* he will come next time. (*when* is an adverbial: *he will come next time when*)

In the case of relative words the choice depends on the antecedent: in the main clause:

This is the man *whom* we spoke about yesterday.

This is the book *which* I promised you.

This is the place *where* we live.

This is the time *when* we usually have dinner.

Formal indicators of subordination (connectors)
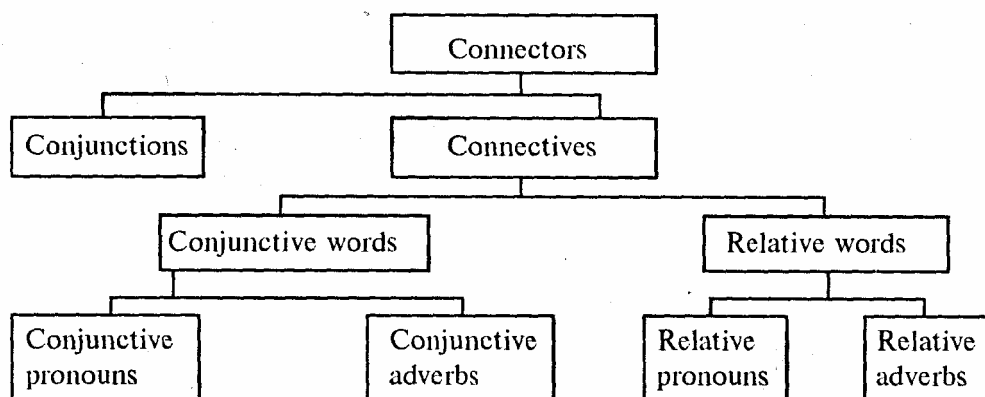
When clauses are joined by connectors they are said to be joined **syndetically.** If no special linking element is used they are said to be joined **asyndetically.** In some cases **inversion** is employed as a signal to indicate the subordination of one clause to another.

Some subordinating conjunctions are homonymous with prepositions *(like, fill),* some with both prepositions and adverbs *(after, since, before).* Some are homonymous with participles *(supposing, provided),* some resemble nouns and nominal phrases denoting time *(the very moment, the next time, the instant, the second)* or adverbs *(immediately, directly, once).*

§ 146. Although the relationship of subordination requires only two members, a complex sentence may consist of more than two clauses. It may form a hierarchy of clauses. This is called c o n s e c u t i v e or s u c c e s s i v e   s u b o r d i n a t i o n .

I see [that you have lost the key (which I gave you)]

Accordingly the structure of the sentence is:

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Main clauses ← Subordinate clause ← Subordinate clause

The main clause may have several subordinate clauses of equal rank, that is coordinated with one another. This kind of relationship is called *p a r a l l e l   s u b o r d i n a t i o n* or *c o - s u b o r d i n a t i o n ,* and the subordinate clauses are homogeneous.

I know *that you are afraid of me* and *that you suspect me of something.*

In this case the structure of the sentence is:

```
                    Subordinate clause
                           |
 Main clause              and
                           |
                    Subordinate clause
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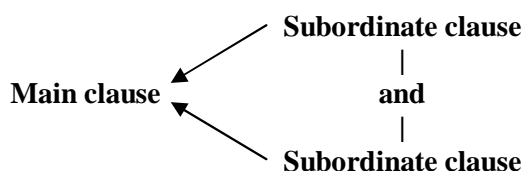
The main clause may have several subordinate clauses with different functions.

All *she saw* was *that she might go to prison for a robbery she had committed years ago.*

Main clause	←———————————————	Predicative clause
All... was...		*... that she might go to prison for a robbery...*
↑		↑
Attributive clause..		**Attributive clause**
...she saw...		*.. .she had committed years ago.*

Occasionally the two ways of joining clauses may result in a sentence of great complexity, when two or more main clauses are coordinated, each of them being the "main" in relation to their subordinate clauses.

The walls were panelled, *because this was the office of the department chairman,* and *because this department was physics,* the panels held small engraved portraits of Newton, Leibnitz, Faraday, and other
scientists.

Main clause	—————and———————	**main clause**
The walls were panelled		*the panels held small engraved portraits of... scientists*
↑		↑
Subordinate clause of cause...*because this was the office of the department chairman*		**Subordinate clause of cause** ...*because this department was physics...*
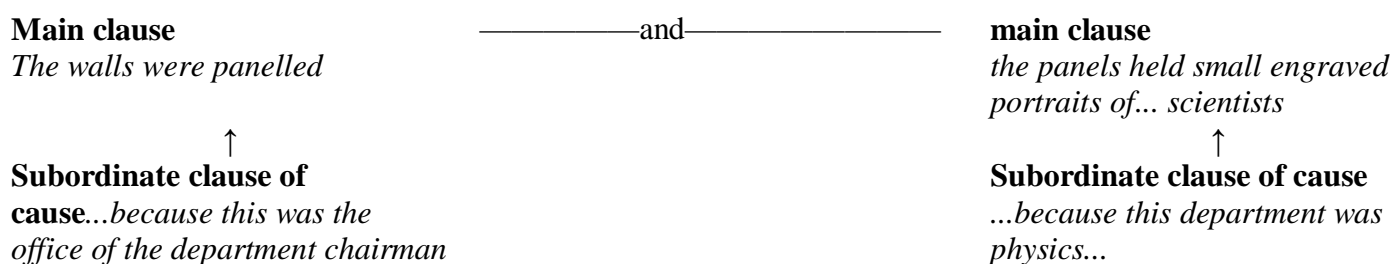
§ 147. Subordination is used to join clauses with a different degree of interdependence or fusion, in the same way as parts of the sentence are joined to one another with a different intensity of connection. Therefore some clauses - subject, predicative, most object clauses - are obligatory for the completeness of main parts, which are otherwise deficient. For instance, in the sentence *I think you are right* it is impossible to drop the object clause, as the part *I think* makes no sense. In the same way if we drop the predicative clause in the sentence *My opinion was that there was something behind,* the part left **My opinion was* is ungrammatical.

As can be seen from the examples given above, the role of a subordinate clause for the completeness of the main clause is closely connected with the function of the former.

Most adverbial clauses are optional, not essential for the completeness of the main clause. Thus if we drop the subordinate part in the following sentence, the part left will be identical with a simple sentence.

We'll have dinner at 8 o'clock, *when you come.*
We'll have dinner at 8 o'clock.

According to its syntactic function and the word it refers to, the subordinate clause may be placed before, after, or in the middle of the main clause. Punctuation also depends on these factors: if closely connected, a clause may be joined without any punctuation mark.

I know *he is here.*
This is the man *I told you about.*

If the connection is rather loose the clause may be commad off.

Should you see him, give him my regards.

In some cases, especially in the case of asydetic connection, a subordinate clause may be separated by a dash to mark the borderline between the clauses.

The evil simply was - *he had missed his vocation:* he should have been a soldier, and circumstances had
made him a priest.

Semantically the main clause generally dominates the subordinate clause, as it contains the main information of the utterance. However, there are cases when one part is as important as the other, and even cases when the subordinate clause is the central informative part of the sentence and the main clause is less important, introductory, maintaining only the immediate communicative connection with the listener:

I asked him *if he knew the man.*

There are cases when the main clause is relegated to a link-verb only:

What he says **is not** *what he thinks.*

Complex sentences are classified according to the function of the subordinate clauses (that is, according to their meaning and position in relation to the main clause).

Functional classification of subordinate clauses

§ 148. Subordinate clauses function as different parts of the sentence *(subject, predicative, object, apposition, attribute, adverbial modifier).* Traditionally these numerous types of clauses are arranged in three groups: *nominal clauses* (that is, clauses functioning as nouns in various syntactical positions), *attributive clauses,* and *adverbial clauses.*

The complex sentence with nominal clauses

§ 149. All nominal clauses have a function approximating to that of a noun or a nominal phrase. They may fulfil the function of a basic part of the main clause: *a subject clause* functions as subject of the main clause which has no subject of its own, *a predicative clause* functions as predicative to the link verb

within the main clause; *an object clause* refers to verbs in different forms and functions, to adjectives, statives and occasionally to nouns, and may be obligatory or optional. Another type of the nominal clause - *an appositive clause,* refers to a noun either with a very general meaning or requiring additional information and is therefore essential to the meaning of the sentence.

Owing to their essential structural and semantic role in the sentence, all nominal clauses are very closely connected with the main clause, and if such a clause is removed, both the structure and meaning of the sentence are changed or become ungrammatical. Because of the close relationship between the clauses the complex sentence is pronounced as one whole, and the subordinate clause is not commad off, unless it is much extended and contains constructions or detached parts.

Since nominal clauses function as essential structural parts of the sentence, their relations to the main clause are confined to such purely grammatical sentential relations as *subjective, predicative, objective* and *appositive.*

The complex sentence with a subject clause

§ 150. A subject clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, if, whether, whether... or, because, the way)* or connectives. The latter may be either conjunctive pronouns *(who, whoever, what, whatever, which)* or conjunctive adverbs *(where, wherever, when, whenever, how, why).*

<center>T y p e s   o f   s u b j e c t   c l a u s e s</center>

§ 151. Complex sentences with subject clauses may be of two patterns:

I. When a subject clause precedes the predicate of the main clause:

What I need is a piece of good advice.
Whether I talked or not made little difference.
Because I ask too many questions does not mean I am curious.
How the book will sell depends on its plot and the author.
That he is a madman in an advanced stage of mania goes without saying.
Whoever moved in next would need it more than I.

Subject clauses of this type cannot be joined asyndetically, as the opening words signal the subordinate status of the clause. The main clause having no subject is deficient in its structure and meaning unless joined with the subordinate clause. Thus the combination of words **is a good piece of advice* is neither complete in its structure nor in its meaning without the subject:

What you say is a good piece of advice.

II. When a subject clause is in final position, the usual place of the subject being occupied by formal *it:*

It seemed unfair to him *that he should suffer more than his wife.*
It is understood *that modern science allows such experiments.*

In exclamatory sentences the formal *it* may be only implied.

How wonderful *that they should meet at last!* (How wonderful *it* is...)

In this pattern of the complex sentence the subject clause may be joined asyndetically.

The complex sentence with a predicative clause

§ 152. A predicative clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, whether, whether... or, as, as if, as though, because, lest, the way),* or connectives. The latter may be conjunctive pronouns *(who, whoever, what, whatever, which)* or conjunctive adverbs *(where, wherever, when, whenever, how, why).*

The fact was *that he had forgotten about it.*
The only reason for my coining is *because I hoped to see you again.*
Our fear was *lest we should miss him in the crowd.*
That's *what he wants you to think.*

The choice of conjunction is closely connected with the meaning of the word functioning as the subject of the main clause. Thus the conjunction *because* is used when the word functioning as subject expresses **reason,** the conjunction *whether* — when it **expresses doubt or implies choice.** The connective *when* is used when the noun functioning as subject **expresses a temporal notion** (time, day, evening, moment) and the connective *where* is used when it denotes **a place.** Thus in the sentence given above *The only reason for my coming is because I hoped to see you again* the meaning of the subject *reason* predetermines the use of the conjunction *because.* In the same way in the sentence *The question is whether we can manage without him* the meaning of the subject *question* predetermines the conjunction *whether.*

This, however, does not mean that a certain conjunction is the only possible one, and that no other can be used after a certain word functioning as subject.

If the subject denotes **order, proposal, request, suggestion, arrangement, desire,** etc., the conjunction *that* is generally used, followed by a clause with the predicate in the subjunctive mood *(should + infinitive).*

The regulation was *that the first examination should be done in writing.*
Our proposal is *that you should join in.*
Their suggestion was *that no one should interfere.*

Predicative clauses with **comparative meaning** are introduced by the comparative conjunctions *as, as if, as though.*

It was *as though our last meeting was forgotten.*
Everything remained *as it used to be in this room.*
She looks *as if she were ill.*

Note:

Predicative clauses introduced by the conjunctions *as, as if, as though* should not be confused with adverbial clauses of comparison introduced by the same conjunctions. A predicative clause immediately follows the link verb, which does not express complete predication without the clause. In the case of an adverbial clause, the preceding verb is that of complete predication and the clause may be distant from the verb it modifies, for instance:

Mrs Abinger hated to be talked to *as if she were a child.*
The Frenchman nodded vigorously, *as though it were the most reasonable statement in the world.*

Predicative clauses may be joined **asyndetically.** In this case they are usually separated by a comma or a dash.

The result was, *his master raised his wages a hundred a month.*

As can be seen from the above examples, a predicative clause has a fixed position in the sentence - it always follows a link verb, with which it forms a compound nominal predicate. The link verbs used with predicative clauses are far less numerous than those used with the nonclausal predicatives. The most common are *to be, to feel, to look, to seem*. Less frequent are *to appear, to remain, to become, to sound, to taste*.

Types of predicative clauses

§ 153. Predicative clauses may occur as parts of two structurally different kinds of sentences:

I. They may follow the main clause in which the subject is a notional word, although it usually has a very general meaning *(thing, question, problem, news, sensation, evil, rule, trouble,* etc.). In this case the predicative clause discloses the meaning of the subject.

> The **rule** was *that they walked down to the cliff path and travelled up in the lift.*
> The **trouble** was *whether we could manage it ourselves or not.*
> The **problem** is not *who will go, but who will stay.*

II. 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.

> **It appears** *he hasn't been there.*
> **It sounded** *as if even the spring began by act of Parliament.*

Note:

Care should be taken not to confuse this last type of sentence with complex sentences with a subject clause, which also begins with *it*. In the latter case the predicate of the main clause is complete, whereas in the case of a predicative clause it consists only of the link verb. Compare the following sentences:

> It seems *that there is no cure.* (a predicative clause)
> It seems evident *that there is no cure.* (a subject clause, the predicate 'seem evident' is complete)

The complex sentence with an object clause

§ 154. An object clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, if, whether, whether... or, lest),* or connectives. The latter may be conjunctive pronouns (*who, whoever, what, whatever, which),* or conjunctive adverbs *(where, wherever, when, whenever, why, how).*
An object clause may refer to **any verbal form, either finite or nonfinite**

> Jon followed, wondering *if he had offended her.*
> I don't know *why I like you so much.*
> I left her to do *whatever she thought fit.*
> She often reproached herself *for what she had said.*
> He was terrified *that she would forget about it soon.*

An object clause may either follow or precede the main clause; it may be joined asyndetically and in this case it always follows the main clause.

Swithin said *he would go back to lunch at Timothy's.*
What she thinks it would be impossible to say.

Object clauses may refer to some **adjectives expressing perception, desire, feeling, assurance** *(certain, sure, sorry, pleased, desirous, jealous, anxious,* etc.), and to **statives** *(aware, afraid,* etc.).

Certain *that Hugh was really following the girl,* he had but to keep him in sight and remain unseen.
I'm very **sorry** *I disturbed you.*
He was **anxious** *lest somebody should guess his secret.*
He was **glad** *that no one was at home.*

After some adjectives denoting a *state (glad, sorry, happy,* etc.) the object clause may imply semantically the cause of that state. This similarity to an adverbial clause of cause may present some difficulty in analysing such sentences as:

I am very sorry *I disturbed you* ——→ I am very sorry because I disturbed you.

After **adjectives and participles denoting wish or intention** *(anxious, determined, interested,* etc.) the object clause may imply purpose: *I am anxious that you should succeed.*
Occasionally an object clause may refer to a verbal noun.

She had green eyes and a **spattering** *of what Joseph called American freckles* across the bridge of her
nose.

T y p e s   o f   o b j e c t   c l a u s e s

§ 155. Like objects in a simple sentence, object clauses may vary in their relation to the principal clause and in the way they are attached to the word they refer to or depend on.

1. An object clause may directly follow the word it refers to (a non-prepositional object clause). In this case it is p a r a l l e l   i n   f u n c t i o n   t o   a   d i r e c t   o b j e c t .

Jon wondered *if he had offended her.*
I know *when I am wasting time.*

A typical most recurrent type of object clauses is indirect speech following verbs of saying.

He said *he had never heard of it.*
He asked me *if I wanted to stay.*

Object clauses of this subtype are more informative than their main clauses, the role of the latter being relegated to that of introducing the source of information.

Like subject clauses, object clauses may be preceded by the formal *it,* usually after the verbs *to feel, to believe, to consider, to find, to take, to like, to insist on,* etc.

You may take *it that it is a genuine check.*
I like *it when people are nice to me.*
I insist upon *it that you tell me all the details.*
You are to see to *it that there should be no quarrel.*

An object clause may refer to formal *it* followed by the objective predicative after the verbs *to think, to find, to make, to consider,* etc.

I found **it strange** *that she could speak so calmly.*
I think **it necessary** *that you should go there at once.*
He made **it clear** *that his intentions were honest.*

2. Object clauses p a r a l l e l i n f u n c t i o n t o i n d i r e c t o b j e c t s are very rare. However, they are possible, the necessary condition for it being that the object clause should be followed by a direct object.

You may give *whoever you like* any presents.

3. There are also cases when an object clause functions like a c o g n a t e o b j e c t to a verb.

He and his mamma knew very few people and lived *what might have been thought very lonely lives.*

4. An object clause may be joined to the main clause by the prepositions *after, about, before, beyond, for, near, of, as to, except,* etc. (a prepositional object clause). In this case it is parallel in function to a prepositional non-recipient object. If a preposition is very closely attached to the preceding verb or adjective *(to agree upon, to call for, to comment upon, to depend on, to hear of, to insist on, to be certain of, to be sorry for,* etc.) it generally precedes the object clause.

I am not certain *of what he did.*
I want to be paid *for what I do.*

Some prepositions which would be indispensable before nouns or gerunds used as objects are not always necessary before object clauses.

We insisted *that he should stay with us.*
(We insisted on his staying with us.)
We agreed *that the experiment should be stopped.*
(We agreed *upon* stopping the experiment.)

The preposition is retained when there is a formal object *it* foilowed by an object clause.

We insisted **on it** *that he should stay with us.*
We agreed **upon it** *that the experiment should be stopped.*

The complex sentence with an appositive (content) clause

§ 156. An appositive clause may be introduced by conjunctions *(that, if, whether, as if, as though),* conjunctive pronouns and adverbs *(why, how).* They are not separated by a comma and cannot be joined asyndetically.

Unlike an apposition in a simple sentence, which usually gives another name to the person or thing designated by the antecedent, an appositive clause discloses the meaning of a noun (which is also called the antecedent) with a very general meaning, such as:, *thing, reason, point, moral, comment, remark, probability, idea, fact, consequence, feature,* etc. The following sentences can be given as examples:

The question *whether it was he or his enemy* was hotly discussed.

She had a strange sensation *as if something had happened.*
Andrew had a warm desire *that the conversation might continue.*
The question *how and why those people got the information* still worried him.

Appositive clauses may refer to a whole clause.

Cecilia at once noted **what Stephen in his preoccupation had not** *that Hilary had come to tell them something.*
She said it had only convinced her of **what she had known from the first,** *that the creature had low taste.*

The complex sentence with an attributive clause

§ 157. Attributive clauses function as modifiers to a word of nominal character, which is generally called *the antecedent.* Usually an attributive clause immediately follows its antecedent, although some types may occasionally be distant.

An attributive clause may be introduced by connectives - relative pronouns *(who, whose, whom, what, which, that, as),* or relative adverbs *(when, where, whence, wherein).* The choice of relative word depends on the categorical meaning of the antecedent.

a) If the antecedent denotes a living being, the relative pronoun *who, whom, whose,* or *that* is used.

A man *whose voice seemed familiar to me* gave commands.
Those of Big Lanny's friends *who saw him for the first time* had to be told that he couldn't see.

b) If the antecedent denotes a thing or notion, the relative word *which, whose,* or *that* is used; of these *that* is less formal.

At this **remark,** *to which he did not reply,* Gerald's ears grew hot.
He went to the next **house,** *which stood in a small garden.*
Clyde bowed and then took the cool **hand** *that Myra extended to him.*

> **Note:**
>
> *Which* may be used with reference to animals, although they are living beings.
>
>   He called back his **dog,** *which returned obediently to its master.*

c) If the antecedent is expressed by *all* denoting a living being the pronoun *who* or *that* is used; if it denotes a thing or notion only the pronoun *that* is generally used.

All *that remained* was to enter his name and send off the high entrance fees for the examination.

d) If the antecedent is expressed by *everything, something, anything* or *nothing* the relative pronoun *that* is generally used, or else the clause is joined asyndetically.

There was **nothing** in his face *that spoke of his character.*
Everything *that you may want* is in the wardrobe.
There was **something** in his low, languid voice *that was absolutely fascinating.*

e) If the antecedent is modified by the adjective *only,* the pronoun *any,* or by an adjective in the

superlative degree, the attributive clause is introduced by the pronoun *that* or is joined asyndetically.

The **only** object *that gave her satisfaction during those days* was the white monkey.
This is the **best** chance *that we have.*
She could jump at **any** opportunity *that she might have.*

f) If the antecedent is modified by the demonstrative pronoun *such,* the relative pronoun *as* is used.

She was playing the piano with **such** feeling *as couldn't he expected from a girl of her age.*

g) After the antecedent modified by *same,* several relative expressions may be used:

the same children as..., the same person who..., the same island that...,
the same time when..., the same place where..., etc.

h) Attributive clauses joined by the relative adverbs *when, where, whence, whereon* (rather obsolete) refer to antecedents designating spatial or temporal notions.

It is the **hour** *when we sleep.*
He turned to that huge **globe** *whereon were marked all discoveries of the moment concerning the origin*
of modern Man...

i) The relative adverb *why* refers to antecedents denoting cause or reason.

They see no **reason** *why they should not do so.*

Note:

As the word-forms coincide, care should be taken not to confuse relative pronouns and adverbs with conjunctive pronouns and adverbs, which are used to introduce nominal clauses. The difference between the two functions lies in that the relative words always refer to an antecedent, whereas in the case of conjunctive words there is no such reference. Compare the following three sentences:

That is the place *where we always meet.* (a relative adverb)
That is *where we always meet.* (a conjunctive adverb)
I know *where you always meet.* (a conjunctive adverb)

T y p e s   o f   a t t r i b u t i v e   c l a u s e s

§ 158. Attributive clauses fall into two types, depending on the degree of connection and the relation they bear to the antecedent:

attributive limiting (restrictive) clauses and *attributive descriptive (non-restrictive) clauses.*

§ 159. A t t r i b u t i v e   l i m i t i n g   c l a u s e s are very closely connected with the antecedent and cannot be removed from the sentence, because the information contained in the attributive clause singles out, determines, or particularizes the person, thing, idea, etc., expressed by the antecedent. Therefore the meaning of the main clause is not complete or is altogether changed without the subordinate clause. The lack of completeness is manifested by some **deictic elements** (determinants) before the antecedent (mainly articles, demonstrative pronouns, or words with a demonstrative or

particularizing meaning, such as *the same, the only, the best)*. The presence of such elements is justified only if the attributive clause is following. For example:

> A library is **a place** *where they keep books.*
> She had become aware of **the fact** *that she was talking loudly.*

In these sentences the main part taken separately is not clear because of the article which has a classifying (the first sentence) or a demonstrative force (the second sentence) and therefore requires some explanation in the form of an attributive clause or some context to make explicit what kind of place the library was, what fact was meant.

In some cases the dropping of the attributive clause does not make the main clause incomplete, but its meaning becomes altogether different from the meaning it has in the complex sentence. For example, compare the sentences:

a) Aren't you the young man *who married Fleur Forsyte?* (that particular man, Fleur Forsyte's husband)

b) Aren't you the young man? (that particular man known to the speaker and the listener, with no further

   information for the reader)

Limiting clauses may be joined by a connective with a preposition. These are analogous to prepositional attributes.

> This is the man *about whom we spoke yesterday.*
> She inclined more and more to that peace and quietness *of which Montague Dartie had deprived her in*
> *her youth.*

§ 160. Attributive clauses may be joined to the main clause without a relative word, that is, **asyndetically.** They are called *contact clauses.*

C o n t a c t   c l a u s e s are always limiting, for both the main and the subordinate clause complete each other. Thus in the sentence *The hum I had heard was the combined result of their whispered repetitions* the clause *I had heard* makes no sense unless the antecedent *hum* in the main clause makes the meaning of the predicate *had heard* (and thus the clause itself) complete, though formally the word *hum* cannot be considered as the direct object of the predicate. Some more examples of the same kind:

> He was a man *one always forgot.*
> I know where she kept that packet *she had.*
> I used to learn by heart the things *they'd written.*
> This is the kind of job *I'd like.*

As can be seen from the above examples, contact clauses are possible only in cases where the antecedent is semantically acceptable in the position of a direct object, prepositional object, or of a predicative in the subordinate clause.

> He was a man *one always forgot* - One always forgot such a man.
> I used to learn by heart the things *they'd written* – They'd written things.

Sentences in which the main and the subordinate clauses have a common part which functions as the subject in the subordinate clause are used nowadays only in dialects and in fiction to give the narration

local colour. These are called *apokoinu sentences:*

Perhaps it was **his scars** *suggested it* (his scars suggested it).
John's was **the last name** *would have occurred to me* (the last name would have occurred to me).
The next morning there was **a boy** *came to see me* (a boy came to see me).

§161. A n   a t t r i b u t i v e   d e s c r i p t i v e   c l a u s e is characterized by a looser connection with the main clause. Usually it contains additional information about the antecedent and may be left out without any serious change in the meaning of the main clause. Attributive descriptive clauses are generally commad off. They are joined by the same connectives as limiting clauses, except the relative pronoun *that,* and asyndetic connection hardly ever occurs.

The additional descriptive character of the attributive clause is determined by the fact that the antecedent denotes a definite person, place, thing, notion, etc. It is either specified by a limiting attribute, or is expressed by a proper name, or else denotes a unique notion (or one specified by the situation).

At this age, *which I judged to be near fifty,* he looked extremely young.
I returned to London, *where I remained for a week.*
I consulted my father, *who promised to help me.*
She was thinking how little the opening of this war - *which had started that morning at five-eleven with*
the *German army's marching into Poland* - was like the opening of the last.

The supplementary status of the attributive clauses can be illustrated by the following transformation of the first sentence given above.

At this age *(**and** I judged him to be neat-fifty)* he looked extremely young.

In formal English relative pronouns and adverbs introducing descriptive clauses may also occur in prepositional phrases opening the subordinate clause, for example: *according to which, instead of which, in spite of which, on which, of which, to whom, since when,* etc.; also within nominal phrases of the type: *the largest part of which, each of which, many examples of which, during which time, which fact,* etc. The relative pronoun approaches in its function the anaphoric demonstrative pronoun *this,* and the clause can be paraphrased by a coordinate or parenthetical clause. For example:

Then a breakfast was given in his honour, *on which occasion many speeches were pronounced* (and on
this occasion many speeches were pronounced).
The medicine was overdosed, *which fact caused the immediate death of the patient* (and this fact caused
the immediate death of the patient).

Note:

Compounds of *where* and a preposition, such as *whereby, wherefore, whereto,* etc., are now confined to extremely formal English only and are replaced in less formal style by *for which, by which, to which,* etc.

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§ 162. An attributive descriptive clause referring to a whole clause, sentence, series of sentences, or even a whole story is called *a c o n t i n u a t i v e* (o r   s e n t e n t i a l)   *a t t r i b u t i v e   c l a u s e .* It is generally introduced by the connective *which,* occasionally by *that.*

When the attributive continuative clause refers to a sentence, it may be separated by a semicolon, a

dash, or even by a full stop.

She lived in two rooms over a teashop, *which was convenient,* since she could send down for cakes and

scones if she had visitors. (...Что было удобно... поскольку...).

Several times he caught her looking at him with a hurt, puzzled expression, *which pleased his evil mood*

(...что тешило его злобу).

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause

§ **163.** Adverbial clauses are usually classified according to their meaning, that is, according to the relation they bear to the main clause. They differ from nominal and attributive clauses in that they are introduced by conjunctions with a more distinct meaning. Some types of adverbial clauses may be introduced by at least a dozen different conjunctions (as for instance adverbial clauses of time). On the other hand, many of the conjunctions are used to introduce more than one kind of clause *(as, since, that, when, now that).* In some cases the meanings and functions of the conjunction are so numerous that it is really difficult to say what the basic meaning of the conjunction is, as its function depends on the meaning of the clauses and their relationship.

Conditional clauses may be joined asyndetically, though they have link-inversion in this case. Here the meaning and function of the clause can be inferred only from the meaning of the subordinate and the main clause.

An adverbial clause may qualify the whole main clause, the verbal predicate or any verbal part, and also parts expressed by an adjective or adverb. Its position therefore varies: it may be initial, medial, or final -depending on the position of the part of the sentence it refers to and on the general structure of the main clause.

Women are very shy *when they are expressing their emotions.*
One day, *because the days were so short,* he decided to give up algebra and geometry.
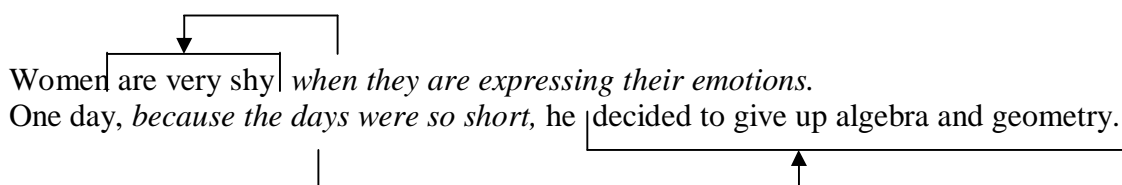
T y p e s   o f   a d v e r b i a l   c l a u s e s

§ **164.** According to their semantics we distinguish adverbial clauses of *place, time, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, cause, result.*

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of place

§ **165. An adverbial clause of place defines the place or the direction of the action expressed in the principal clause.** It may be introduced by one of the following conjunctions: *where, whence, wherever, everywhere (that)* and conjunctive adverbs with prepositions. A clause introduced by *wherever* can express direction as well as position.

He was standing *where he always had stood,* on the rug before the living-room fire.
From where he stood he could see nothing.
Wherever they came people greeted them enthusiastically.
Why can't we go *where it's warm?*
He took a chair *whence he could see the street.*

Note:

Adverbial clauses of place introduced by the conjunction *where* should not be confused with predicative or object clauses introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where* or its derivatives, or with attributive clauses introduced, by the relative adverb *where.* The descrimination is determined by the meaning and nature of the word the clause refers to.

> The young people went off at once *to wherever they were going.* (adverbial clause)
> I wonder *where you are hurrying.* (object clause)
> This must be *where my sister lives.* (predicative clause)
> Here is the house *where we stayed last year.* (attributive clause)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time

§ 166. An adverbial clause of time characterizes the action expressed in the main clause from the temporal point of view. The action may be expressed by a finite or non-finite form of the verb.

An adverbial clause of time may be introduced by conjunctions: *as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, till, until, after, before, since;* recently formed conjunctions and phrasal conjunctions: *the time (that), the day (that), the moment, the instant, next time, every (each) time, directly, immediately, instantly, once.*

Every conjunction in the above list imparts a particular shade of meaning to the temporal relation - *priority, simultaneity, succession of actions, the beginning or the end of the action, repetition, coincidence of two actions, gradual development of a process,* etc. These temporal relations can be illustrated by the following examples:

> *When a Forsyte was engaged, married, or born,* the Forsytes were present. *Whenever there was a pause,* he gently asked again. (The conjunctions *when* and *whenever* introduce clauses expressing repetition.)
> *As they stood up* Ivory clapped him on the shoulder. (The subordinate clause denotes the moment when the action of the principal clause takes place.)
> *While he walked around* Christine sat and knitted at a distance. (The predicate in the subordinate clause expresses a durative action, which coincides in time with the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause.)
> And *now that Cecily had married,* she might be having children too. Our hostess, *once everyone had arrived,* was full of good humour. (In both these cases the predicate in the subordinate clause expresses a completed prior action which fixes the moment from which the action or state expressed in the main clause becomes possible; therefore the subordinate clause of time has a shade of causal meaning.)
> *As they approached the house,* they became quieter and quieter. (Both the actions are gradually developing.)
> They were calling each other 'George' and 'Elizabeth' *before they reached Camden Town.* (The subordinate clause points to the moment before which the action of the main clause was in progress. The action of the predicate in the subordinate clause is posterior.)
> The heavy guns began again *soon after it was light.* (The action of the subordinate clause, which is prior, fixes the beginning of the action in the main clause.)

The conjunctions *till* and *until* introduce clauses which fix the end of the action in the main clause if the latter contains no negation, as in:

> She resolved to wait *till Clym came to look for her.*

If the time reference in the subordinate clause with *till* or *until* is to a commencement point, the main clause is always negative. For example:

He *did not say* a word *till he was asked.*
They *did not marry until she was forty.*
The boy *did not start* to read *until he went to school.*

Corresponding sentences with affirmative main clauses are impossible unless, the conjunction *before* is used.

*He said a word till he was asked ——> He said some words *before* he was asked.
*They married until she was forty ——> They married *before* she was forty.

The conjunction *since* may introduce a clause which indicates the beginning of a period of time continuing until now or until some time in the past. In the first case *the present perfect* is used in the principal clause, in the second *the past perfect.* In a temporal clause *the past indefinite tense* is used in both cases. For example:

I *have* only *seen* him once *since I left* school.
She *had been such of a companion* to him *since she was three years old.*

If the actions expressed in both clauses are durative and still continuing, *the present perfect tense* is used in both the clauses, as in:

Since *we have been* friends we *have* never *quarrelled.*

Conjunctions of recent formation have mainly been formed from nouns denoting time, although some are formed from adverbs denoting time. They are *the time, the moment, the instant, immediately, directly* and others. Most of them are used to introduce subordinate clauses denoting the exact moment of the action in the main clause or the quick succession of the actions in both clauses.

We'll be married *the very moment we find a house.*
Immediately he had lain down and closed his eyes, his consciousness went racing on without him.
Directly he saw me, he slipped back into the room.

Some of the temporal conjunctions are not confined to clauses of time. Thus *as* may be used to join clauses of cause, manner, concession, comparison and also to introduce parenthetic clauses. The conjunction *since* may introduce clauses of reason. The conjunctions *when* and *while* may express adversative relations, in which case they can hardly be considered subordinating conjunctions. *When* can introduce a clause containing a new piece of information, not prepared for by the preceding narrative, and thus indicates a quick succession of actions. The conjunction *whenever* generally expresses temporal relations, but the idea of time often mingles with that of concession.

At the sound of that knock she jumped up, *when the brass candlestick clattered to the floor.* (The conjunction *when* expresses the quick succession of actions.)
She left the room in the pursuit of her duties, *when no duty could have taken her away if she had wished*
to stay.
His life has been ruined for him, *when he is but one-and-twenty.*(In the last two sentences the conjunction

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when expresses a concessive relation.)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of manner

§ 167. Adverbial clauses of manner characterize actions, states, qualities, circumstances. Therefore they may have different reference. The most common conjunctions to introduce them are *as* and *the way.*

Adverbial clauses of manner may have different reference:

I. **Adverbial clauses of manner may modify the predicate of the main clause by attributing some quality to it.**

I'm sorry I talked *the way I did at lunch.*
She cooks the turkey exactly *as my mother did.*
He could do it *as no one else could have done.*

II. **They may refer to attributes or predicatives characterizing a state or quality of a person or non-person.**

Astonished, *as one could be in such circumstances,* he didn't give a sign of it.
He was puzzled by the situation, *as one could easily be in his place.*

III. **They may refer to an adverbial modifier, giving additional information or explanation concerning it.**

He said it with contempt, *as a grown-up serious man should treat such views.*

In the second and the third case the connection between the clauses is rather loose, and the subordinate clause is generally set off by commas.

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison

§ 168. Adverbial clauses of comparison characterize the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause by comparing it with some real or hypothetical circumstance or action.

Clauses of comparison may be introduced by conjunctions *as, like, as if, as though, than*; correlative conjunctions *as... as, so... as, as... as if.*

Swithin's pale eyes bulged *as though he might suddenly have been afflicted with insight.*
He spoke *as* timidly *as if he were afraid of me.*

An adverbial clause of comparison may correlate with adverbs in the comparative degree in the principal clause. In this case the clause refers to the predicate with its adverbial modifier. Thus in the sentence *Mr. Direct's broken wrist healed sooner than he desired* the subordinate clause characterizes the predicate group *healed sooner* through comparison. The conjunction *than* is correlated with the adverb in the comparative degree *sooner.*

The indicative form can also be used.

They don't have long intervals *like they do at other theatres.*

Note 1:

The difference between the use of *as* and *like* is important. *As* implies the idea of identification, as in: *Let me speak to you as your father ought to* (= I am your father and I am speaking to you in that character), whereas *like* implies the idea of mere comparison, as in: *Let me speak to you like a father might* (= I am not your father, but I am speaking in the way your father might).

Note 2:

The conjunctions *as if* and *as though* may also introduce appositive and predicative clauses, as the comparative meaning may combine with different syntactic connections.

She had a look *as if she had something in her mouth.*(appositive clause)
She looked *as if she had something in her mouth.* (predicative clause)
She looked at me *as if nothing was wrong.* (adverbial clause)

Clauses of comparison sometimes have inverted word order.

He was as obstinate *as were most of his relatives.*

Special mention should be made of cases when two subordinating devices are used to introduce a clause, usually a conjunction and a conjunctive word: *than whose, than which, than where,* or two conjunctions: *than if.* They bear double relation to the main clause, one of which is that of comparison.

He is never more present in my work *than when no image of him is there.* (comparative and temporal
relation)
The butler took his tip far more casually, far more naturally *than if Dicky had offered to shake hands with*
him. - чем если бы Дикки протянул ему руку (comparative and conditional relation)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of condition

§ 169. Adverbial clauses of this type contain some condition (either real or unreal) which makes the action in the main clause possible.
Adverbial clauses of condition may be introduced by conjunctions: *if*, *unless, once, in case.* There are also several conjunctions derived from verbal forms sometimes followed by the optional *that: provided (that), providing (that), suppose (that), supposing (that), considering (that), given (that), granted (that), granting (that), admitting (that), presuming (that), seeing (that).*
Conditional clauses introduced by *if* and other conjunctions (with the exception of *unless)* imply uncertainty. Therefore they often contain non-assertive forms of pronouns and pronominal adverbs, such as *any, anybody, anything, anywhere.*

If anything troubles you, you'd better tell me.
If anyone asks for me, tell him to wait.

Clauses beginning with *unless* express the only possible condition which will make the action in the main clause possible. Therefore they usually contain assertive forms like *something, somebody.*

Unless somebody interferes, there may be a disaster.

For the same reason *unless-clauses* hardly ever express unreal conditions.
The exclusive meaning of *unless* accounts for the fact that, even if the condition is real, the *unless-*

clause is not always equivalent to an *if-not*-clause. Thus the sentence: *I won't come unless you invite me* (я приду, только если вы пригласите меня) and the sentence *I won't come if you don't invite me* (= я не приду, если вы меня не приглашаете) are quite different in their meaning.

The conjunction *provided* opens a clause containing some desirable condition for the fullfilment of the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause.

And you can do what you please, *provided you do it neatly and don't make a row over it.*

The conjunctions *suppose* and *supposing* always imply that the condition is merely hypothetical.

I mean this: *Suppose some other European pauper prince was anxious to marry Princess Anna and her fortune,* wouldn't that Prince have an interest in stopping this loan of yours to Prince Eugen?

Conditional clauses may be joined to the main clause asyndetically by means of link-inversion. Inversion is possible only if the predicate in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood, that is expressed by past subjunctive (were), or by non-factual Past Perfect.

But had chance taken you out into the surrounding country and had it taken you in the right direction, you would have found him toiling along by the hedges...

§ 170. Depending on the relation between the subordinate and the main clauses and on the use of tense and mood forms, complex sentences with conditional clauses may be subdivided into three types:

I. **Complex sentences with clauses of real condition** are those when the actions or events in both the clauses refer to the past or present and these actions or events are regarded as real facts. If the actions or events in these clauses refer to the future, the actions or events are regarded as possible real facts.

If I have offended you, I am very sorry.
Why did he send us matches *if he knew there was no gas?*
If Jules comes back, simply defy him to enter - that is all.
I won't phone you, *unless something unforeseen happens.*

The conditional clause may be a statement for mere argument, no condition is meant.

If she got no money from her brother-in-law, she got what was as good as money - credit.
If Adrian had a passion, indeed, except for Diana Ferse, it was a burning desire to fix that breeding spot,

As can be seen from the above examples, the predicates in conditional clauses may be in the past or present indefinite, present perfect, present or past continuous.

> **Note:**
>
> In cases like the following *Let her come to me as she will, when she will, not at all if she will not; But I must run out for half a minute, if you'll let me* the verb *will* is not auxiliary but modal, as it expresses wish, insistence, or resistance (in negative form).

II. **Complex sentences with clauses of open condition.** These clauses denote hypothetical situations or circumstances which may be (or may not be) realised in the present or future. Accordingly the

subjunctive-mood forms are used both in the subordinate and the principal clause to denote actions or states.

In the main dause	**In the subordinate clause**
1. Analytical forms with *should +* / *would* │ *non-perfect* / *infinitive* (in Modern English the tendency is to use *would* for all the persons)	1. *The present subjunctive (be, go, see,* etc.) or *the past subjunctive* for all the persons in the singular and plural. Of these forms *be* and *were* can open asyndetically joined clauses.

In case the state of the patient *became worse* he *would be taken* to a hospital.
If I *were* you, I *would change* into another dress.
You *wouldn't be talking* that way unless you *were hurt.*

2. Quasi-subjunctive-mood forms with *may (might) + non-perfect infinitive*	2. *The non-factual past indefinite* and *past continuous.*

You *might ask* her this question if you were less scrupulous.
This *might seem to be unreal* unless I *saw* it with my own eyes.

3. The imperative mood.	3. Analytical forms with *should + non-perfect infinitive* (mostly with inversion).

Should he *ask* for references, *tell* him to apply to me.

Note:

The form *would + infinitive* in the subordinate clause may be not a mood form, but a compound predicate, expressing a polite request.

I should be much obliged if you *would agree* to take part in the concert (если бы вы согласились участвовать в концерте).

III. **Complex sentences with clauses of rejected condition** imply non-fulfilment of the condition, as the actions or events described in the conditional clause refer to the past and the time of their realization is over. The condition is generally not even supposed to have been fulfilled, but is stated merely for the sake of argument. The following mood forms are used;

In the main clause	**In the subordinate clause**
analytical forms	non-factual past perfect

should
would
might
(may)
could
} + perfect infinitive

If I *hadn't woken* you, you'd *(would) have lain* there for the whole fortnight.
She *would have been playing* her part well unless she *had been stiff* with fright.
I *might have persuaded* her to change her mind if she *had not been* so *obstinate.*
If the book *had been published* they *could have bought* a copy in the shops.

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Could he *not have missed* the train if he *had been detained* by the director?*

* The forms with *may (might)* and *could* are compound verbal modal predicates in the subjunctive mood.

The non-factual past perfect form may open an asyndetically joined conditional clause (with partial inversion).

Had the colour of the dress been to my taste, I should have bought it.
Had the world been watching, it would have been startled.

§ 171. A complex sentence with a conditional clause may be built on clauses of both type II and III, thus forming a mixed type of conditional relationship. For instance:

If we *hadn't been* such fools, we *would* all still *be together.* (the subordinate clause with reference to the
past - type III, the principal clause with reference to the present - type II).
If you were more attentive, you would't have made so many mistakes (the subordinate clause with reference to the present, as it implies somebody's ability to concentrate in general - type II, the main clause with reference to the past - type III).

Note:

Some of the conditional constructions may be used to join clauses expressing other meanings or admitting a two-fold interpretation. Thus *if* may introduce concessive clauses (see § 172), clauses in which the meaning of condition is combined with temporal meaning. The conjunction *in case* may introduce clauses of negative purpose, as in:

I went and ate sandwiches in the woods, *in case one of the servants should see me on the lawn from the*
window... (чтобы кто-нибудь из слуг не увидел...)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession

§ 172. In complex sentences with concessive clauses there is a contrast between the content of the main clause and that of the subordinate one: 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: *although, though, if;* c o r r e l a t i v e c o n j u n c t i o n s : *though...yet, whether...or;* c o n j u n c t i v e p r o n o u n s o r a d v e r b s : *whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever* (which may stand for almost any part of the sentence), *as,* or c o m p o s i t e c o n j u n c t i o n s : *no matter how, no matter what, for all that, despite that, in spite of the fact, despite the fact, even if, even though, even when.*

The abundance of means for expressing concessive relations is determined not only by the necessity to differentiate various shades of meaning, but also by the fact that different parts may form the focus of the concessive meaning:

However **cynical** he was –	(The focus is the predicative.)
Сколь бы циничен он ни был...,	
Late as it was –	"-"-"
Хотя было поздно...,	
как бы ни было поздно...,	
Try as he might –	(The focus is the notional
Как бы он ни старался...,	part of the predicate.)

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хотя он и старался работать...,
Whoever may come –   (The focus is the subject.)
Кто бы ни пришел...,

Compound conjunctive pronouns and adverbs *(whoever, whenever,* etc.) impart universal or indefinite meaning to the clause they introduce. Contrast the following sentences:

a) *Whenever you come* send me a note (any time when...).

b) *When you come* send me a note (the definite time when...).

There is some similarity between clauses of condition and concession. The difference lies in the fact that whereas conditional clauses state **the dependence** of one action or circumstance on another, concessive clauses imply **a contrast** or **lack of dependence** between them. Thus the following sentences with concessive clauses

Although the weather was bad, he went for a walk.
Although the weather was fine, he did not go for a walk (the second statement is surprising in the light of
the first),

may be rephrased using coordinate clauses joined by the contrastive *but.*

The weather was bad, *but* he went for a walk.
The weather was fine, *but* he did not go for a walk.

In complex sentences with a conditional clause the dependence has no contrast.

If the weather was fine he went for a walk. (The second statement results from the first.)

Note 1:

However, contrastive meaning is not characteristic of all types of concessive clauses. There are three types of concessive clauses, which differ in the relation they bear to the principal clause and in the way they are connected.

I. Clauses of **admitted concession** (придаточные уступительные со значением допущения).

Though there might be many obstacles to overcome, he faithfully believed in future.
Though all efforts fail, we shall never surrender.
Though war and danger were in store, war and danger might not befall for months to come.

Concessive clauses introduced by compound pronouns and adverbs in *-ever* are never adversative to the main clause in their content, as they suggest a choice from among a number of possibilities.

Whoever he may be, he seems to be an honest man at least.
Wherever you live, you can keep a cat.
Whatever your problems are, they can't be worse than mine.
Whatever guests you invite, they are welcome.

Clauses of admitted concession may have inverted word order; inversion is possible both with the

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conjunctions *though* and *as,* which in this case occur in non-initial position (after the predicative), and with conjunctive words.

> Josephine could always eat, *however excited she was* (though she was excited).
> *Dark as it was getting,* I could still see these changes (though it was getting dark).
> *Miraculous though it seemed to be,* there was no miracle in their survival (though it seemed to be miraculous).

The connective *however,* besides being a linking element, functions also as an adverbial modifier of degree referring to the predicative *(however excited she was).*

Note 2:

Sometimes clauses concessive in form have a non-concessive meaning of cause or attendant circumstance.

> The sergeant, *fool as he was,* couldn't see the point (because he was a fool, being a fool).

II. **Clauses of open concession** (придаточные уступительные со значением гипотетического допущения). Clauses of this type express an unreal condition, despite which the action in the principal clause is carried out. The predicate in the subordinate clause may be in the indicative or in the subjunctive mood (in the latter case the quasi-subjunctive forms with *may* and *might* are generally used).

> *Whatever may be the shortcomings and defects of the present treatment,* it is vain to attempt to extenuate
> or excuse them in a short preface.
> *However much advice you give him,* he does exactly what he wants.

III. **Clauses of disjunctive or alternative concession** (придаточные уступительные со значением альтернативы). These clauses admit two possible alternatives, both of which may be unreal, or may refer to the future. As can be seen from the examples given below, the contrast between the principal and the subordinate clause or clauses is weaker, as there are two alternatives, neither of which can be considered as an acceptable condition.

> "Coward!" he repeated. "Coward, am I? Then I'll be a coward, and you shall kiss me *whether you will or*
> *not*!"

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose

§ 173. Clauses of purpose generally express the purpose of the action, which is stated in the main clause. The verb-predicate in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive mood as it expresses a planned but not a real action. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that.*

> I trode on an edging of turf *that the crackle of the pebbly gravel might not betray me.*
> I tell you all this *so that you may understand me perfectly.*

The conjunctions *lest* and *for fear (that)* introduce clauses stating what is to be prevented, as botli the conjunctions have a negative meaning. *Lest* is now extremely formal and after this conjunction the analytical subjunctive with *should* auxiliary is generally used.

He was like a man who is afraid to look behind him *lest he should see something there which ought not to*
be there.
 "It's a bit lighter in the park," he said, "but take it (an electric torch) *for fear you get off the path.*"

In some cases the meaning of purpose in clauses introduced by *lest* and *for fear that* is weakened so that the clause expresses rather general motivation than purpose, or else an outcome of the action in the main clause, as in:

Lest the wall should collapse, they evacuated the building. (They did not evacuate the building with the
purpose of causing the wall to collapse.)
Better chain up the dog *for fear he bites.*

Note:

The conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so* are not confined only to clauses of purpose: *that* may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, and object clauses;
so that may introduce clauses of result, *lest* - clauses of cause, subject clauses, predicative clauses and object clauses; *so* - clauses of result and of cause.

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of cause

§ 174. Adverbial clauses of cause (or causative clauses) express 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 *as, because, since, so, that, lest, seeing (that), considering;* or by the composite conjunctions *for the reason that, in view of the fact that, in so far as (insofar as), by reason of.* Of these the conjunction *as* is preferable when the sentence opens with a clause of cause.

As he was tired he preferred to stay at home.
Since there is no help, let us try and bear it as best we can.
They went down arm-in-arm - James with Imogen, *because his pretty grandchild cheered him.*
In so far as it is difficult to assign an external cause to certain happenings, they are written off as uncaused or spontaneous.

As can be seen from the above examples, the causative clause may stand in preposition to the main clause, or follow it. It may also be embedded within the main clause, as in:

She loved to give, *since she had plenty,* and sent presents here and there to Lilian, the children, and others.

Each of the conjunctions and conjunctive phrases expresses a certain shade of causative meaning, and so they are not always interchangeable. *Because* usually introduces clauses with the meaning of real cause. This can be illustrated by the ability of *because-causes* (but not others) to be included in questions. Thus it is correct to say:

Did you ask him *because he was famous* or for another reason?

But it is wrong to say: *Did you ask him since he was famous...?*

Unlike *because,* the conjunctions *since* and *as* introduce clauses with an explanatory meaning, or else that of motivation.

Since you are here, we may begin our talk.

The other reason why causal conjunctions, though synonymous, are not always interchangeable with *because,* is that some of them are polyfunctional: *as* and *since* may be conjunctions of time, as well as of cause. For example:

His mood changed *as they marched down to the clocks,* (temporal relation)

Note 1:

Causative relation may be found in compound sentences with the coordinating conjunction *for.* Its coordinate character is unmistakably shown by the fact that the clause with *for* cannot stand before the other half of the sentence.

Note 2:

Some causative conjunctions *(as, because)* may connect their clause to the main clause rather loosely, in which case the relation between the clauses is similar to coordination (such clauses may even be independent sentences). The causative clause generally expresses some grounds on which we can judge of the truthfulness of some idea expressed in the main clause, as in:

He was, I presume, a relative of the coachman's, *as he lay atop of the luggage, with his face towards the*
    rain.

Here the subordinate clause *as he lay atop of the luggage, with his face towards the rain,* does not express the cause, but gives some grounds which serve to prove the truthfulness of the supposition expressed in the main clause.

I must have been very weak at the time; *because I know, after the first half hour or so, I seemed to take*
    no interest whatever in my food.

In this sentence the first clause is separated by a semicolon, which is not typical of subordination and is a mark of loose connection.

In colloquial English a clause of cause may be joined rather loosely to a sentence which cannot be its main clause: *Are you going to the post-office? - Because I have some letters to post.* (I ask you this because I have some letters to post.)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of result (consequence)

§ 175. An adverbial clause of result denotes some consequence or result of the action expressed in the main clause. It may be introduced by the conjunction *so that,* or simply *that.*

Light fell on her there, *so that Soames could see her face, eyes, hair, strangely as he remembered them,*

strangely beautiful.

Clauses with the correlatives *so* and *such (so... that, such... that)* may express manner with a shade of resultative meaning and are treated as such. However one should bear in mind that the line of demarcation between cases of ЈО... *that* and *so that* is rather difficult to draw when the two words follow one another.

The complex sentence with mutually subordinated clauses

§ 176. In complex sentences of this type it is impossible to differentiate which of the clauses is the main one and which is subordinate. We shall consider two patterns of such sentences.

§ 177. C l a u s e s o f p r o p o r t i o n a t e a g r e e m e n t (o r c o m p a r i s o n) . **They express a proportional relationship - proportionality or equivalence; the more intensive is the action or quality described in one clause, the more intensive becomes the other, described in the following clause.** Although sentences containing such clauses are undoubtedly complex, it is nevertheless impossible to state which of the clauses is the main one and which is subordinate, since they are of the same pattern -two twin clauses, looking like one another.

Clauses of proportionate agreement are joined by the conjunction *as* (correlated with the adverb of degree *so* in the other clause); or by means of the correlative adverbs *so... so* in both clauses. Proportionate agreement between the clauses may also be expressed by the correlative particles *the... the,* followed by the comparative degree of adverbs (or adjectives).

> *As* time went on, **so** their hopes began to wane.
> *The more* he reflected on the idea, *the more* he liked it.
> *The further* I penetrated into London, *the profounder* grew the stillness.

Proportionate agreement occurs in such aphoristic sentences as *the more the better, the sooner the better,* which may refer to various situations.

§ 178. The second pattern of mutually subordinated clauses expresses temporal relations - a quick succession of actions or events, often overlapping with one another for a short period of time. These clauses form an indivisible whole owing to correlative elements and sometimes partial inversion in the first clause. The order in which the elements follow one another is fixed. As partial inversion is possible when the predicate consists of the operator and the notional part, only analytical forms or compound predicates are used.

There are several variants of the pattern:

1. **No sooner... than.**

> *No sooner had* Tom *seen* us *than* he jumped into a bus.
> *No sooner could* the chairman *finish his speech than* a great noise started.

2. **Scarcely... when, scarcely... before.**

> *Scarcely had* he *seen* us *when* he jumped into a bus.
> The door *had scarcely closed* behind her *before* it opened again.

3. **Hardly... when.**

> *Hardly could* he finish his last sentence *when* a great noise started.
> *I had hardly finished when* Holmes returned with the news that the boy was putting in the horse.

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4. **Negation... when.**

He *had **not** closed* the door **when** he heard somebody knock at it.

5. **Just... when.**

He *had **just** cut* a mighty slice of bread **when** he heard somebody's footsteps.

The role of the past perfect tense in the first clause is also of importance as it does not manifest in this case real precedence but peculiar temporal relation, that of a quick succession of events or actions, often overlapping.

Pseudo-complex sentences

§ 179. We shall consider sentences consisting of two clauses joined according to some pattern of subordination, but different from other complex sentences in the relation the clauses bear to one another. There are several types of pseudo-complex sentences. In the first type the splitting of the sentence into clauses is a device for the sake of emphasizing this or that part of the sentence; actually the meaning of the sentence does not require splitting (or cleaving) into clauses. These sentences are called **emphatic** (or **cleft**) sentences.

Emphatic (or cleft) sentences

§ 180. These sentences in their turn fall into three patterns, in all of which the form of the complex sentence is used to emphasize some part of the sentence.

I n   t h e   f i r s t   p a t t e r n the emphasized part is placed in the position of the predicative, which is followed by a clause. The main clause is patterned on the model of the *it*-clause and the subordinate clause may be patterned as an attributive, temporal, local or nominal clause.

It is my friend who told me this.

The role of the main clause is purely emphatic, as the information which is divided between the main and the subordinate clause can be expressed in a simple sentence.

*It is **my friend** who told me this* ——> My friend told me this.
*It is **the examination** that you and I are concerned with* ——-> *You* and I are concerned with the examination.
*If is **not** that she loved him* ——> She did not love him.
*It was **the idea** they were buying, not the project* ——> They were buying the idea, not the project.

The emphatic position may be occupied by a whole clause.

*It was **what she said** that spoiled the impression.*
*Was it **because dusk was gathering** that you failed to see anything?*

In the last two sentences the content of the predicative clause is emphasized.
The position of the predicative serves for placing greater emphasis on the part occupying this position. Semantically the emphasized part may fulfil different roles.

*It was **not till this very moment** that I recollected him* ——> did not recollect him till this very

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moment.

(The emphasized part is adverbial modifier of time.)

*It is **not** that I hate you* ——> I don't hate you. (Negation is emphasized.)

The cleft sentences and the simple ones given above are similar in meaning as they describe the same situation. The difference lies in a special accentuation of the bold-faced words.

The subordinate clause may be joined asyndetically: *It is **not you** I hate.*

Pseudo-complex sentences of this type may be interrogative.

What is it *that happened to you?*

What was it *he disliked so much ?*

A sentence can be transformed into different cleft sentences depending on what element is to be emphasized. For example:

John liked to read books at home -

→ It was **John** who liked to read books at home.

→ It was **books** that John liked to read at home.

→ It was **at home** that John liked to read books.

T h e s e c o n d p a t t e r n of cleft sentences is used to emphasize the predicate, which is split into the operator in the subordinate subject clause and the infinitive in the main clause.

What John **liked** was *to read* books at home.

What he **disliked so much** was *to be addressed* by passers-by.

The particle *to* is often omitted.

What he **has done** is *spoil* the whole thing.

T h e t h i r d p a t t e r n of pseudo-complex emphatic sentences begins with the conjunction *if*, which does not introduce a conditional clause.

If I feel sorry **for anyone** it's *Norman* ——> I really feel sorry for Normal.

Appended clauses (повторы с уточнением)

§ 181. There are several varieties of appended clauses, modelled on the pattern of the main clause. These are used to intensify or reinforce a statement in the previous clause. The most common type of *appended clauses are tag* questions (tags). *You are tired, aren't you? You are not ill, are you?*

In non-formal style there is another form of appended clause, which is elliptical.

He is always very gloomy, *is that John of yours.*

She is a clever girl, *is your friend.*

In such sentences the link-verb *to be* is generally repeated, or a form of the verb *to do* is used.

He never told me anything, *did your brother.*

Note:

The appended part may consist only of a nominal group.

He is a clever boy, *your brother John.*

Such cases should not be confused with appended clauses.

Absolute (or indendent) subordinate clauses

§ 182. Subordinate clauses may be used absolutely as independent exclamatory sentences. They may have the form of a conditional or comparative clause.

If only I knew his address!
As though you didn't know!
That he should be so late!

Parenthetical clauses (parentheses)

§ 183. A parenthetical clause (parenthesis) interrupts another sentence with which it is either not connected syntactically or is only loosely connected with separate parts of the sentence.

Parenthetical clauses are often called *comment clauses,* because they do not simply add to the information given in the sentence, but comment on its truth, the manner of saying it, or express the attitude of the speaker toward it. In some cases it is direct address to the listener or reader.

He waited *(which was his normal occupation)* and thought, like other citizens, of the cost of living...
(Some information is added.)
...there is, *as it were,* a transparent barrier between myself and strong emotions. (The figurative meaning
of the utterance is indicated.)
My parents, *you know,* were peasants. (Direct address to the listener.)

Parenthetical clauses may occur in front, mid- and end position, but the end position is mainly restricted to informal style. They are usually marked off from the rest of the sentence by commas, dashes, or parentheses (brackets) in written English and by a separate tone unit in speech.

Parenthetical clauses may be patterned like independent sentences, coordinate, main, or subordinate clauses. In all cases the mechanism of turning a sentence or clause into a parenthesis is the same - the inverting of their usual sequence or placing the parenthetical clause in an unusual position, which changes their communicative value. The embedded (включенное) structure acquires a secondary status, informing the reader of the author's opinion of the utterance, or containing some comment on the content of the embedding (включающее) sentence, or else addressing the reader directly. The embedding structure is primary in importance and structurally independent. The following sentences may be taken as examples:

Although the evening was still light - *we dined early* - the lamps were on. (a parenthetical clause
patterned like an independent sentence)
She cooked - *and she was a good cook* - and marketed and chatted with the delivery boys. (a parenthetical
clause patterned like a coordinate clause)
As you put it, it sounds convincing, (a parenthetical clause patterned like an adverbial clause of manner)
Does your objection to tea *(which I do frightfully want)* mean that we're unlikely to be alone? (a

parenthetical clause patterned like an attributive clause)
Mr. Ford - *if this was now to be his name* - walked slowly up to the counter, (a parenthetical clause patterned like an adverbial clause of condition)

Parenthetical clauses may be patterned like different communicative types of sentences or clauses - statements, questions, imperative or exclamatory sentences or clauses.

It was - *why hadn't he noticed it before?* - beginning to be an effort for her to hold her back straight, (a
parenthetical clause patterned like a *why-question)*
I felt - *such curious shapes egoism fakes!* - that they had come because of me. (a parenthetical clause
patterned like an exclamatory sentence)

Clauses patterned like main clauses with verbs of saying and those denoting mental activity *(he thought, the author said,* etc.) may have an inverted order *(thought he, said the author).*

Quite a number of parenthetical clauses are stereotyped conversation formulas, used to attract the listener's attention or to show the reaction of the speaker *(you know, you see, I see,* etc.).

INDIRECT SPEECH

§ 184. Indirect speech does not reproduce the exact words of the speaker, but only reports them. The grammatical form in which the speaker's words are reported is a subordinate object clause (for statements and questions) or an infinitive object (for orders and requests) dependent on a verb of saying or a verb or expression implying the idea of saying. The most frequent verbs of saying are the verbs *to say* and *to tell* for reported statements, *to ask* for reported questions, *to tell* and *to ask* for reported orders and requests. The subordinate clauses are joined to their principal ones by means of conjunctions, conjunctive pronouns or adverbs, or asyndetically.

The word order in these clauses is always direct, irrespective of the communicative type of the sentence in direct speech, that is, whether it is a declarative or an interrogative sentence (imperative sentences are reported by means of an infinitive object).

He says *he has all the proof.*
He asks *what you are going to do.*
The chief told me *to do it at once.*

When direct speech is replaced by indirect speech, the forms of personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns may be changed or not, depending on the general sense, that is, on their actual correlation with the participants of the act of speaking and the situation described in that particular unit of speech, in the same way as in Russian.

"*I* don't know anything about *him,*" says the girl. | The girl says that *she* does not know anything about *him*
«*Я* ничего о *нем* не знаю», - говорит девочка. | Девочка говорит, что *она* ничего о *нем* не знает.
"*I* can do it *myself,*" say I. | I say that *I* can do it *myself.*
«*Я* вполне могу сделать это *сам»,* - говорю я. | Я говорю, что (я) вполне могу сделать это *сам.*
"What are *you* going to do about *my* picture?" she asks. | She asks what *I* am going to do about *her* picture.

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«Что *вы* собираетесь делать с *моей* картиной?" - спрашивает она.	Она спрашивает, что *я* собираюсь делать с *ее* картиной.

The tense form of the predicate of the object clause with reported speech is predetermined by the general rules of sequence of tenses.

If the predicate of the object clause in which direct speech is reported is to be changed into one of the past tenses, the change may affect the use of certain adverbs and demonstrative pronouns. That is, depending on the actual correlation between the place and time of the act of speaking and those of the content of the direct speech, there may arise the necessity to replace the adverbs and demonstrative pronouns implying *near reference* in time or space by those denoting *distant reference*. In such cases the following changes take place:

> this → that
> these → those
> here → there
> now → then, at that time
> today → that day
> tonight → that night
> tomorrow → the following day, (the) next day
> yesterday → the day before, the previous day
> ago → before
> last week (month, year) → the previous week (month, year)

"But I am really very busy *today*," said Hans.	Hans said that he was really very busy *that day*.
"Well, there's no use in standing *here* arguing about it," she said.	She said that there was no use in standing *there* arguing about it.

§ 185. If the sentence in direct speech is declarative, the object clause reporting it in indirect speech is joined to the principal clause by means of the conjunction *that or* asyndetically. The predicate of the principal clause is usually expressed by the verbs *to say* or *to tell; to say* is used when the person to whom the direct speech is addressed is not mentioned in the sentence with indirect speech, whereas *to tell* is used when the person is mentioned.

Then she turned to Fanny: "We have been married for three years."	a) Then she turned to Fanny and *said (that)* they had been married for three years.
	b) Then she turned to Fanny and *told her (that)* they had been married for three years.
Looking at the doctor she said, "I don't know what it was."	a) Looking at the doctor she *said (that)* she did not know what it had been.
	b) Looking at the doctor she *told him (that)* she did not know what it had been.

§ 186. If the direct speech is a pronominal question, the object clause reporting it in indirect speech is joined to the principal clause by the same pronominal word (pronoun or adverb) as used in direct speech. In this case it is treated as a conjunctive word. The word order in the object clause becomes direct. The predicate of the principal clause is the verb *to ask* or one of its synonyms *to want to know, to wonder,* etc.

"Who is it?" she asked.	She *asked* who it was.
"Why didn't he come?" said she.	She *wanted to know* why he had not come.

The person to whom the direct speech is addressed is usually mentioned either in the sentence itself, or in a broader context, or else is understood from the situation. In indirect speech it is expressed in the object to the verb introducing indirect speech.

"Where have you come from?" she asked the boy.	She asked *the boy* where he had come from.
She began to put on her gloves.	She began to put on her gloves.
"What are you going to do?" he asked.	He asked *her* what she was going to do.

§ 187. If the direct speech is a general question, the object clause reporting it in indirect speech is joined to the principal clause by means of the conjunctions *if* or *whether*. The word order in the object clause is direct. The predicate of the principal clause is the verb *to ask* or one of its synonyms.

"Did you tell Frank?" he asked me.	He asked me *if (whether) I had told Frank.*
"Won't your husband forgive you?" he said after a while.	After a while he asked (her) *if (whether) her husband would not forgive her.*

§ 188. If direct speech is an imperative sentence, the following changes take place when reporting it in indirect speech: the predicate of the sentence takes the form of the infinitive and becomes an object to the verb introducing indirect speech; one more object, a noun or a pronoun denoting the person to whom the order or request is addressed, is supplied. Note that this object is an obligatory component of the sentence structure. If the person to whom the order or request is addressed is not indicated in direct speech, it is to be supplied from the previous context or from the speech situation.

Orders, requests, etc., in indirect speech are introduced by the verbs of inducement *to tell, to order, to ask, to beg,* etc.

I said, "Say hello to the family for me, Mr. Hunt."	I *asked Mr. Hunt to say* hello to the family for me.
"Get me out of here, baby. Get me out of here. Please."	He *begged me to get him* out of there.
The tall boy did not stop. "Shut up, you fool," cried she.	The tall boy did not stop, and she *ordered him to shut up.*
One of the boys turned away.	One of the boys turned away,
"Look me full in the face," said the woman.	but the woman told him to look her full in the face.

If the predicate of the imperative sentence is negative, the negation *not* is placed before the infinitive in indirect speech.

"Don't go," said he.	He asked her *not to go.*
"Don't stop!" cried he and ran after them.	He ordered them *not to stop* and ran after them.

<div align="right">

APPENDIX I

</div>

SOME WAYS OF SENTENCE EXTENSION

Sentence extension embraces different parentheses and direct address mentioned above (§ 113); it also includes homogeneous parts, appended parts, and different kinds of repetitions.

Homogeneous parts

§ 189. Homogeneous parts are two or more components of the sentence which are characterized by the following features:

1. They are connected by coordination, that is, are of equal syntactical rank. They are connected either by a coordinating conjunction (a), or Joined asyndetically (b).

(a) The men were *cold* and *sick* and *silent.*

(b) They *crawled* ahead, *waited, listened* to the bombardment.

2. They have one and the same syntactical function in the sentence and similar syntactical relations with other parts of the sentence.

The grass was *long* and *high* and *wet* ——>

```
                                          long
                                       ╱  |
                                    ╱     and
                                 ╱        |
      ——> The grass was ─ ─ ─  high
                                 ╲        |
                                    ╲     and
                                       ╲  |
                                          wet
```
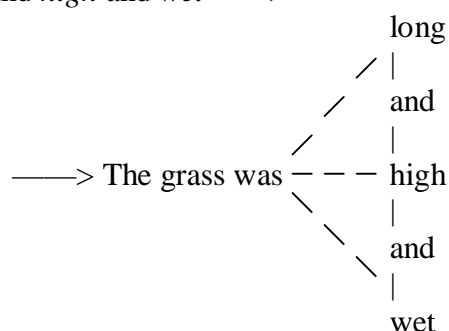
Dora and *I* ate in silence. ——>

```
      ——>   Dora╲
             |      ╲
            and — ——> ate in silence.
             |    ╱
             I  ╱
```
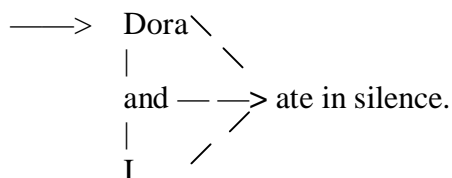
The identical syntactical function and the fact that these parts are coordinated make them homogeneous.

3. Homogeneous parts are separated from each other by pauses in speech and generally by commas in writing.

Gertrude had seen Martin first and noticed the *eager, hungry* lines of his face, and the *desperate, worried*
look of his eyes.

4. They may differ:

a) in their structure

I *started to kiss* Maybelle but *couldn't quite make up my mind.*
(The first homogeneous predicate is a compound verbal phasal predicate and the second is a compound
verbal modal predicate.)
She *didn't feel well* and *stayed* in bed.

(The first homogeneous predicate is a compound nominal predicate and the second is a simple verbal

predicate.)

She *mumbled* and *kept staring* at the same spot in the book.

(The first homogeneous predicate is a simple verbal predicate and the second is a compound verbal

phasal predicate.)

b) in the ways of expression (morphologically)

The Johnsons and *I* have been to five balls to-night.

(The homogeneous subjects are expressed by a proper noun and a pronoun.)

His voice was *loud, ringing,* yet *strained.*

(The homogeneous predicatives are expressed by an adjective, participle I and participle II.)

The Colonel *had* just *finished* breakfast and *was walking* across the compound towards the stables.

(The homogeneous simple predicates are expressed by different verb forms.)

From the point of view of their syntactical function there may be:

a) homogeneous subjects

You and *Tuck* have had a nice time together this summer, haven't you?
He and *Sis* didn't discuss such things.

b) homogeneous predicates

Sis *got up* and *dressed* in a hurry and *didn't* even *put on* any lipstick.
When she *would turn* the pages, she *licked* her thumb and *held out* her little finger and *turned* very

slowly.

c) homogeneous predicatives

He felt *little* and *worn* and *helpless.*
The question was *painful* and *difficult* to ask.

d) homogeneous objects (direct and indirect)

She had on a *sweater* and a blue pleated *skirt.*
All of a sudden I felt mad at *myself and the dream* and *Maybelle* and *Sucker* and every single *person* I

knew.

e) homogeneous attributes

He wore a *blue striped* shirt and *grey checked* trousers.

f) homogeneous adverbial modifiers

She had lessons *on Tuesday after school* and *on Sunday afternoons.*

Homogeneous parts may be connected by different coordinating conjunctions:

a) copulative conjunctions *and, nor, neither ... nor, as well as, both ... and, not only ... but also*

Neither the wagons *nor* the howitzer came.

b) disjunctive conjunctions *or, either ...or*

I don't care *either* for Maybelle *or* any particular girl any more.
I can get along by myself if Sis *or* anybody wants to.

c) adversative conjunction *but* and conjunctive adverb *yet*

The old man nodded *but* did not stop eating.
The story is interesting, *yet a* little too long.

§ 190. There are, however, cases which look very much like homogeneous parts but which should be distinguished from them.

They are:

1. Different kinds of repetitions which make the utterance more expressive but which name the same notion. Any part of the sentence may be repeated in this way.

There were *rumours, rumours, rumours.*
It's *wonderful, wonderful, wonderful.*
I'll *never, never, never* go there again.
She is my *dear, dear, dear* sister.

2. Phrases where coordinated nouns refer to one thing or person, such as: *my son and heir, their friend and defender, her friend and counselor.*

Bread and butter is not enough for breakfast.

3. Syntactically indivisible coordinated phrases in which neither component can be removed and which make one indivisible part of the sentence.   .

Four and four is eight.
Water consists of *hydrogen and oxygen.*

4. Sentences where the predicate consists of two parts joined by the conjunction and which in this case has no copulative meaning.

Try and do it properly   = Try to do it properly.
Come and help me   = Come to help me.

The appended modifier (уточнение)

§ 191. Another way of sentence extension, but based on syntactical parallelism or doubling, is **an appended modifier,** which usually is parenthetic and follows the headword as an afterthought. It is a dependent part, which can refer to practically any part of the sentence and answer the same question, but in a fuller and more detailed way, narrowing or particularizing the notion, expressed by the headword.

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Therefore the headword is usually more general in meaning than the appended part; very often it is a pronoun, made explicit by the following nouns.

*They were alike, **his father and he.***

Being a dependent part of the sentence, the appended modifier still cannot be opposed either to the main, or to secondary parts of the sentence. Its dependence also accounts for the reason why the appended part cannot be considered as homogeneous with the headword. Besides they are very often morphologically inacceptable in the structure of the sentence:

*Her face was very pale - **a greyish pallor.***

*His daily trips were really very easy - **about a mile and a half.***

*There was very little to do - **parading with the Company inspection, a little drill, orderly officers***

occasionally.
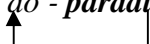
Appended parts may be joined asyndetically, and in this case they are marked off graphically by a comma or a dash. They may be also joined by some conjunctions *(and, or),* or else by explanatory words *(namely, that is, i.e. (= that is), to wit, for example, for instance);* also by intensifying particles *(almost, especially,* etc.).

*Language makers, **that is ordinary speakers, are not** very accurate thinkers.*
*He had discovered that he had a talent for mathematics - **almost a genius for it.***

Another way of linking the appended modifier to its headword is the repetition of the same part with modifying words.

*My object is secure happiness **- the happiness of both of us.***

There are three structural types of appended modifiers.

1. The most common case of an appended modifier is when a different word or even a different morphological form refers to the headword. Standing for identical notions, the appended part gives a fuller and more detailed nomination of the same concept. In some way appended modifiers of this type resemble appositions, only unlike appositions, they may refer to words of non-nominal nature (verbs, adverbs). Even referring to nouns, they never qualify words, but particularize the notion.

Yet it worried her, **this queer intensity of Hughie's.**
(appended subject)
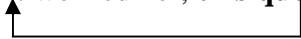
I used to do as Jean Jacques did **— lie down on my boat and get it glide whereas it would.**
(appended predicate with dependent words)

Hughie wanted to be a star, **a footballer in the big league.**
(appended predicative)

And we'll talk it over, **every bit of it.**

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(appended object)

2. Appended modifiers of the second type form a string of homogeneous parts referring to a headword with a general meaning *(thing, problem, question,* etc.). Here again the appended modifiers may refer to different parts of the sentence.

She kept up her music, she read an awful lot - **novels, poetry, all sorts of stuff .**

She was allowed to choose things from the shop; **jam, or paste, or biscuits, or the slab cake**

3. Appended parts of the third type - with a repeated headword - usually have an emphatic force.

There was only one road: **the main road, the road that struck due east.**
(appended subject)

He had his pride of course, **the natural pride of a liberal enlighted man.**
(appended object)

He had been a fool, **a presumptuous fool.**
(appended predicative)

In silence they stood, **in mortal silence.**
(appended adverbial modifier)

The emphatic force is often manifested by adverbs of degree, intensifying particles *(just, even, especially, particularly, at least, in particular),* or modal words *(in fact, indeed,* etc.). The explanatory function is carried out by modifying words or attributive clauses.

In one place Winterbourne found ... a French-woman with two starved children living in a cottage with nothing but straw - *literally nothing but straw...*
They assured him that they were the only men **- or almost the only men -** left alive...

APPENDIX II

SOME SPECIAL DIFFICULTIES OF ANALYSIS

(syncretic forms, syntactic homonyms, dubious cases of analysis)

Though each sentence can be divided into parts as described in the section "Parts of the sentence", the attribution of some parts may present certain difficulties.

Here we may distinguish three cases.

1. The analysis of parts of the sentence which contain two meanings at one and the same time (the so-called *syncretic forms).*
2. The analysis of phrases built on one and the same pattern in different syntactical functions (the so-called *syntactical homonyms).*
3. The analysis of parts of the sentence whose attribution is dubious due to their nature.

1. Syncretic forms

Difficulties of this kind arise where a part of the sentence contains two meanings at once and it is not always clear which of them is the predominant. This is usually the case with various classes of adverbials, especially those expressed by an infinitive, a participle, or phrases and complexes with these verbals.

Here are some examples.

She looked under the cot and laughed *to see the girl crouched there.*
The work done, I felt as free as a bird.
It growing dark, she hurried the boys home.

In all these sentences the parts in italics express at the same time the idea of **the cause** of the action of the predicate verb and **an indication of the time** of these actions.

In the sentence ***To hear him talk,*** *you'll think he's at least ten years old* the part in italics combines the idea **of time** with that **of condition.**

In the sentences *She was clever enough **to keep silent;** I've watched you work too long **to underrate you*** the adverbials combine the idea **of result** with the idea **of degree.**

Sometimes an adverbial expressed by a noun with a preposition which name the place where the action of the predicate verb was performed actually denotes rather **the time of the action** than its place. This is usually the case where the adverbial is detached, as in: *At **home,** she took off her hat and cloak and hurried to the kitchen.* Here *At **home*** has rather the meaning 'when she came home'.

2. Syntactical homonyms

Sometimes certain difficulties in analysis may arise from the fact that phrases, complexes or clauses of similar pattern can have different syntactical functions. They are called **syntactical homonyms.**

Here are a few simple examples:

I'll do it *with great pleasure* (adverbial of manner).
She says she's cut her finger *with that table knife* (object).
At last there appeared in the distance the house *with the green roof* (attribute).
He's always *with the losing party* (predicative).
He looked *as if he did not quite recognize the place* (predicative clause).
He looked around *as if he did not quite recognize the place* (adverbial clause of manner).

The parts in italics have different syntactical functions due to the difference in lexical and grammatical semantics of the words they comprise, or the words they are connected with, or both.

3. Dubious cases

Difficulties of this kind usually arise because of the subtlety of the border-line between secondary parts of the sentence expressed by a noun with a preposition or by an infinitive, or sometimes even by a noun without a preposition, which makes it in some cases hardly possible to tell an object from an adverbial, or an attribute from an adverbial.

O b j e c t   o r   A d v e r b i a l

We come across such difficulties in the sentences *She was slowly moving **towards Mrs. Carver;** She made the policeman look for the cat **among the boxes piled up by the wall*** and the like, in which the underlined parts allow of two alternative interpretations each - as an adverbial of place or as an indirect non-recipient object. The possible identifying questions are of no help here, for such parts may equally answer the *where-question* and a question with a preposition *what/who:* ***Where was*** *she moving?* ***Towards*** *whom was she moving?*

In the same way some adverbials of manner may border on an indirect non-recipient object with an instrumental meaning. Compare: *He opened the fin* **with a knife** (object - *what* did he open the tin with?) and *He was wounded* **with a bullet,** where the bold faced part may be analyzed in two ways, as an object or as an adverbial of manner *(What* was he wounded *with?* or *How* was he wounded?).

Sometimes there is no rigid border-line between a direct object and an adverbial of measure. This is the case where the formal position of the direct object is filled by a word denoting a unit of measure (money, weight, time, etc.). Thus in the sentence *The job paid her* **the minimum rate** the boldfaced part may be analyzed in two ways, that is, either as a direct object *(what?)* or as an adverbial of measure *(how much?).*

A t t r i b u t e   o r   A d v e r b i a l

Sometimes it is impossible to tell an attribute from an adverbial of purpose. This often occurs where an infinitive or an infinitive phrase follows a noun which is a direct object to some verb. In this case it may not be clear whether the infinitive is grammatically connected with the noun or with the group "verb + noun". Thus in the sentence *She gave me a book to* **read on the train** the syntactical function of the infinitive may be either that of an attribute *(= which* I might read...) or that of an adverbial of purpose *(= in order* that I might read it...). Compare this with the following sentences where relations are more definite.

> *She turned her head* **to see who it was** (adverbial).
> *I have two kids* **to look after** (attribute).

APPENDIX III

SUGGESTED WAYS OF SENTENCE ANALYSIS

I. *The simple sentence*

1. *Dusk - of a summer night.*

It is a simple extended one-member declarative sentence.

Dusk is the main (principal) part of this sentence. It is expressed by a common noun in the common case.
of a summer night is an attribute to the main part. It is expressed by a prepositional phrase.

2. *Stop talking!*

It is an imperative exclamatory sentence.

Stop talking is the predicate. It is a compound phasal verbal predicate. It consists of two parts. The first
part is expressed by the phasal verb *stop* in the imperative mood. It denotes the end of the action.
The second part is expressed by a non-perfect gerund active denoting the action itself.

3. *Could've been professional.*

It is a simple unextended two-member elliptical declarative sentence. The position of the subject is not filled with a word form.

Could've been professional is the predicate. It is a mixed type of predicate.
Could is the modal part expressed by the verb *can* in the subjunctive mood. It denotes a possibility referring to the past.
have been is a link-verb expressed by a perfect infinitive. It is a link-verb of being.
professional is a predicative expressed by an adjective in the positive degree.

4. *Old Jolyon watching from his corner saw his brother's face change.*

It is a simple, extended, two-member sentence.

Jolyon is the subject expressed by a proper noun in the common case.
Old is an attribute to the subject. It is expressed by an adjective in the positive degree.
watching from his corner is an attribute to the subject (or an adverbial modifier of time) expressed by a
participial phrase with participle I as headword.
saw is the predicate. It is a simple verbal predicate expressed by the verb *to see* in the past indefinite active.
his brother's face change is a complex object expressed by an objective with the infinitive construction; it
consists of a nominal phrase *(his brother's face)* and a non-perfect infinitive.

Note:

Verbal and non-verbal complexes are to be treated as one indivisible part of the sentence.

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5. *Is the weather not likely to change?*

It is a simple unextended two-member interrogative sentence.

the weather is the subject expressed by a common noun. in the common case.
Is not likely to change is the predicate. It is a compound verbal predicate of double orientation. It consists
of two parts.
Is not likely is the first part. It denotes the estimate of the speaker of, or his attitude to, the situation described in the sentence. It is expressed by a phrase with a modal meaning.
to change is the second part. It denotes the action itself and is expressed by a non-perfect infinitive.

6. *The whole house being made of wood, it looked good.*

It is a simple extended two-member declarative sentence.

it is the subject expressed by a personal pronoun of the 3rd person singular.
looked good is the predicate. It is a compound nominal predicate, consisting of a link verb and a predicative.
looked is a link verb expressed by the past indefinite of the link verb *to look,* which is a link verb of being
in a state.
the whole house being made of wood is an adverbial modifier of reason expressed by a nominative absolute participial construction.

7. *I found my life dull.*

It is a simple extended two-member declarative sentence.

I is the subject expressed by a personal pronoun of the 1st person singular.
found is a simple verbal predicate expressed by the past indefinite of the verb *to find.*
my life dull is a predicative complex (or a complex object) expressed by an objective non-verbal construction (or by an object + objective predicative).

II. *The composite sentence*

A . The compound sentence

1. (a) *Coffee was served and the ladies went upstairs.*

It is a compound sentence consisting of two coordinate clauses connected by copulative connection with the help of the conjunction *and.*

Coffee was served	and	The ladies went upstairs

(b) *He loved his work and he counted himself fortunate to have such an opportunity so early in his career.*

It is a compound sentence containing two clauses joined by causative-consecutive relations with the help of the copulative conjunction *and,* which expresses a shade of consecutive relations.

(c) *I wanted to go on, whereas my friend wanted to go back.*

It is a compound sentence comprising two coordinate clauses which are connected by adversative connection expressed by the adversative conjunction *whereas.*

In sentences (b), (c) the graphical presentation is the same as in sentence (a).

2. (a) *Our Elsie was looking at her with big imploring eyes; she was frowning, she wanted to go.*

It is a compound sentence consisting of three coordinate clauses which are connected by copulative coordination asyndetically.

Our Elsie was looking...	she was frowning	she wanted to go

(b) *I longed to stay there and tell the truth, but that would have been ridiculous, so I came away.*

It is a compound sentence comprising three coordinate clauses. The first two clauses are joined by means of adversative connection with the help of the adversative conjunction *but.* The second and the third clauses are connected by causative-consecutive connection with the help of the consecutive conjunction *so.*

I longed to stay there...	——but—	that would have been ridiculous	—so——	I came away

B. The complex sentence

1. (a) *What impressed me was Cyprus Avenue.*

It is a complex sentence with the subject expressed by a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunctive pronoun *what.* The main clause is devoid of the subject.

What impressed me	←	was Cyprus Avenue
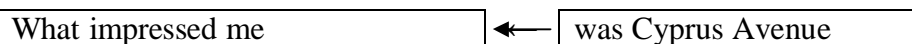
(b) *This is where Havoc Has been.*

It is a complex sentence with a predicative clause introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where.* The main clause is devoid of the predicative.

This is	→	*where* Havoc has been
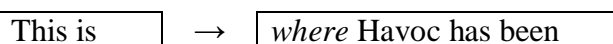
(c) *What surprised him was that there was no pain about it.*

It is a complex sentence with a subject and a predicative clause. The subject clause is introduced by the conjunctive pronoun *what* and the predicative clause by the conjunction *that.* Since these clauses occupy the positions of the main parts of the sentence, the main (principal) clause is reduced to the link verb only.

What surprised him	←	was	→	that there was no pain about it
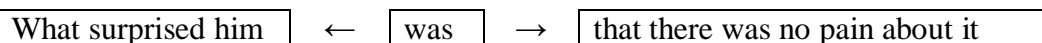
2. (a) *The woman who ran the place was very cheerful.*

It is a complex sentence comprising (or consisting of) two clauses. The main clause is *The woman was very cheerful.* The subordinate clause is *who ran the place.* It is a restrictive (limiting) relative attributive clause modifying the subject of the main clause as its antecedent.
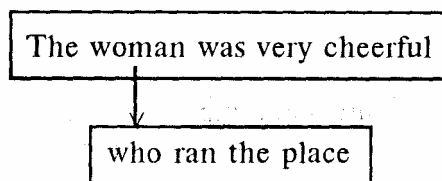
The same graphical presentation is to be found in other complex sentences containing one subordinate clause.

(b) *The next book she wrote she sent to a magazine.*

It is a complex sentence with a contact clause dependent on the antecedent *the next book,* which is the subject of the main clause.
Or:
It is a complex sentence containing a restrictive attributive clause joined to the main clause asyndetically.

(c) *Stratford-on-Avon, -where Shakespeare was born, is visited by thousands of tourists.*

It is a complex sentence with a descriptive (or non-restrictive) attributive clause introduced by the

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relative adverb *where,* which refers to the antecedent *Stratford-on-Avon* in the main clause.

(d) *Look before you leap.*

It is a complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time introduced by the conjunction *before* and depending on-the predicate of the main clause.

(e) *Bad as things are, we mustn't give up hope.*

It is a complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession. The concessive clause is introduced by the conjunction *as* with inverted word order in the subordinate clause. It modifies the whole of the main clause.

3. *I did not tell Muriel on my return to London what George had said to me, or what he looked like, but contended myself with assuring her that he was well and happy.*

It is a complex sentence comprising one main clause and three subordinate object clauses. The main clause contains two homogeneous predicates *(did not tell and contended)* connected by the conjunction *but.* The first and the second subordinate clauses are homogeneous, they are joined to each other by the disjunctive conjunction *or* and introduced by the conjunctive pronoun *what.* Both modify the first of the two homogeneous predicates. The third object clause is introduced by the conjunction *that.* It depends on the object to the second homogeneous predicate *with assuring.*
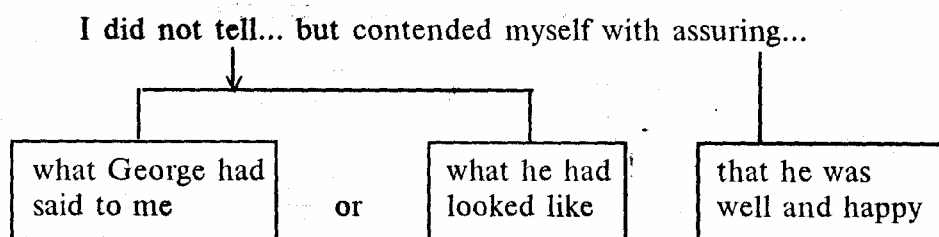
4. Complex sentences with successive subordination:

(a) *He spoke as if I were a child that needed to be distracted.*

It is a complex sentence comprising three clauses. (Or: it is a complex sentence consisting of the main clause *He spoke* and two subordinate clauses of different degrees of subordination.) The first subordinate clause is of the first degree of subordination. It is an adverbial clause of comparison introduced by the conjunction *as if* and depending on the predicate of the main clause. The second subordinate clause is of the second degree of subordination. It is a restrictive attributive clause introduced by the relative pronoun *that* and depending on the predicative of the previous clause, that is, the clause of the first degree of subordination.

```
┌─────────────────────┐
│      He spoke       │
└─────────────────────┘
           │
           ▼
┌─────────────────────┐
│  as if I were a child │
└─────────────────────┘
           │
           ▼
┌─────────────────────┐
│  that needed to be  │
│  distracted         │
└─────────────────────┘
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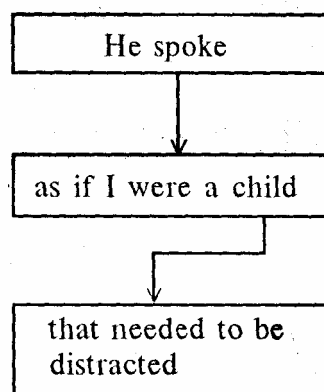
(b) *When the news came that France had mobilized and that the Germans had crossed the Belgian frontier, George abandoned all hope immediately.*

It is a complex sentence consisting of one principal and three subordinate clauses. The first subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunction *when* and is a subordinate clause of time of the first degree of subordination. The other two clauses are of the second degree of subordination. They are homogeneous appositive clauses introduced by the conjunction *that* and linked with each other by the copulative conjunction *and*. They both depend on the subject of the adverbial clause of time.

```
┌───────────────────────────┐
│  George abandoned all hope... │
└───────────────────────────┘
              │
              ▼
┌───────────────────────┐
│   when the news came   │
└───────────────────────┘
         │            │
         ▼            ▼
┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
│ that France  │   │ that the Germans had │
│ had mobilized│───and───│ crossed the Belgian  │
│              │   │ frontier             │
└──────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘
```
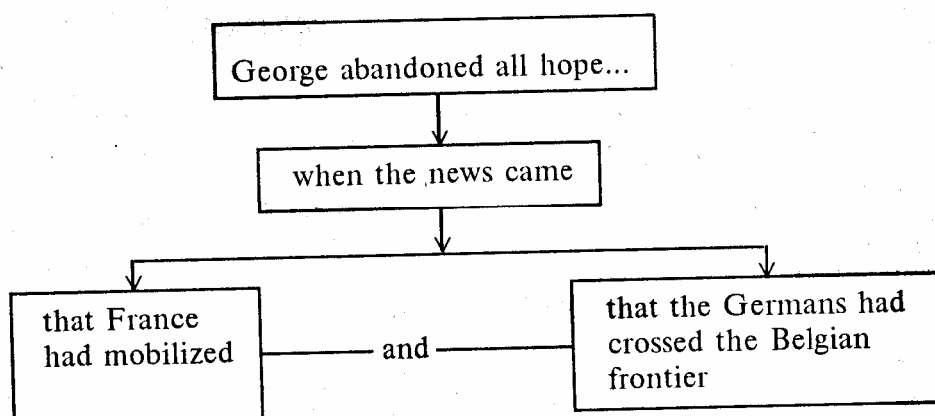
C . T h e   c o m p o u n d - c o m p l e x   s e n t e n c e

Why were her own relations so rich, and Phil never knew where the money was coming from for tomorrow's tobacco?

It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two coordinated clauses connected by contrasting relations and linked by the copulative conjunction *and*. Besides two coordinate clauses the sentence comprises one subordinate clause which depends on the second coordinate clause. It is an object clause introduced by the conjunctive adverb *where*.

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┌─────────────────────────┐                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Why were her own        │                    │ Phil never knew         │
│ relations so rich       │──── and ────        │                         │
└─────────────────────────┘                    └─────────────────────────┘
                                                            │
                                                            ▼
                                                ┌─────────────────────────┐
                                                │ where the money         │
                                                │ was coming from...      │
                                                └─────────────────────────┘
```
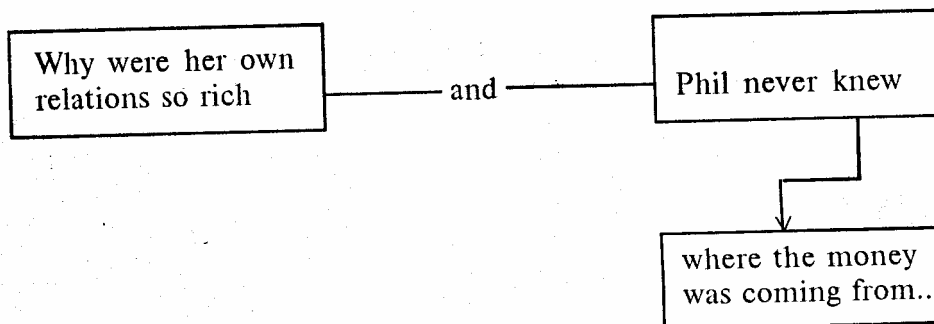
SUPPLEMENT

Tense Auxiliaries

As the majority of the finite form of the verb are analytical they are formed by means of *auxiliary verbs* (auxiliaries). These are: *to do, to be, to have, shall, will.*

In the spoken language some forms of the auxiliaries and the negation *not* are contracted which is shown in writing by means of the apostrophe (')

To be [biː], was – were [wɔz – wəː], been [biːn]

Tense	Form Person, Number	Affirmative Full	Affirmative Contracted	Interrogative Full	Interrogative Contracted	Negative Full	Negative Contracted 1	Negative Contracted 2	Negative-Interrogative Full	Negative-Interrogative Contracted
Present indefinite	1 sg	I am [æm]	I'm [aɪm]	Am [æm] I?		I am not	I'm not[2]	—	Am I not?	Aren't I?[3]
	3 sg	He She is [ɪz] it	He's [hɪz] She's [ʃɪz] It's [ɪts]	Is [ɪz] he she it?		He She is not It	He's She's not It's	He She isn't It ['ɪznt]	Is he she it not?	Isn't he? she? it?
	1 pl 2 pl 3 pl	We You are [aː] They	We're[1] You're They're	Are [aː] we? you? they		We You are not They	We're You're not They're	We You aren't They [aːnt]	Are we you not? they	Aren't we? you? they?
Past indefinite	1 sg 3 sg	I He She It was		Was I? he? she? it?		I He She was not It		I He was't She ['wɔznt] It	Was I he she it not?	Wasn't I? he? she? it?
	1 pl 2 pl 3 pl	We You were They		Were we? you? they?		We You were not They		We You weren't They [wəːnt]	Were we you not? they	Weren't we? you? they?

Note:

In the spoken language *is* [ɪz] is usually weakened and is pronounced [z] after vowels and voiced consonants (except voiced sibilants and affricates), [s] after voiceless consonants (except voiceless sibilants and affricates), [əz] after sibilants and affricates (both voiced and voiceless). This weakening of the form is not usually shown in writing:

The boy is gone (ðə 'bɔɪz'gon].

The plan is good [ðə 'plænz'gud].

The cup is broken [ðə 'kʌps'broukæn].

The bus is coming up [ðə 'bʌsəz'kʌmɪŋ'ʌp].

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* The contraction of *are* combined with certain personal pronouns is pronounced differently is British and American English, viz.:

British English   **American English**

we're [wɪə]	[wɪr]
you're [juə]	[jur]
they're ['ðeɪə]	[ðer]

** In dialect and "uneducated" British and American English the form *ain't* is very common. It is used as a contracted form of *am not, are not, is not, have not* and *has not. Ain't* is not used in standard ("correct") English.
.

I *ain't* going to buy it.
Don't talk to me like that, you *ain't* my mother.
It *ain't* raining, let's go out.
I *ain't* got any money.
He *ain't* seen me yet.

** *'m not* is replaced by *aren't* in the negative-interrogative *(Aren't* I clever enough? I'm clever enough, *aren't* I?)

To have [hæv, həv], **had, had** [hæd, həd]

Tense	Form / Person, Number	Affirmative Full	Affirmative Contracted	Interrogative Full	Interrogative Contracted	Negative Full	Negative Contracted 1	Negative Contracted 2	Negative-Interrogative Full	Negative-Interrogative Contracted
Present indefinite	1 sg	I have	I've [aɪv]	Have I?	—	I have not	I've not	I haven't ['hævnt]	Have I not?	Haven't I?
	3 sg	He She It } has	He's [hɪz] She's [ʃɪz] It's [ɪts]	Has {he? she? it?	—	He She It } has not	He's She's It's } not	He She It } hasn't ['hæznt]	Has {he she it} not?	Hasn't {he? she? it?
	1 pl 2 pl 3 pl	We You They } have	We've [wɪv] You've [juv] They've [ðeɪv]	Have {we? you? they?		We You They } have not	We've You've They've } not	We You They } haven't	Have {we you they} not?	Haven't {we? you? they?
Past indefinite	1 sg	I He She It We You They } had	I'd [aɪd] He'd [hɪd] She'd [ʃɪd] — We'd [wɪd] You'd [jud] They'd [ðeɪd]	Had {I? he? she? it? we? you? they?	—	I He She It We You They } had not	I'd He'd She'd - We'd You'd They'd } not	I He She It We You They } hadn't ['hædnt]	Had {I he she it we you they} not?	Hadn't {I? he? she? it? we? you? they?

Shall [ʃæl, ʃəl, ʃl], **should** [ʃud]

Tense	Form / Person, Number	Affirmative Full	Affirmative Contracted	Interrogative Full	Interrogative Contracted	Negative Full	Negative Contracted	Negative-Interrogative Full	Negative-Interrogative Contracted
Present indefinite	1 sg 1 pl	I We } shall	—	Shall {I? we?	—	I We } shall not	I We } shan't [ʃɑːnt]	Shall {I we} not?	Shan't [ʃɑːnt] {I? we
Past indefinite	1 sg 1 pl	I We } should	—	Should {I? we?	—	I We } should not	I We } should't	Should {I we} not?	Shouldn't {I? we?

Note:

As a future tense auxiliary *shall (should)* is used with the 1st person (singular and plural) only.

Will [wil], would [wud]

Tense	Person, Number	Affirmative Full	Affirmative Contracted	Interrogative Full	Interrogative Contracted	Negative Full	Negative Contracted 1	Negative Contracted 2	Negative-Interrogative Full	Negative-Interrogative Contracted
Present indefinite	3 sg, 2 pl, 3 pl	He She It You They } will	He'll She'll It'll You'll They'll	Will { he? she? it? you? they?	—	He She It You They } will not	He'll She'll It'll You'll They'll } not	He She It You They } won't [wount]	Will { he she it you they } not?	Won't [wount] { he? she? it? you? they?
Past indefinite	3 sg, 2 pl, 3 pl	He She It You They } would	He'd She'd It'd You'd They'd	Would { he? she? it? you? they?	—	He She It You They } would not	He'd She'd It'd You'd They'd } not	He She It You They } wouldn't	Would { he she it you they } not?	Wouldn't { he? she? it? you? they?

Note 1:

As a future tense auxiliary *will (would)* in its full form is commonly used with the *2nd* and the *3rd* persons. Nowadays however there is strong tendency to use it with the *1st persons* as well, especially in American English.

Note 2:

The contractions '*ll* and '*d* stand for *will* and *would,* not for *shall* and *should,* though they are widely used with the 1st persons as well.

Archaic Forms of the Auxiliaries

The forms given in the tables above are those of modern standard English. One may also come across archaic forms, mainly in poetry or texts where an archaic effect is intended.

Forms	Grammatical characteristics	Verbs
dost [dʌSt], [dəst]	Present indefinite, 2nd person singular	
doth, doeth [dʌθ],][dəθ]	Present indefinite, 3rd person singular	to do
didst [dɪdst]	Past indefinite, 2nd person singular	
art [a:t], [ət]	Present indefinite, 2nd person singular	to be
wast [wɔst], [wəst], wert [wə:t], [wət]	Past indefinite, 2nd person singular	
hast [hæst], [həst], |əst], [st]	Present indefinite, 2nd person singular	to have
hath [hæθ], [həθ], [əθ]	Present indefinite, 3rd person singular	
hadst [hædst], [hədst], [ədst]	Past indefinite, 2nd person singular	
shall [ʃælt], [ʃəlt], [ʃlt]	Present indefinite, 2nd person singular	shall
shouldst, shouldest [ʃudst]	Past indefinite, 2nd person singular	

wilt [wɪlt], [əlt], [ɪt]	Present indefinite, 2nd person singular	will
wouldst, wouldest [wudst]	Past indefinite, 2nd person singular	

Table of tense - aspect - perfect forms of the verb "to translate"
in the Indicative mood (3d person singular)

Time Reference	Aspect	Non-perfect	Perfect
Present	Common	He works	He has worked
	Continuous	He is working	He has been working
Past	Common	He worked	He had worked
	Continuous	He was working	He had been working
Future	Common	He will work	He will have worked
	Continuous	He will be working	He will have been working
Future in the past	Common	He would work	He would have worked
	Continuous	He would be working	He would have been working

Содержание

MORPHOLOGY