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Грамматика современного английского языка

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Учебник предназначен для студентов тех институтов и факультетов иностранных языков, в которых курс практической грамматики читается на английском языке. Учебник содержит развернутое описание частей речи, краткие сведения о структуре предложения. Последовательно проводится стиллистическая дифференциация грамматических явлений.

Тщательный подбор иллюстративных примеров, которые содержат общеупотребительную лексику, но вместе с тем являются образцами хорошего литературного языка, обеспечивают повышение общего уровня владения языком.

Рекомендуется использовать в комплекте со «Сборником упражнений по грамматике английского языка» И. П. Крыловой.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

"A Grammar of Present-Day English" — учебник, предназначенный для студентов институтов иностранных языков, а также факультетов иностранных языков педагогических институтов и филологических факультетов университетов. Это означает, что учебник рассчитан на студентов, овладевших грамматическим материалом, предусмотренным программой средней школы, т. е. знакомых с основными понятиями морфологии и синтаксиса. Учебник представляет собой практический курс грамматики английского языка. Практическая направленность учебника определяет принципы, положенные в его основу:

1. Авторы не считают возможным в практическом курсе грамматики давать теоретическое обоснование своей точке зрения и ограничиваются лишь практическими выводами.

2. В учебнике описываются грамматические нормы английского языка, иными словами, объясняются типичные явления, которые и должны усваиваться студентами. В ряде случаев упоминаются также и отклонения от норм, если они необходимы студентам для правильного понимания читаемой литературы, но при этом всегда делается специальная оговорка. Редкие отклонения от норм вообще не включены в учебник.

3. Авторы ставят перед собой задачу не только описать грамматические явления современного английского языка, но также представить их так, чтобы предотвратить типичные ошибки.

4. Один из ведущих принципов, положенных в основу учебника, заключается в том, что студенты должны изучать хорошие образцы английского языка. Это относится как к формулированию правил, так и к примерам, которые их иллюстрируют. Поэтому особое внимание уделялось подбору иллюстративного материала. Авторы стремились к тому, чтобы примеры содержали употребительную лексику и одновременно оставались бы хорошими образцами английского языка и чтобы учебник, таким образом, помогал студентам совершенствовать их знания. Следует заметить, что количество примеров варьируется в учебнике в зависимости от употребительности того или иного грамматического явления и от объема раздела, который он иллюстрирует.

Кроме того, в учебник включены наиболее употребительные устойчивые сочетания (set phrases) и готовые фразы (stereotyped phrases), возникшие на основе описанных грамматических моделей.

5. В учебнике проводится стилистическая дифференциация грамматических явлений, в частности особая оговорка делается в отношении явлений, типичных только для книжной речи или носящих сугубо разговорный характер. Грамматические модели, которые в стилистическом отношении являются нейтральными, в специальных пояснениях, разумеется, не нуждаются.

В связи с этим авторы рекомендуют преподавателям привлечь особое внимание студентов к правильному стилистическому использованию грамматических моделей.

6. В учебнике не проводится систематического сопоставления грамматических явлений английского языка с соответствующими явлениями в русском языке. Авторы, однако, прибегают к сравнениям с русским языком там, где это необходимо для понимания того или иного явления в английском языке.

Переводы на русский язык отдельных предложений, оборотов, терминов даются лишь там, где возникает опасение, что английский материал будет труден для понимания.

Авторы считают, что для практических целей овладения английской грамматикой достаточно описания частей речи со всеми их семантическими, морфологическими и синтаксическими особенностями.

В учебнике отражены следующие признаки частей речи: 1) их семантика, 2) грамматические категории (для изменяемых частей речи), 3) их функции в предложении. Эти критерии, служащие для выделения частей речи в языке, положены в основу описания каждой отдельной части речи, и этот принцип проводится в учебнике систематически.

Хотя словообразование и сочетаемость с другими частями речи также являются существенными критериями выделения частей речи в языке, авторы не нашли нужным включать эти разделы в учебник. В институтах и на факультетах иностранных языков словообразование обычно входит в курс лексикологии, и включение его в грамматику создало бы ненужное дублирование курсов.

Что касается сочетаемости частей речи, то она фактически отражена в учебнике полностью при описании их синтаксических функций в предложении, и для практического овладения материалом выделение ее в особый раздел представляется излишним.

Согласно общепризнанной точке зрения, важнейшей частью речи является глагол, который представляет собой ядро предложения. В практическом плане именно употребление глагольных форм представляет для изучающих английский язык наибольшие трудности. Поэтому глаголу в учебнике уделяется самое значительное место, и именно с глагола начинается рассмотрение всех частей речи.

Другим чрезвычайно важным в практическом отношении разделом грамматики является употребление артиклей. Этой теме в учебнике также отводится значительное место.

Стремясь к тому, чтобы учебник максимально способствовал именно практическому овладению грамматикой, авторы по-новому освещают некоторые грамматические явления или вносят дополнения и уточнения к традиционным объяснениям.

Это относится, в первую очередь, к разделам, посвященным глаголу. В учебнике вводится понятие структурной и лексической обусловленности употребления некоторых глагольных форм (см. "Verbs", §8), и преподавателям следует уделять этому вопросу особое внимание. Важную роль в учебнике играет выделение структурных моделей, типичных для употребления некоторых глагольных форм. По-новому освещается употребление формы Present Perfect и форм, служащих для отнесения действия к будущему. Введены дополнительные объяснения к употреблению форм Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Present Perfect Continuous и Past Perfect Continuous, а также к правилам согласования времен и употребления страдательного залога. По возможности просто, без излишней терминологической перегруженности, трактуются формы выражения нереальности, Они тесно связаны с употреблением модальных глаголов, объяснение которых предшествует описанию форм нереальности. Изменения внесены также в описание неличных форм глагола: их специфика выявляется лишь при сопоставлении с предикативными формами, и этому вопросу уделяется много внимания. Детально описывается значение простой формы, объясняются причины относительно редкого употребления аналитических форм. Внесены изменения и в описание функций неличных форм глагола в предложении. Наиболее существенное изменение касается герундия и причастия I, которые по традиции обычно рассматриваются как две различные формы, хотя многие грамматисты указывают, что они фактически не разграничимы. В предлагаемом учебнике они трактуются, вслед за некоторыми лингвистами, как единая форма — the *ing-form,* способная выполнять в предложении, подобно инфинитиву, самые разнообразные функции. Для практического овладения материалом такая интерпретация, как показывает опыт, оказывается более эффективной. Авторы рекомендуют изучать употребление инфинитива и инговой формы параллельно по функциям. Например, изучая инфинитив в функции подлежащего, целесообразно одновременно читать материал об инговой форме в той же функции, а также параграфы, в которых эти две функции сравниваются (§§ 181, 209 и 235). Затем следует переходить к другой функции. На этой сравнительной основе построены упражнения в «Сборнике упражнений по грамматике английского языка» И. П. Крыловой. Вопрос раз-

граничения герундия и причастия I представляет интерес скорее для изучающих курс теоретической грамматики английского языка.

По-новому освещается в учебнике также употребление артиклей.

Раздел «Краткие сведения о структуре предложения» не претендует на полное описание синтаксической структуры английского языка, а является скорее справочным материалом, которым следует пользоваться в том случае, если, работая над основными главами, студенты сталкиваются с трудностями в определении синтаксических функций тех или иных классов слов. Кроме того, в учебнике используются не совсем традиционные названия некоторых синтаксических функций, объяснение которым также можно найти в этом разделе.

В учебнике имеется приложение, которое содержит список неправильных глаголов и предметный указатель.

Автор

PARTS OF SPEECH IN ENGLISH

The words of every language fall into classes which are called **parts of speech.** Each part of speech has characteristics of **its** own. Parts of speech differ from each other in meaning, form and function.

Different parts of speech have different lexical meanings. For example, verbs are words denoting processes *(to work, to live);* nouns are names of objects *(table, boy);* adjectives are words expressing characteristics *(good, bad),* etc.

Some parts of speech have different **grammatical categories,** e.g. verbs have the categories of mood, tense, aspect, phase, voice, person and number; nouns have the categories of number and case; adjectives have degrees of comparison, etc.

Other parts of speech are invariable, they have only one form. Here belong such parts of speech as prepositions and conjunctions.

Parts of speech also differ from each other in their **syntactic functions.** For example, verbs have the function of the predicate in the sentence, nouns are often used as the subject or the object of the sentence, adjectives serve as attributes or predicatives; adverbs are generally adverbial modifiers, etc.

These characteristic features will be described in detail when each part of speech is considered individually.

In addition, all words may be divided into two main groups: **notional** and **structural.**

Notional words have distinct lexical meanings and perform independent syntactic functions in the sentence: they serve either as primary or secondary parts of the sentence. To this group belong the following parts of speech: verbs, nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns and adverbs.

Structural words differ from notional words semantically: their lexical meaning is of a more general character than that of notional words (e.g. *in, and, even).* Moreover, they are sometimes altogether devoid of it (e.g. the articles *the* and *a,* the conjunction ***that,*** the preposition *of,* etc.). Structural words do not perform

any independent syntactic function in the sentence but serve either to express various relations between words in a sentence (e.g. *the trees* in *the garden, Tom* and *Joe,* etc.) or to specify the meaning of a word (e.g. the *book,* a *book,* etc.). The following parts of speech are to be treated as structural words: articles, prepositions and conjunctions.

The division of words into notional and structural is connected with certain difficulties. For example, verbs, which, on the whole, are to be treated as notional words, include certain words which serve as structural elements (e.g. modal verbs), some other verbs may function either as notional words or as structural words (e.g. *to look* is a notional verb in *He looked at me* and a structural word — a link-verb — in *He looked tired;* the verb *to have* is a notional verb in I *have a car* and a structural word — a modal verb — in I *had to do it).* Pronouns may be quoted as another example since, on the one hand, they have, like all notional words, independent syntactic functions in the sentence but, on the other hand, they are devoid of distinct lexical meaning.

VERBS

§ 1. According to content, verbs can be described as words denoting actions, the term "actions" embracing the meaning of activity (e.g. *to walk, to speak, to play, to study),* process (e.g. *to sleep, to wait, to live),* state (e.g. *to be, to like, to know),* relation (e.g. *to consist, to resemble, to lack)* and the like.

According to form, verbs can be described as words that have certain grammatical features that are not shared by other parts of speech, e.g. they have the categories of tense, aspect, voice, etc.

According to function, verbs can be defined as words making up the predicate of the sentence.

§ 2. Verbs can be classified under different heads.

1) According to their meaning verbs can be divided into two groups — terminative and durative verbs.

Terminative verbs imply a limit beyond which the action cannot continue. To put it differently, they have a final aim in view, e.g. *to open, to close, to bring, to recognize, to refuse, to break.* With the verb *to open,* for example, that means that after opening the door it is impossible to go on with the action as the door is already open.

Durative verbs do not imply any such limit, and the action can go on indefinitely, e.g. *to carry, to live, to speak, to know, to sit, to play.*

But as most verbs in English are polysemantic they may be terminative in one meaning and durative in another. For example, *to see* may have the terminative meaning 'увидеть' and the durative meaning 'видеть'; *to know* may denote 'знать' and 'узнать- The meaning of the verb becomes clear from the context. Compare: I *saw him at once* and *I saw his face quite clearly.* As will be seen, the distinction between terminative and durative verbs is of great importance as it affects the use of certain tense-aspect-phase forms.

2) According to their relation to the continuous form, English verbs fall into two groups: dynamic verbs, i.e. verbs which admit of the continuous form (a) and stative verbs, i.e. verbs which do not admit of the continuous form (b).

e.g. a) We were eating dinner when he called.
You'll find Mother in the kitchen. She is making a cake,
b) I understand what you mean.
I don't see him in the crowd.

The distinction between dynamic, and stative verbs is fundamental in English grammar, and it is also reflected in a number of other ways than in the continuous form.

It is normal for verbs to be dynamic, and even the minority that are almost always stative can be given a dynamic use on occasion.

The following is the list of most commonly used stative verbs:

a) verbs denoting physical perceptions: *to hear, to notice, to see;*

b) verbs denoting emotions: *to adore, to care for, to detest, to dislike, to hate, to like, to love, to respect;*

c) verbs denoting wish: *to desire, to want, to wish;*

d) verbs denoting mental processes: *to admire* (= to be of high opinion), *to appreciate, to assume, to believe* (= to consider), to *consider* (= to regard), *to doubt, to expect* (= to suppose), *to feel* (= to consider), *to imagine, to know, to mind* (= to object), *to perceive, to presume, to recall, to recognize, to recollect, to regard, to remember, to suppose, to think* (= to consider), *to trust, to understand;*

e) relational verbs: to *apply, to be, to belong, to concern, to consist, to contain, to depend, to deserve, to differ, to equal, to fit, to have, to hold* (= to contain), *to include, to involve, to lack, to matter, to need, to owe, to own, to possess, to remain, to require, to resemble, to result, to signify, to suffice;*

f) some other verbs: *to agree, to allow, to appear* (= to seem), *to astonish, to claim, to consent, to displease, to envy, to fail to do, to feel* (intr)[1], *to find, to forbid, to forgive, to intend, to interest, to keep doing, to manage to do, to mean, to object, to please, to prefer, to prevent, to puzzle, to realize, to refuse, to remind, to satisfy, to seem, to smell* (intr),[1] *to sound* (intr),[1] *to succeed, to suit, to surprise, to taste* (intr),[1] *to tend, to value.*

[1] As in: *The surface* **feels** *rough. The song* **sounds** *nice. The soup* **tastes (smells)** *nice.*

3) English verbs are also classified according to the type of object they take. Verbs that do not require any object are called intransitive.

e.g. We walked across the fields.
Nobody knew where the old man lived.

Verbs that require some kind of object to complete their meaning are called transitive. The objects transitive verbs take may be direct (a), indirect (b) or prepositional (c).

e.g. a) I swear I'm telling the truth.
b) His mother never gave him advice.
c) Now let's talk of something sensible.

Polysemantic verbs may be transitive in one meaning and intransitive in another.

e.g. I didn't know where to find him as he had changed his address.
I was glad to see that he had not changed at all.
He ran uphill past a block of houses.
She ran the shop quite competently.

§ 3. According to their meaning and function in the sentence English verbs are classified into notional and structural ones.

Notional verbs always have a lexical meaning of their own and can have an independent syntactic function in the sentence.

e.g. During the war he lived in London.

When a verb is used as a structural word, it may either preserve or lose its lexical meaning. But even if it has a lexical meaning of its own, the latter is of a specific character and the verb cannot have an independent syntactic function in the sentence — it is always closely connected with some other word. Here belong modal verbs and link-verbs.

A modal verb is always accompanied by an infinitive — together they form a modal predicate.

e.g. The party is at eight. You must dress suitably for it.
I couldn't do anything under the circumstances.

A link-verb is followed by a predicative; together they form a nominal predicate.

e.g. He **was** *a middle-aged man.*
It became *very hot* by noon.
The hotel remained *empty* all through the winter.
The cottage seemed *deserted.*

Sometimes a verb is entirely devoid of lexical meaning and is then called an auxiliary verb. Combined with a notional verb it serves to build up analytical forms.

e.g. We had arranged to meet in the usual place.
Do you know why he said that?
The young man was sitting at the table alone.

Polysemantic verbs may be notional as well as structural words.

e.g. He is married and has three children (a notional verb used in the meaning 'to possess').
I had to reconsider my position (a *structural word: a modal verb denoting obligation, part of a modal predicate).*
"It has happened now," he said, "so there's nothing to do" (a *structural word: an auxiliary verb which serves to build up an analytical form).*
He looked at me, waiting for the next words (*notional verb meaning 'glanced').*
He **looked** quite happy *(a structural word: a link-verb meaning 'seemed').*

§ 4. English verbs are characterized by a great variety of forms which can be divided into two main groups according to the function they perform in the sentence: the finite forms and the non-finite forms.

The finite forms have the function of the predicate in the sentence and may also be called the predicative forms.

The non-finite or non-predicative forms can have various other functions; they are used as the predicate of the sentence only by way of exception. These forms are often called the verbals (see "Verbs", §§ 163-254).

The finite forms of the verb have the following grammatical categories:

1) Person and Number. These categories of the verb serve to show the connection between the subject and the predicate of the sentence — the subject agrees with the predicate in person and number. We find three persons (the first, the second, and the third) and two numbers (the singular and the plural) in finite verbs (see the formation of finite forms, "Verbs", §§ 9, 11, 15, 17, 22, 25, 29, 33, 38, 40, 43, 45).

2) Tense, Aspect and Phase (see "Verbs", § 7).

3) Voice (see "Verbs", §§ 61-63).

4) Mood (see "Verbs", §§ 122-125).

§ 5. The forms that serve to express the above mentioned grammatical categories may be built up in different ways.

We find three basic forms that serve as a foundation for building up all the other forms of the English verb. These forms are: 1) the plain verb stem which is also often referred to as the infinitive without the particle *to*, 2) the Past Indefinite, and 3) the participle.

According to the way of forming the Past Indefinite and the participle, all verbs can be divided into two classes: regular and irregular verbs.

With regular verbs, the Past Indefinite and the participle are formed by adding the suffix *-ed.* It is pronounced [d] after vowels and voiced consonants (e.g. *played, answered, opened, closed),* [t] after voiceless consonants (e.g. *looked, passed),* and [id] after verbs ending in [t] or [d] (e.g. *wanted, wasted, ended, landed).*

In writing the following spelling rules should be observed:

1) Verbs ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant change the *-y* into *-led* (e.g. *study — studied, envy — envied).* But if the *-y* is preceded by a vowel, it remains unchanged (e.g. *play — played, stay — stayed).*

2) A final consonant is doubled if it is preceded by a short stressed vowel or if a verb ends in a stressed *-er (-ur)* (e.g. *stop — stopped, admit — admitted, occur — occurred, prefer — preferred).* But if the preceding vowel is long or unstressed, the final consonant remains single (e.g. *limit — limited, perform — performed, conquer — conquered, appear — appeared).*

3) A final *-l* is always doubled in British English (e.g. *travel — travelled, quarrel — quarrelled).*

All other verbs should be regarded as irregular in modern English. They are a miscellaneous group comprising various patterns

(e.g. *sing — sang — sung, write — wrote — written, send — sent — sent, teach — taught — taught,* etc.)- Some verbs have a regular form by the side of an irregular one (e.g. *learn — learnt — learnt* and also *learn — learned — learned).* A number of verbs remain unchanged (e.g. *cut — cut — cut, hit — hit — hit).* Two verbs take their forms from different roots and are called suppletive systems. They are the verbs *to be* and *to go.* (For a complete list of irregular verbs see Appendix.)

§ 6. The forms of the verb which are built up with the help of the above described basic forms may be of two different kinds — synthetic or analytical.

Synthetic forms are built up by a change in the word itself: by means of suffixes (e.g. *I work, he works, we worked),* by means of vowel change (e.g. *I find, I found),* and sometimes by combining both means (e.g. *I think, I thought).*

Analytical forms consist of two components, e.g. *He* has worked *hard.* The first component is an auxiliary verb which has no lexical meaning — it expresses only grammatical meaning. The second component is a notional verb which is the bearer of lexical meaning ('носитель лексического значения'). The auxiliary verb shows that *has worked* is the third person singular, the Indicative Mood, the Active Voice. But the specific meaning of this particular form, that of the Present Perfect, results only from the combination of both components.

In the analytical form *was written* (as in: *The letter was written yesterday), written* is the bearer of lexical meaning; *was* shows that we are dealing with the third person singular, the Indicative Mood, the Past Indefinite, But again the specific grammatical meaning of this particular form, that of the Passive Voice, is expressed by the whole combination of the auxiliary and the notional verb.

Thus an analytical form consists of two words — a structural word and a notional word — which form a very close, inseparable unit. It functions in English as the form of a single word by the side of synthetic forms (e.g. *he works, he has worked, he worked, he was working, he had worked,* etc.).

The auxiliary verb itself may be an analytical form (e.g. *He* has been *working. He* will be *working. The letter* has been *written,* etc.). Such forms may be called complex analytical forms.

FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB

Tense, Aspect **and** Phase

§ 7. Tense is the form of the verb which indicates the time of the action. The category of tense in English is made up by a set of forms opposed to each other in referring the event or state described to the present, past or future.

Aspect is the form of the verb which serves to express the manner in which the action is regarded. There are two opposing sets of aspect forms in English — the Continuous forms and the Non-Continuous (Indefinite) forms. The Non-Continuous (Indefinite) forms have a very broad meaning, they have no specialized aspect characteristics of their own and merely represent an action as occurring. Conversely, the Continuous forms have a clear-cut aspect characteristic, which is to represent an action in its temporary development. The Continuous forms have a number of other concomitant meanings or overtones that go with the basic meaning of process and duration. They are incompletion, simultaneity, vividness of description, emotional colouring and emphasis.

Besides, there are the Perfect forms which are opposed to the Non-Perfect forms. The latter have no definite grammatical characteristics. The grammatical meaning of the Perfect forms is to express retrospectiveness, which consists of two elements — priority and relevance. In some grammars this category has been given the name phase.

The three grammatical categories of the English verb are so closely merged together that it is impossible to treat them separately.

We find the following finite forms in English: the Present Indefinite, the Present Continuous, the Present Perfect, the Present Perfect Continuous, the Past Indefinite, the Past Continuous, the Past Perfect, the Past Perfect Continuous, the Future Indefinite, the Future Continuous, the Future Perfect, the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past, the Future Continuous-in-the-Past, and the Future Perfect-in-the-Past.

§ 8. 1) In discussing the use of English finite forms it is necessary to understand that in most cases the choice is free: the form is chosen in accordance with the meaning the speaker wishes to

convey and does not depend on the structure of the sentence, e.g. *He knows English. He knew English. He will know English.*

In certain cases, however, the choice of the form is determined by the structure of the sentence, usually the kind of clause in which it is used. For example, the use of the Present Indefinite with reference to the future in a clause of time or condition (a), or the use of a finite form under the rules of the sequence of tenses (b).

e.g. a) When you **feel** hungry, I'll bring you some sandwiches.
If I want anything **I'll** call you up.
b) She knew that Henry **would be waiting** for her.
I wondered if he **had kept** his promise.

In such cases we have the **structurally dependent use** of finite forms.

In still other cases the choice of the finite form in a subordinate clause is determined not so much by the kind of clause as by the lexical character of the head-word, i.e. the word in the principal clause which the subordinate clause modifies or refers to. For example, in object clauses subordinated to the verbs *to see to, to take care* or *to make sure* the future forms are not used.

e.g. He'll take care that she **comes** in time.
She saw to it that they **had** plenty of food in the house.

In such cases we have the **lexically-dependent use** of finite forms.

2) Closely connected with the above notion is the **absolute** and **relative use** of finite forms. The forms may refer an action directly to the present, past or future time. We are dealing in this case with the absolute use of finite forms, which, as a rule, is structurally independent.

But in certain types of clauses the verb form of the subordinate clause only shows whether the action of the clause is simultaneous with that of the principal clause, precedes it or follows it. (These relations may be termed as **simultaneity, priority** and **posteriority** respectively.) In this case we are dealing with the relative use of finite forms. It is usually structurally dependent (see, for example, the rules of the sequence of tenses).

e.g. He **discovered** that his wife **knew** London far better than he **did.**
He **knew** that she **had read** his thoughts.
He thought that he **would hate** the place.

3) Last but not least, students of English should differentiate between **present-time contexts** and **past-time contexts.**

In present-time contexts, i.e. in conversations, letters, newspaper and radio reports, lectures and scientific prose, the situation is viewed from the moment of speaking. (The moment of speaking is to be understood as present from the speaker's point of view but not as the present moment.) Any finite form that is required by the sense can be used in present-time contexts. The only reservation should be made for the Past Perfect and the Past Perfect Continuous and all the Future-in-the-Past forms which are, in present-time contexts, mainly found in reported speech or thought.

In **past-time contexts,** i.e. in narration, the situation is viewed from a past moment. Hence, the use of finite forms is restricted only to past forms including the Future-in-the-Past.

The Present Indefinite

§ 9. The Present Indefinite is formed from the plain stem of the verb. In the third person singular it has the suffix *-s/-es* which is pronounced [z| after vowels and voiced consonants (e.g. *plays, opens),* [s] after voiceless consonants (e.g. *looks, puts),* and [iz] after sibilants (e.g. *closes, places, teaches, wishes, judges).*

In writing the following spelling rules should be observed:

a) Verbs ending in *-s, -ss, -sh, -ch, -tch, x* and *-z* take the suffix **-es** (e.g. *passes, pushes, watches).* The suffix *-es* is also added to verbs ending in o preceded by a consonant (e.g. *goes).*

b) Verbs ending in *-y* with a preceding consonant change the *-y* into *-ies (e.g. study — studies, try — tries, fly — flies).* But if the *Y* is preceded by a vowel, the suffix -s is added (e.g. *play — plays, stay — stays).*

The affirmative form of the Present Indefinite is a synthetic form (e.g. *I work, he works,* etc.). But the interrogative and negative forms are built up analytically, by means of the auxiliary verb *do* in the Present Indefinite and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle *to* (e.g. *Do you work? Does he work? I do not*

work. He does not work, etc.). In spoken English the contracted negative forms *don't* and *doesn't* should be used.

The Present Indefinite may have a special affirmative form which is used for emphasis. This emphatic form is built up analytically, by means of the Present Indefinite of the auxiliary verb to do followed by the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle to. The auxiliary verb is heavily stressed in this case (e.g. *I 'do insist on it. He 'does insist on it).*

§ 10. The Present Indefinite is used in the following cases:

1) When it serves to express recurrent (a) or permanent (b) actions in the present.

a) We find recurrent actions with terminative verbs. They are, as a matter of fact, point (instantaneous) actions repeated a number of times. This series of recurrent actions may include or exclude the actual moment of speaking.

This use of the Present Indefinite is often associated with such adverbial modifiers of frequency as *often, seldom, sometimes, occasionally, always, never, ever, every year (week, month, day), usually, once {twice, three times) a year, daily, on Sundays (Mondays,* etc.) and the like. But it may also be found without any indications of time.

e.g. He wakes up around six o'clock and has a cup of coffee.
He doesn't *usually* ring up early in the morning.
"Do you *often* come to these parties?" inquired Jordan of the girl beside her.
The charwoman comes in *daily.*

b) We find permanent actions with durative verbs. They generally indicate continuous, uninterrupted processes which naturally include the present moment. Such actions give a general characteristic to the person or thing denoted by the subject. Time indications are not obligatory in this case.

e.g. Her son works near here and so, after her husband's death, she came down to live here and he boards with her.
That old man gave me a surprise. He's seventy-five, and he doesn't walk, he runs.
I teach English and History at a college, and I live with my parents.
I hate authority. It spoils the relations between parent and child.
Like all young men, he sleeps like a log.

As is seen from the above examples, the difference between the two main uses of the Present Indefinite rests on the difference in the lexical character of the verb. In many cases, however, owing to the context or situation, the difference appears blurred and it becomes difficult to define the lexical character of the verb. In other words, we are dealing with marginal cases in this instance — a permanent characteristic is given through recurrent actions.

e.g. I always talk too much when I'm nervous.
I sometimes play the piano for five hours a day.
He usually walks to the corner with Phil.
Edith always gets away with things.

Note. The Present Indefinite is often said to express a general statement or a universal truth. In this case it also denotes either a recurrent action or a permanent process and thus it does not differ in principle from the two above described uses of the Present Indefinite.

e.g. Domestic animals return to their homes.
Romance only dies with life.
Still waters run deep, (a *proverb)*
A mother's love means devotion, unselfishness, sacrifice.

2) When it is used to express a succession of point actions taking place at the time of speaking. In this meaning it is used in stage directions or by radio and TV commentators in describing sports events, public functions, etc. That means that this use of the Present Indefinite is stylistically restricted.

e.g. a) In stage directions:
REV. S. Good night. *(They* shake *hands. As he* passes *Vivie he* shakes *hands with her also and* bids *her good-night. Then, in booming command, to Frank)* Come along, Sir, at once.

b) In comments (here on a TV film about Chi-Chi, the giant panda, who returns home after her stay in the Moscow Zoo):
"Chi-Chi is in the pen. She walks over to the travelling box. Chi-Chi climbs on the rock. The crowd moves closer to Chi-Chi."

c) In **demonstrations:**

Now **I peel** the apples, **slice** them and **put** into the dish. Then **I whip** the cream until thick and **pour** it over the apples.

3) The Present Indefinite is sometimes used to express a single action going on at the moment of speaking where normally the Present Continuous is used. This occurs in two different cases:

a) The use of the Present Indefinite becomes obligatory with stative verbs. (For the list see "Verbs", § 2.)

e.g. I quite **understand** what you **mean.**
She sipped her coffee and pulled a face. "It tastes horrible tonight."
He **wants** to see you for a minute.
"Do you object, Dad?" said the girl.

b) The Present Indefinite is also used for an instantaneous action which takes place at the moment of speaking but it is not viewed in its progress. The speaker just names the occurrence itself, the action as such.

e.g. "I repeat, the girl has been extremely impertinent," he said.
You **leave** me no choice.
I **swear** it to you!
I **refuse** to listen to you. You **talk** such nonsense.
"Where shall we have our meal?" "Anywhere you like." "I choose the kitchen then."
"You've always treated me badly and now you insult me," Maurice shouted in his turn.

This use of the Present Indefinite is also often found in exclamatory and interrogative sentences.

e.g. My dear, how you throw about your money!
She said: "How swiftly the years **fly!**"
"May I help you to wash the baby?" "It is very kind of you. Ah, how he kicks! Has he splashed you?"
Why do you talk like that to me?

4) The Present Indefinite may be used to express future actions. This occurs in four different cases:

a) Its use is structurally dependent (see "Verbs", §8), i.e. compulsory, in subordinate clauses of time, condition and concession when the action refers to the future (in such cases we usually find the Future Indefinite, or modal verbs, or the Imperative Mood in the principal clause).

Clauses of time referring to the future may be introduced by the conjunctions *when, while, till, until, before, after, as soon as* and *once.*

e.g. Will you wait while **I look** through the manuscript?
She won't go to bed till you come.
I shall have a look at his paper when I get it.

Clauses of condition are introduced by the conjunctions *if, unless, on condition {that), provided {providing)* and *in case.*

e.g. If you **send** me a line to my club, it'll be forwarded at once.
But I must have the doctor handy, in case she **feels** worse.

Note. In clauses other than those of time and condition, the Future Indefinite is used even if these clauses are introduced by the conjunctions *if* and *when.*

e.g. I wonder if the tape recorder **will** eventually replace the record player.
The important thing to know is when the book will come out.

Clauses of concession are introduced by the conjunctions *even if, even though, no matter how, whenever, whatever, however,* etc.

e.g. Even if he hates me I shall never do him any harm.
I'll have dinner whenever it's ready.

b) Its use is lexically dependent in object clauses after *to see (to), to take care* and *to make (be) sure.*

e.g. I'll see that the lady is properly looked after.
Her husband will look after her, and make sure no harm comes to her.
He will take care that no one interferes with them.

c) The use of the Present Indefinite with reference to the immediate future is structurally dependent in some special questions.

e.g. What do we do next? ('Что будем сейчас делать?')
Where do we go now? ('Куда сейчас пойдем?')
What happens next? ('Что сейчас будет?')

You look ill. Why **don't** you **go** home? ("Ты плохо выглядишь. Почему бы тебе не пойти домой?')

d) The Present Indefinite may be used to indicate a future action which is certain to take place according to a timetable, programme, schedule, command or arrangement worked out for a person or persons officially. In this case the sentence usually contains an indication of time.

e.g. "Is Mr Desert in?" "No, Sir. Mr Desert has just started for the East. His ship sails tomorrow." (*according to the timetable)*

Our tourist group **sleep** at the Globo hotel this night and **start** for Berlin tomorrow morning, (*according to the itinerary)*

"Can you tell me what time the game **starts** today, please?" *(according to the schedule)*

When **does** Ted **return** from his honeymoon? *{according to his official leave of absence)*

You see, in six weeks his regiment goes back to the front, *(according to the command)*

Note. It should be noted that this use of the Present Indefinite is not interchangeable with the Present Continuous. (See "Verbs", § 11.)

5) The Present Indefinite is used in literary style to describe a succession of actions in the past, usually to make a vivid narrative of past events. This application of the Present Indefinite is often called in grammars **the historic** or **dramatic present.**

e.g. She **arrives** full of life and spirit. And about a quarter of an hour later she **sits down** in a chair, says she **doesn't feel** well, **gasps** a bit and **dies.**

The Present Continuous

§ **11.** The Present Continuous is an analytical form which *is* built up by means of the auxiliary verb **to** be in the Present Indefinite and the *ing-form* of the notional verb (e.g. *I am working. He is working,* etc.). The same auxiliary is used in the interrogative and the negative form (e.g. *Are you working? Is he working? We are not working. He is not working,* etc.). In spoken English the contracted forms I'*m, he's* and *we're* should be used in affirma tive sentences and *isn't* and *aren't* in negative sentences.

The *ing-form,* is built up by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb (e.g. *speak — speaking).*

In writing the following spelling rules should be observed:

a) A mute *-e* at the end of the verb is dropped before the suffix *-ing* (e.g. *close — closing, make — making).*

b) A final consonant is doubled if it is preceded by a short stressed vowel or if a verb ends in a stressed *-er (-ur)* (e.g. *cut — cutting, begin — beginning, prefer — preferring, occur — occurring),*

c) A final *-I* is always doubled in British English (e.g. *travel — travelling, quarrel — quarrelling).*

d) A final *-y* is preserved no matter what sound it is preceded by (e.g. *study — studying, stay — staying).*

e) A final *ie* changes into *-y* (e.g. *tie — tying, lie — lying).*

§ 12. The Present Continuous is used with dynamic verbs in the following cases:

1) To express an action going on at the present moment, i.e. *the moment of speaking.*

The precise time limits of the action are not known, its beginning and its end are not specified. The indication of time is not necessary in this case though occasionally such adverbial modifiers as *now* and *at present* are found.

e.g. "Do you know where Philip is?" "I expect he **is** talking to Mother."

I asked: "Is anything new happening?"

"Oh, hullo," he said. "Do you want to see me?" "No, thanks. I'm looking for my father."

Tears flowed slowly down her cheeks. "What are you crying for?"

"Oh, mummy! The eggs **are burning!** The coffee is boiling over! Where is the large tray? Where do you keep things?" cried Adeline.

2) To express an action going on **at** the **present period.** In this case the precise time limits of the action are not known either. Besides, the action may or may not be going on at the actual moment of speaking. As in the previous case, indications of time are not necessary here either.

e.g. But you've not been in England much lately. Public opinion is changing. I must tell you about it.
"And what are you doing in Geneva?" "I'm writing a play," said Ashenden.
The great detective has retired from business. He is growing roses in a little cottage in Dorking.
I stay indoors most of the time. I'm catching up with my studies.
They're getting ready to move to their new house.

Sometimes this Present Continuous shows that for the time being a certain action happens to be the most important and characteristic occupation for its doer (for this see the last four examples above).

Note. Notice the phrase *to be busy doing something.* It is synonymous in meaning with the Present Continuous in the first and second cases of its use. The phrase is very common in English.

e.g. Father is busy cutting the grass in the garden.
Nigel is busy getting himself into Parliament.

3) To express actions generally characterizing the person denoted by the subject, bringing out the person's typical traits. Often the adverbial modifiers *always* and *constantly* are found in these sentences,

e.g. People are always blaming their circumstances for what they are.
"You're always showing off," she said to her brother in a loud whisper.
Her husband retorted: "You're constantly complaining that you have too much to do."

The Present Continuous in this case imparts a subjective, emotionally coloured tone. When no emotional colouring is implied, the Present Indefinite is used to give an objective characteristic (see "Verbs", § 10, *b).*

Cf.: Old uncle Harry is always thinking he's going to be ruined.
You people always think I've a bag of money.

Note. Note the following sentence patterns, in which recurrent actions are made emotionally coloured by the use of the Present Continuous.

e.g- I wonder if all grown-up people play in that childish way when nobody is looking?
When Adeline is grinning we know she is happy.
When I see him he is always eating something.

4) To express actions which will take place in the near future due to one's previous decision. For that reason the action is regarded as something definitely settled. We usually find an indication of future time in this case (see also "Verbs", § 47).

e.g. "I am sailing early next month," he said.
Are you dining out tonight?
He is having a meeting with the men this afternoon.
"I'm staying the night at Green Street," said Val.

§ 13. As has been said above, the Present Continuous is used with dynamic verbs. However, some stative verbs (see "Verbs", § 2, *2)* when they change their meaning can be used in the Continuous form.

e.g. "Are you seeing Clare tonight?" she asked.
He said, "I'm seeing you home."
"Are you going in the water?" Sybil said. "I'm seriously considering it."
Jane turned away. "The thing to do," she said, "is to pay no attention to him. He is just being silly."

Note. Notice that in cases like those above the verb *to be* is close to *to behave* in meaning.

Special attention should be paid to the verb *to have* which in its original meaning 'to possess' does not admit of the continuous form.

e.g. Suddenly he came in and said: "Have you a letter for me, postman?"

But with a change of its meaning, the use of the continuous form becomes the rule if it is required by the sense. Namely, it occurs when *to have* is part of set phrases, as in: *to have a bath, to have a good holiday, to have a party, to have a smoke, to have a walk, to have coffee, to have dinner, to have something done, to have to do something, to have trouble* and the like.

e.g. "Where is Mr Franklin?" he asked. "He's having a bath. He'll be right out."

I know you **are having** your difficulties.
My village will be as pretty as a picture. Trees along the street. You see, **I'm having** them planted already.

Some of the other verbs included in the list of stative verbs may also be occasionally used in the continuous form. Then the actions indicated by these verbs express great intensity of feeling.

e.g. "You'll find it a great change to live in New York." "At the present time **I'm hating** it," she said in an expressionless tone.
"Strange," he said, "how, when people are either very young or very old, they **are** always **wanting** to do something they should not do."
Dear Amy, I've settled in now and **I am liking** my new life very much.

§ 14. Some durative verbs, for example, verbs of bodily sensation *(to ache, to feel, to hurt, to itch,* etc.) and such verbs as *to wear, to look* (= to seem), *to shine* and some other can be used either in the Present Indefinite or in the Present Continuous with little difference in meaning.

Cf. You're looking well, cousin Joan.
You **look** quite happy today.
"I know what you **are** feeling, Roy," she said. "We all **feel** exactly the same."

The Present Perfect

§ **15.** The Present Perfect is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb *to have* in the Present Indefinite and the participle of the notional verb (e.g. I *have worked. He has worked,* etc.)- (On the formation of the participle see "Verbs", § 5 and Appendix.) The same auxiliary is used to form the interrogative and negative forms (e.g. *Have you worked? Has he worked? It has not worked. They have not worked).* In spoken English the contracted forms *I've, he's, she's, it's, we've, you've* and *they've* are used in affirmative sentences and *haven't* and *hasn't* in negative sentences.

§ 16. The Present Perfect falls within the time sphere of the , present and is not used in narration where reference is made to past events. It follows from that that the Present Perfect is used **in** present-time contexts, i.e. conversations, newspaper and radio reports, lectures and letters.

The Present Perfect has three distinct uses. They will be further referred to as **Present Perfect I, Present Perfect II** and **Present Perfect III.**

1) Present Perfect I is the Present Perfect proper. It is used to express an accomplished action which is viewed from the moment
of speaking as part of the present situation. Attention in this case is centred on the action itself. The circumstances under which the action occurred appear unimportant and immaterial at the moment and need not be mentioned.

e.g. He is very sensitive, **I have discovered** that.
I've had a talk with him. He says he has all the proof he wants.
Such news! We've **bought** a racehorse.
"I've **spoiled** everything," she said.
His secretary said tactfully: "I've **put off** your other appointments for a while."

It should be especially noted that though the action expressed in the Present Perfect is regarded as already accomplished, it belongs to the present-time sphere and is treated as a present action. It becomes obvious from the periphrasis:

I've **heard** the doctor's opinion —> I **know** the doctor's opinion.
She's gone off to the woods —> She **is** in the woods.

A similar idea of an accomplished action is also traced in such expressions referring to the present as *He* **is awake.** ***I'm*** **late.** *The work* **is done.** *The door* **is locked,** etc.

Since it **is** the action itself that the Present Perfect makes important, it is frequently used **to open up conversations** (newspaper and radio reports, or letters) or to **introduce** a **new topic** in them. However, if the conversation (report or letter) continues on the same subject, going into detail, the Present Perfect usually changes to the Past Indefinite, as the latter is used to refer to actions or situations which are definite in the mind of the speaker. Usually (but not necessarily) some concrete circumstances of the action (time, place, cause, purpose, manner, etc.) are mentioned in this case.

e.g. "You are all right. You are coming round. Are you feeling better?"
"I'm quite all right. But what has happened? Where am I?"
"You're in a dug-out, You were buried by a bomb from a trench-mortar."
"Oh, was I? But how did I get here?"
"Someone dragged you. I am afraid some of your men were killed, and several others were wounded."

"Pussy Cat, Pussy Cat,	"Pussy Cat, Pussy Cat,
Where have you been?"	What did you see there?"
"I've been to London	"I saw a little mouse
To look at the Queen."	Under her chair."

As is seen from the above examples, the Present Perfect is used to name a new action, whereas the Past Indefinite is used to refer back to a definite action and the attention in this case is often drawn rather to the circumstances attending the action than to the action itself.

Note. The functions of the Present Perfect and the Past Indefinite may be in a way compared with those of the indefinite and the definite articles.

The indefinite article is used when an object is just named (e.g. *Glue me* a *book. She is* a *teacher. I have* a *brother).* Likewise the Present Perfect serves to name an accomplished action (see the examples above).

Both the definite article and the Past Indefinite are used when an object or an action, respectively, is definite in the mind of the speaker *(e.g.* **The** *book is on* the *table.* The *teacher returned* the *compositions,)*

As has been said, Present Perfect I is mainly used to introduce a new topic. But it may also be used to sum up a situation.

e.g. "I've done bad things," I said, "but I don't think I could have done some of the things you've done."
"You've so often been helpful in the past." "I've tried," said Joseph.
We've all been young once, you know. We've all felt it, Roy.
"I'm afraid I've been horribly boring and talked too much," she said as she pressed my hand.
"Agatha has told me everything. How cleverly you have both kept your secret,"
"You and your wife have been very good to me. Thank you."

In accordance with its main function — just to name an accomplished action — the Present Perfect is generally used when [the time of the action is not given.

e.g. He sat down. "You have not changed," he said. "No? What have you come for?" "To discuss things."
"Mr Pyke has told me such wonderful things about you. Walter."
"I haven't thought about it," she returned.

However, sometimes, even though there may be no indication of past time in the sentence, the Present Perfect cannot be used because reference is made to happenings which are definite in the mind of the speaker (either because the action has already been mentioned or because the situation is very well known to the listener). In this case the use of the Past Indefinite is very common.

e.g. Did you sleep well?	I didn't understand you.
Did you enjoy the play?	Did you have a good journey
Did you like the book?	(trip, ride, flight, day, time)?
What did you say?	Did you see the accident?
Did you hear what he said?	I'm sorry I lost my temper.
I didn't hear your question.	

It is possible, however, to use the Present Perfect when there is an adverbial modifier of time in the sentence that denotes a period of time which is not over yet, e.g. *today, this morning, this week, this month, this year,* etc.

e.g. What Rosanna has done *tonight* is clear enough, *(Tonight is not over yet.)*
This year we have taken only one assistant. *(This year is not over.)*
I have had only one new dress *this summer,"* exclaimed June. *(This summer is not over yet.)*

Conversely, if the period is over or reference is made to a particular past point of time within that period, the Past Indefinite is used.

e.g. "Did you see the letter in the "Times" *this morning? (It is no longer morning.)* "No. I haven't had time to look at a paper *today," (Today is not over yet.)*

"Whom do you think I passed in Richmond Park *today!" (Today is not over, but the action took place at a particular point of time within today, namely when the person was in Richmond Park.)*

"I wasn't very well *this morning,* but I'm perfectly all right now." *(This morning is over.)*

Note. It should be noted that sometimes an adverbial modifier of place points to a past period of time.

e.g. **Did** you see him *at the theatre?* (= when you were at the theatre)
I ran into her *in Oxford Street.* (= when I was in Oxford Street)

The Present Perfect may be found with certain adverbs of indefinite time and frequency such as *just* ('только что'), *not ... yet, already, before, always, ever, never, often, seldom, recently, late ly, of late,* etc.

e.g. She's *just* missed being run over.
I haven't even had coffee *yet.*
He has *never* made a sixpence by any of his books.
Have you heard of him *lately?*
"What is the point?" "I've made it clear enough *before."*

However, the use of the Present Perfect is by no means obligatory with the above mentioned adverbs, because any other finite form may be used with these adverbs if it is required by the situation.

e.g. He was studying to be a pianist, but he *never* touches the piano now.
He noticed that the leaves of the chestnut were *already* beginning to turn yellow and brown.
His room was not *yet* furnished, and he liked it to remain empty.

Note 1. Note the use of the Past Indefinite with *just now.*

e.g. I **told** you *just now* I had never had time for much fun.

Note 2. Russian students of English, under the influence of the Russian language, tend to use the adverb *already* nearly in every sentence containing the Present Perfect. That is not characteristic of the English language as it is sufficient to use the Present Perfect alone to express an accomplished action. The addition of *already* appears redundant in many cases.

It follows from the rules above that the Present Perfect is not used when there is an indication of past time in the sentence. It is the Past Indefinite that is used in this case because the mention of the definite past time ties the action to the past-time sphere as it were, and it cannot break through to the present.

e.g. "Put on your clothes at once and come with me." "But what is it? Has something happened?" "I'm afraid so. Your husband was taken ill *this afternoon."*
"M. Poirot, you have no idea of what I have gone through." "I know your wife died just *over a year ago."*

Similarly, it is the Past Indefinite that is used in questions introduced by *when.*

e.g. When did you actually arrive?
When did you change your mind?

The Past Indefinite is also used in special questions beginning with *where* and *how* when they refer to the past events. The Present Perfect is not common here because the attention in such sentences is drawn to the circumstances of the action rather than to the occurrence itself, which means that the speaker has a definite action in mind.

e.g. *"Where* did your uncle receive his guests?" "Right here."
"How did he get in?" I asked, and Evans said, "Oh, he has a key."
"Where is my hat? *Where* did I leave my hat?"

Note. The question *Where* have *you* been? can be asked of the person who has just come.

e.g. 'Hello, Mum. I'm sorry I'm late" "Where have you been?"
In all other cases it should be *Where* were *you!*

e.g. "Did the party go off nicely?" "I don't know. I wasn't there." "Where **were** you?'

In special questions beginning with interrogative words other than those mentioned above (e.g. *who, what, why, what ... for* and other), both the Present Perfect and the Past Indefinite are possible. The choice depends on the meaning to be conveyed. If reference is made to an action which is past or definite in the minds of the people speaking, or if there is a change of scene, the Past In-

definite is used; if reference is made to an action which is still valid as part of the present situation, the Present Perfect should be used.

e.g. *"What* have I done against you?" she burst out defiantly.
"Nothing." "Then why can't we get on?"
"I know she gave him a good scolding." *"What* did he do?"
Looking up at her he said: "Dorothy's gone to a garden party." "I know. *Why* haven't you gone too?"
Why didn't you speak to my father yourself on the boat?

Note 1. As to general questions, the Present Perfect as well as the Past Indefi nite may be found in them because they may inquire either about new facts which are important for the present or about events that are definite in the mind of the speaker.

Note 2. In the following example the verb *to be* is used in the meaning 'to visit', 'to go'. Hence it takes the preposition *to* after it. It is noteworthy that *to be* acquires this meaning only if used in the Present Perfect or the Past Perfect.

e.g. Renny said: "He has been to Ireland too"
"Have you been to a symphony concert?" he continued.

Note 3. The combination *has/have got* may be used as the Present Perfect of the verb *to get* (which is not very common, though).

e.g. I don't know what's got into Steven today.
He has got into financial difficulties and needs cash.

But it is often used as a set phrase which has two different meanings — 'to possess' (a) and 'to be obliged' (b).

e.g. a) "Have you got a telephone?" she looked round the room.
"I don't think we've got any choice," said Francis,
b) "No" he said loudly, "there are some risks you've got to take."
"It doesn't matter what caused it," said Martin. "We have got to take the consequences"

In this case the time reference also changes — *has/have got* is the Present Perfect only in form; it actually indicates a present state of things.

Note 4. She is gone is a survival of the old Present Perfect which was formed with certain verbs by means of the auxiliary *to be.* In present-day English it is to be treated as a set phrase meaning 'she is not here any longer'.

2) Present Perfect II serves to express an action which began before the moment of speaking and continues into it or up to it. This grammatical meaning is mainly expressed by the Present Perfect Continuous (see "Verbs", § 18). However, the Present Perfect Non-Continuous is found in the following cases:

a) Its use is compulsory with stative verbs (see "Verbs", §2, *2).*

e.g. I've known the young lady all her life.
I've loved her since she was a child.
"But we've been in conference for two hours," he said. "It's time we had a tea break."

b) With some dynamic verbs of durative meaning the Present Perfect is sometimes used instead of the Present Perfect Continuous with little difference in meaning.

e.g. "It's a pretty room, isn't it?" "I've slept in it for fifteen years."
"I'm glad to meet you," he said. "I've waited a long while and began to be afraid I'd not have the opportunity."
He's looked after Miss Gregg for many years now.

As to terminative verbs, they can only have the meaning of Present Perfect I and never of Present Perfect II.

Since it is often difficult to draw the line between durative and terminative verbs, it is recommended that students of English should use the Present Perfect Continuous with all dynamic verbs to express an action begun in the past and continued into the present.

c) The Present Perfect is preferred to the Present Perfect Continuous in negative sentences, when it is the action itself that is completely negated (see also "Verbs", § 19).

e.g. "Shall we sit down a little? We haven't sat here for ages."
"I was just having a look at the paper," he said. "I haven't read the paper for the last two days."
"She hasn't written to me for a year," said Roy.

It is noteworthy that Present Perfect II is associated with certain time indications — either the whole period of the duration of the action is marked or its starting point. In the former case we find different time indications. Some expressions are introduced by the preposition *for* and sometimes *in* (e.g. *for an hour, for many years, for the last few days, for a long time, for so long, for ages, in years, in a long while,* etc.)- Other expressions have no prepositions (e.g. *these three years, all this week, all along, so long, all one's life,* etc.).

e.g. The picture has been mine *for years and years.*
I've felt differently about him *for some time.*
"Why haven't I seen you *all these months?"* said Hankins.
We haven't had any fun *in a long while.*
I've wanted to go to the sea *all my life.*

The starting point of the action is indicated by the adverb *since*, a prepositional phrase with *since* or a clause introduced by the conjunction *since.*

e.g. "But, Dinny, when did you meet him?" "Only ten days ago, but I've seen him every day *since."*
The sun has been in the room *since the morning.*
But she has seemed so much better *since you started the injections.*

In the clause introduced by *since* the Past Indefinite is used to indicate the starting point of an action (see the example above).

However, we sometimes find in both parts of such complex sentences two parallel actions which began at the same time in the past and continue into the present. In this case the Present Perfect is used in both clauses,

e.g. I've loved you *since* I've known you.

It should be noted that the indication of time is indispensable to Present Perfect II because otherwise its meaning in most cases would be changed. It would come to denote an accomplished action which is part of the present situation (for this see Present Perfect I).

Cf. I've been taught to do *it for three years.*
I have been taught to do it.
But we met him here about a month ago. We haven't heard from him *since.*
We haven't heard from him.

Care should be taken to distinguish between the use of the Present Perfect and the Past Indefinite when the period of duration is expressed by a prepositional phrase with *for.* If the period of duration belongs to the past time sphere, the Past Indefinite should be used. It is only if the period of duration comes close to the moment of speaking or includes it that the Present Perfect is used.

Cf. "I have lived like this," he said, *"for two years,* and I can't stand it any more."
"I teach History at a secondary school. I went to the University here *for four years* and got a degree."
The same is true of questions beginning with *how long.*
"Are you married?" "Yes." *"How long* have you been married?"
"Are you married?" "No. I'm divorced." *"How long* were you married?"

3) Present Perfect III is found in adverbial clauses of time introduced by the conjunctions *when, before, after, as soon as, till* and *until* where it is used to express a future action. It shows that the action of the subordinate clause will be accomplished before the action of the principal clause (which is usually expressed by the Future Indefinite). This use of the Present Perfect is structurally dependent as it is restricted only to the above mentioned type of clauses.

e.g. "You'll find," said Fred, "that you'll long for home when you have left it."
As soon as we have had some tea, Ann, we shall *go* to inspect your house.
I'll take you back in my car but not till I've made you some coffee.

Sometimes the Present Indefinite is found in this type of clauses in the same meaning as the Present Perfect. The choice of the form depends on the lexical meaning of the verb. With durative verbs the Present Perfect is necessary.

e.g. When you have had your tea, we'll see about it.
I can tell you whether the machine is good or bad when I have tried it.

With terminative verbs the use of both forms is possible,

Cf. He says when he retires he'll grow roses.
When I've finished this I must go and put the baby to bed.
Mother will stay at home until we return.
"Your mother wouldn't like me." "You can't possibly say that until you've met her."

The Present Perfect Continuous

§ 17. The Present Perfect Continuous is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the Present Perfect and the ing-form of the notional verb (e.g. I *have been working. He has been working,* etc.). {On the formation of the *ing-form* see "Verbs", § 11.)

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject (e.g. *Have you been working? Has she been working?,* etc.). In the negative form the negative particle not is placed after the first auxiliary (e.g. *We have not been working. They have not been working,* etc.). In spoken English the contracted forms *I've, he's, she's, it's, we've, you've* and *they've* are used in affirmative sentences and *hasn't* and *haven't* in negative sentences.

§ 18. The Present Perfect Continuous falls within the time sphere of the present. Hence it is not used in narration where reference is made to past events. It is found in present-time contexts, i.e. conversations, newspaper and radio reports, lectures and letters.

The Present Perfect Continuous has two uses which will be further referred to as Present Perfect Continuous I and Present Perfect Continuous II.

1) Present Perfect Continuous I serves to express an action which began before the moment of speaking and continues into it or up to it. In this meaning it is parallel to Present Perfect II and may be used with the same indications of time as described in "Verbs", § 16.

e.g. He said he was in town and wanted to see me. That was a couple of hours ago and I have been waiting *ever since.*

"We've been staying here *nearly a week.* "I hope you are not thinking of leaving." "Her ladyship is waiting to see you and Sergeant Cuff,", he said. *"How long* has she been waiting?"

I wish you'd go, Chris! We've been getting on each other's nerves *lately.*

"I have been thinking about it *for a long time,"* said Erik frankly.

I've been sitting here *quite a while.*

He's your elder brother. But you are the one who looks after him. You've been making excuses for him *all your life.*

Present Perfect Continuous I may be used with both durative and terminative verbs.

As has been said, Present Perfect II can also be used in this meaning with durative verbs, though it is less common (see also "Verbs", § 16, *2)* and it is never used with terminative verbs.

It stands to reason that the Present Perfect Continuous is not common with stative verbs.

2) Present Perfect Continuous II serves to express an action which was in progress quite recently and which in one way or another affects the present situation, explains or gives reasons for the state of things at the present moment.

The precise time limits of the action (i.e. its beginning and its end) are not specified. This use of the Present Perfect Continuous seems to be prevailing over its use described under I. Besides, in this meaning the Present Perfect Continuous is not parallel to Present Perfect II.

e.g. "Your shoes are wet." "I've been walking in the rain."

She said: "I've been talking to your boy-friend, Adeline, and I like him."

She's been washing her hair, but it may be dry now.

He began abruptly: "I've been thinking about what you told me."

Don't tell your mother what I've been saying.

He clasped the massive woollen underwear against his chest. "Just what I need," he declared. "The moths have been eating mine."

What have you been doing?

Then Phil called: "I'll be right down. I've been shutting the windows."

The Present Perfect Continuous in this case is, as a rule, not associated with any indications of time (see the examples above). It is only occasionally found with indications of a recent period of time or with the adverb *just.*

e.g. Augustus has been dining with us *tonight.*

I have been discussing it with Arabella *this evening.*

I've *just* been having such a delightful chat with Margaret.

§ 19. In negative sentences the Present Perfect Continuous is not common. Present Perfect II is preferred in this case (for examples see "Verbs", § 16, *2c).*

However, the Present Perfect Continuous is also found in negative sentences but in this case the negation does not refer to the action itself but to the circumstances attending the action.

e.g. "We don't wish to overtire the boys." "A walk would only do them good," Jenny said. "They haven't been sleeping at all well recently." *(which means that they have been sleeping but their sleep has not been sound enough)*

I'm sorry I'm late. I hope you have not been waiting for me. *(which means that I know you have been waiting but I hope it is not for me)*

§ 20. Present Perfect Continuous I and particularly Present Perfect Continuous II are sometimes found with stative verbs.

e.g. "There's one thing I've been meaning to ask you, Miles," Fred said one afternoon.

"Hello," she said. "I'm glad you're having lunch here. I've been wanting to talk to you."

I've been noticing these changes in you ever since you got that university degree.

A little break like this is what she's been needing all these years.

"Do you know Mr Nesfield?" "Oh, yes. We have been seeing him every day."

§ 21. Note the following sentence patterns:

a) He has been reading since he came.

b) He has been reading since he has been working in the library.

In the first pattern the action in the subordinate clause introduced by *since* is expressed by the Past Indefinite and serves to indicate only the starting point of the action in the principal clause.

In the second pattern the action of the subordinate clause is parallel to that of the principal clause as they both began at the same time in the past and continue into the moment of speaking. In this case the Present Perfect Continuous is used .in both clauses (or Present Perfect II, with stative verbs).

The Past Indefinite

§ 22. The Past Indefinite is a synthetic form (e.g. I *worked. He sang).* (On the formation of the Past Indefinite see "Verbs", § ft 5 and Appendix.) But the interrogative and negative forms are built up analytically, by means of the auxiliary verb to do in the Past Indefinite and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle to (e.g. *Did you work? Did he work? We did not work. She did not work).* In spoken English the contracted form *didn't* is used in negative sentences.

The Past Indefinite may have a special form which is used for emphasis. This emphatic form is built up analytically, by means of the Past Indefinite of the auxiliary verb to do followed by the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle to. The auxiliary is heavily stressed in this case (e.g. I *'did insist on it. He 'did insist on it).*

§ 23. The Past Indefinite is commonly used to express a past action. It may be found in present-time contexts as well as in past-time contexts.

The Past Indefinite is used in the following cases:
1) To express a single action which took place in the past. The time of the action is often indicated. It is usually an indication of the past time. Yet the Past Indefinite may also be found with such adverbial modifiers of time as *this morning, today, tonight,* etc. (For details see also "Verbs", § 16, *1.)*

e.g. Things came to a crisis *in July.*

My mother first heard of him *when I was a mere child.*

I only met her *six months ago.*

I had a letter from Willy *yesterday.*

Why, I saw the announcement in the paper *this morning.*

The time of the action may be implied in the situation through the mention of the place of the action or other attending circumstances.

e.g. I ate turnips *in Germany.*

Did you belong to any society *at the University?*

"What a lot you know," said Miss Marple, "about the private lives of film stars. Did you learn it all *in California?"*

Croft informed us *at breakfast* that you told him to bring Mrs Warren and Vivie over here today.
He built that place *for Lord Henry.*

But sometimes the mention of the time or the place of the action appears unnecessary because reference is made to a particular action which is definite in the mind of the speaker and the hearer (see also "Verbs", § 16, 1).

e.g. Sorry! I didn't mean to hurt you.
I slept very badly.
You told it beautifully, Grace.
"Did he say anything?" "I didn't quite catch what he said."

The definiteness of the action in the mind of the speaker is to be regarded as the most prominent feature of this use of the Past Indefinite. It becomes particularly obvious when compared with the use of Present Perfect I (see "Verbs", § 16, *1).*

2) To express an action which occupied a whole period of time now over. That means that the action after taking place for some time came to an end in the past. (Compare with the use of Present Perfect II. See "Verbs", § 16, *2.)* The period of time is usually indicated in the sentence by means of adverbial phrases with the prepositions *for* or *during* and synonymous expressions.

e.g. I admit I was wrong. Remember how we quarrelled about it? We quarrelled for three days.
Last May I spent two weeks in London.
We stayed in the garden for a long time.
For twenty years you lived without your child, without a thought of your child.

Note. Questions beginning with *how long* may accordingly contain either the Past Indefinite or Present Perfect II depending on whether the period of time implied is already over or has not yet expired,

e.g. Maurice turned on the light and saw his brother sitting in the armchair. *"How long* have you been here?" he asked in surprise.
"We really had a wonderful time in Brighton." *"How long* did you stay there?"

3) In narration to express a succession of actions.

e.g. So I went up the stairs. I bathed. I changed. I made myself up like the Queen of Sheba. Then I went downstairs and cooked and served dinner for three. Then I entertained Mr Stent. Then I wished him a very good night. Then I wished Jack good-bye. Then I took my suit-case and walked out.
We went to the park and I sat down on a chair and took the baby out of the pram and a big dog came along and put its head on my knee and she clutched its ear, tugged it.
I found some matches, climbed on the table, lit the gas lamp, then settled down to read.

Consecutive actions may be either single accomplished actions (as in the examples above) or actions of some duration occupying a whole period of time. The latter is usually indicated in the sentence by means of prepositional phrases with *for, during, from ... to,* or by means of the words *all day, all night* and the like.

e.g. She looked at him *for a long time* and then shrugged.
We marched *all night and all today.* We arrived only an hour ago.

4) To express recurrent actions. As this meaning is not inherent in the form as such, it is generally supported by the use of adverbial modifiers of frequency such as *often, never, now and again, sometimes, for days,* etc.

e.g. You *often* mentioned her in your letters.
But *sometimes* he found his work difficult.
Martin spent *many of his evenings* reading case histories of radiation illness.

5) To express permanent actions which indicate continuous, uninterrupted processes in the past, giving a general characteristic of the person or thing denoted by the subject.

e.g. She had a large, blunt, knobby nose, and her eyes protruded: they were light blue, staring and slightly puzzled. She wore her hair in a knob above the back of her head.
Dan worked in a factory twelve hours a day for nine shillings a week.
The drive sloped downward to where the house stood.
She lived alone in London, and saw no one except me.
I knew they loved each other, but they always quarrelled.

Note. In English there are special means of expressing a recurrent or permanent action in the past. They are *used to + infinitive* and *would + infinitive. Used* (pronounced [ju:st]) *to + infinitive* has only one form — that of the past tense which occurs in present-time- and past-time contexts. It generally serves to expres, recurrent actions which may be either point actions or actions of some duration.

e.g. "She used to give me chocolate," murmured Imogen.
I used to meet him sometimes when he was working on the *Chronicle* here.
I liked reading in the garden. I used to take out a deck-chair, sit under one of the apple-trees and read.

Sometimes *used to + infinitive* with a durative verb serves to express an ac tion giving a permanent characteristic of the subject of the sentence in the past. In. this case it implies contrast between the past and the present — what was typical of the past is no longer true at present. This meaning is naturally found in, present-time contexts.

e.g. "I used to be as sentimental as anyone a few years ago," said Ann.
You wouldn't have the same comforts in the country, dear, I know. I used to live there as a girl.
I don't exactly hear as I used to.

The negative and interrogative forms of used *to + infinitive* are very seldom found and there is fluctuation in the way they are built up.

e.g. Lena didn't use to like the clock, did she?
"I'm not mean." "You usedn't to be. But you have been lately, haven't you?"
Cedric, what's come over you? You used not to talk like that.
"And what did they use to give you on Sundays?" he was asking as I came in.
"Who do writers write for now?" "Who did they use to write for? People, of course."
Used you to climb the old apple-tree in the garden?

It is necessary to point out that occasionally *used to + infinitive* is found where normally the Past Perfect would be used.

e.g. He ordered dinner, and sat down in the very corner, at the very table perhaps, at which he and young Jolyon used to sit twenty-five years ago.

Would + infinitive is more restricted in its application than *used to + infini tive.* It is found only in past-time contexts and serves to express only recurrent actions. On the whole, *would + infinitive* is typical of literary style.

e.g. She would often wake up screaming in the night.
She seemed able to do nothing for an infinite time without feeling bored. Sometimes I would go out and sit with her for a little on the grass.
He was usually active and interested, but sometimes he would have fits of depression.

6) To express an action going on at a given past moment. Generally this meaning is rendered by the Past Continuous {see "Verbs", § 26). But we resort to the Past Indefinite in the following cases:

a) The use of the Past Indefinite becomes obligatory with stative verbs.

e.g. She sipped her coffee and pulled a face. She thought it tasted horrible.
She was ill at ease, and he felt sorry for her. He wanted all her troubles for himself at that moment.

b) The Past Indefinite may be used instead of the Past Continuous with certain durative verbs. They are to *sit, to stand, to lie, to hang, to shine, to gleam, to talk, to speak, to wear, to carry, to walk* and some others. In such cases the action as such is only named, and it is often the circumstances under which it takes place that are really important.

e.g. Barbara and Basil sat in the garden after lunch. The smoke from Basil's cigar hung on the humid air.
The lights in the house were out, but a rising moon gleamed against one window in the room where little Mary slept.
We went to the bus stop. The full moon shone down on the lightless blind-faced street.
His hair was newly cut, he wore a stiff white collar, a bowler hat, a thin gold watch-chain and other marks of respectability, and he carried a new umbrella.
He talked with acute intensity.
Her face was heavy, she spoke with deep emotion.
He walked between us, listening attentively to our conversation.

Note. Note that when we speak of inanimate things the Past Indefinite is the norm with the verbs mentioned above.

e.g. On the table lay three rows of cards face upwards.
Outside, beyond the colonnade, the ground froze hard and the trees stood out white against the leaden sky.

7) To express a future action viewed from the past. This use is found in reported speech and is structurally dependent. It occurs in clauses of time, condition and concession; the Future-in-the-Past or modal verbs are usually used in the principal clause in this case. (For conjunctions introducing these clauses see "Verbs"[1], § 10, *4.)*

e.g. He knew that she was determined to marry him, and would, if she thought it useful, lie and cheat and steal until she brought it off.

Probably she knew that, whatever **happened,** he would not give her away.

8) To express unreal actions. (For this see "Verbs", §§ **122**-126, 132, 133, 144, 146-149, 153, 162.)

§ 24. For the use of the Past Indefinite in some sentence patterns comprising complex sentences with clauses of time introduced by as and *while* see "Verbs", § 28.

For the use of the Past Indefinite in some sentence patterns comprising complex sentences with clauses of time introduced by *when, after, before, till/until, since,* etc. see "Verbs", § 32.

The Past Continuous

§ **25.** The Past Continuous is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the Past Indefinite and the ing-form of the notional verb (e.g. I *was working. They were working,* etc.). (On the formation of the *ing-form* see "Verbs", § 11.) The same auxiliary is used in the interrogative and negative forms (e.g. *Were you working? Was he working? We were not working. I was not working,* etc.). In spoken English the contracted forms *wasn't* and *weren't* are used in negative sentences.

§ 26. The Past Continuous is used in the following cases:

1) To express an action which was going on at a given moment **in the** past. The most typical feature of this use of the Past Continuous is that the precise time limits of the action are not known, its beginning and its end are not specified.

As a rule, no indication of a given past moment is necessary because the meaning is clearly expressed by the Past Continuous itself. However, sometimes it becomes important to mention the moment and then it is indicated in the sentence by stating the precise time or with the help of another action which is usually a point action expressed in the Past Indefinite.

e.g. Little Mary came in. She was eating an ice-cream cone.
Jolly's face crimsoned, then clouded. Some struggle was evidently taking place in him.
I am afraid I took your wife's fan for my **own,** when **I was leaving** your house tonight.
In a moment I returned to where Martin **was** still reading by the fire.

Note. As has been said, the Past Indefinite is preferred to the Past Continuous with certain durative verbs when attention is focused on the circumstances under which the action is performed (see "Verbs", § 23, *6 b).* However, the Past Continuous is occasionally found, too.

e.g. She was speaking with difficulty, as though she had to think hard about each word.

Yet when it is intended to make the process of the action (indicated by a durative verb) the focus of communication, the use of the Past Continuous becomes necessary. Compare the use of the Past Indefinite and the Past Continuous in the following passage:

On one occasion I sat with them in the studio. Dirk and I were talking. Mrs Stroeve sewed, and I thought I recognized the shirt she was mending as Strickland's. He lay on his back. He did not speak.

2) To express an action going on **at a given period of time in the past.** In this case the precise limits of the action are not known either. The indication of the past period of time is generally understood from the context but it may also be indicated in the sentence in various ways.

e.g. Andrew had no idea whether he was doing well or badly in his exam.
In the slight pause young Nicholas was heard saying gently that Violet was taking lessons in pastel.
He remembered that Helen had met her first husband when she was working in a New York publishing house.
"What **were** you **doing** in Paris?" "I was trying to find a publisher for my new book."
Wake was in New York when the news reached him. He **was** acting in a play that had had a success in London.

Note. The Past Continuous may be used in present-time contexts to refer to a past action whose duration is marked by such time indications as *all day, all that year, yesterday, the whole morning* and the like.

e.g. All through that winter and spring, I was attending committees, preparing notes for the minister, reading memoranda, talking to my scientific friends.
Roy was keeping to his rooms all day.
All that winter they were experimenting with protective clothing.

However, this use of the Past Continuous is greatly restricted because it can be applied only to a single action which is never part of a succession of actions. But even in this case the Past Indefinite is usually found.

e.g. I stayed in all day.

But most commonly such actions are expressed with the help of the sentence pattern *to spend+ time — ing* form.

e.g. I spent all the morning reading.
He spent **the** summer helping his uncle on the farm.

3) To express actions characterizing the person denoted by the subject, i.e. bringing out the person's typical traits. Often such adverbial modifiers as *always* and *constantly* are found in this case in the sentence.

e.g. "This is Dan's breakfast," Adeline said, indicating it with a bandaged thumb. She was always suffering from a cut or a burn.
You remember how he was always writing verses.
He was always experimenting. He wasn't really a doctor, he was a bacteriologist.
She was noisy and brash and constantly trying to attract attention by any means.

The Past Continuous in this case imparts a subjective, emotionally coloured tone. When no emotional colouring is implied, the Past Indefinite is used to give an objective characteristic (see also "Verbs", § 25).

4) To indicate a future action viewed from the past. It is an action which was supposed to take place in the near future due to one's previous decision. The time of the action need not always be mentioned as it is easily understood from the situation.

e.g. Why didn't you tell me you were starting?
He did not know how he could send word that he was not coming.
At the end of the week she wired that she was returning.

§ 27. It should be remembered that there are the same restrictions to the use of the Past Continuous as to the Present Continuous in so far as the lexical character of verbs is concerned (see "Verbs", § 2, *2)*.

Like the Present Continuous, the Past Continuous may sometimes be found with stative verbs. It occurs either because the verb has changed its meaning or because the action is lent great intensity.

e.g. I had a horrid feeling that she was seeing right through me and knowing all about me.
I was seeing George regularly now. He took me as an equal.
The next morning, as I was going out of the college, I met the Master in the court. "I was wanting to catch you, Eliot," he said.
I wasn't well that day, and I wasn't noticing particularly.
He felt he was being the little ray of sunshine about the home and making a good impression.

Some durative verbs, for example, verbs of bodily sensation *(to feel, to hurt, to ache, to itch,* etc.) and such verbs as *to wear, to look* (= to seem), *to shine* and others may be used either in the Past Indefinite or in the Past Continuous with little difference in meaning.

Cf. He was happy now that his wife was feeling better.
I saw that he felt upset.
Ted Newton stopped at my table for a quick drink. He was wearing a fur coat.
A few minutes later Fred came from the direction of the stables. He wore riding breeches.
His wife was looking happy.
She looked like a very wise mermaid rising out of the sea.

§ 28. Note the following sentence patterns in which we find the Past Indefinite and the Past Continuous used in different combinations with each other:

1) A complex sentence with a clause of time introduced by the conjunction *as*. Within that pattern there may be three different kinds of time relations between the action of the subordinate clause and that of the principal clause.

a) The actions of the two clauses are fully simultaneous. In this case the Past Indefinite is commonly found in both clauses.

e.g. I watched him *as* he drank his tea.
Roy talked little as they drove home.

Occasionally the Past Continuous is found in the principal clause whereas the Past Indefinite is still used in the clause of time. It usually happens when the verb in the principal clause is terminative and the Past Indefinite would indicate a completed action.

e.g. As **I poured** her out a glass of sherry, she was saying: "I always imagined you were older."

b) The actions of the principal and the subordinate clauses are partially simultaneous. In this case the action of the subordinate clause serves as a background for the action of the principal clause which is usually a shorter accomplished action. In this case we normally find the Past Continuous in the subordinate clause and the Past Indefinite in the principal clause.

e.g. *As* I was **going** inside, Mrs Drawbell intercepted me.
One evening, just *as* I was leaving the office, Martin rang me **up.**

c) The actions of the two clauses form a succession. In this case, naturally, only the Past Indefinite is found.

e.g. As the sun **disappeared,** a fresh breeze **stirred** the new curtains at the window.
As **I turned** back into the room a gust of wind crashed the door shut behind me.

2) A **complex** sentence **with a clause of time introduced** by **the conjunction** *while.* Here we find two different kinds of time relations between the actions of the two clauses.

a) The actions are fully simultaneous. In this case either the Past Continuous or the Past Indefinite is used in the subordinate clause and the Past Indefinite is normally found in the principal clause:

e.g. Martha said nothing but **looked** from one face to the other *while* they discussed plans.
She sat still as a statue *while* he was **playing** the sonata.

b) The actions are partially simultaneous. In this case the action of the subordinate clause serves as a background for the action of the principal clause which is a shorter accomplished action. So the Past Indefinite is used in the principal clause while in the subordinate clause either the Past Indefinite or the Past Continuous is found.

e.g. *While* I was reading, I **heard** a splash from the bath, and I realized that Martin must be there.
While he **stood** there wondering what sort of pictures to hang on the walls he **heard** the telephone ring.

The Past Perfect

§ **29.** The Past Perfect is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to have in the Past Indefinite and the participle of the notional verb (e.g. I *had worked. He had worked,* etc.). (On the formation of the participle see "Verbs", § 5 and Appendix.) The same auxiliary is used to form the interrogative and the negative forms (e.g. *Had you worked? Had he worked? It had not worked. They had not worked).* In spoken English the contracted forms *I'd, he'd, she'd, we'd, you'd, they'd* are used in affirmative sentences and *hadn't* in negative sentences.

§ 30. The Past Perfect falls within the time sphere of the past and is mainly found in narration. However, as will be seen, it may be used in some of its meanings in present-time contexts as well. The Past Perfect has three distinct uses which will be further referred to as Past Perfect I, Past Perfect II and Past Perfect **III.**

1) Past Perfect I serves to express an action accomplished before a given past moment and viewed back from that past moment. It may be a single point action, an action of some duration or a recurrent action.

We often find this use of the Past Perfect in narration when a string of consecutive actions is broken up because it becomes necessary to refer back to a previously accomplished action. It is the function of the Past Perfect to mark this step back in narration.

e.g. She was no fool. She **had** read much, in several languages, and she could talk of the books she **had** read with good sense.
It was long afterwards that I found out what **had happened.**
He knew where Haviland lived, but he **had** never been there.

She mentioned not infrequently the fact that her grandfather **had been** an ambassador, but never that he **had been** a stable-boy.

She was in a dressing-gown and her hair was dishevelled. She **had** evidently just got out of bed.

As is seen from the above example, Past Perfect I is structurally independent and may be used in simple sentences as well as in various kinds of clauses.

Note. The time of the action expressed by the Past Perfect need not be indicated as the form itself shows that the action is accomplished before a given past moment. Yet there may be indications of time if necessary.

e.g. Jolyon remembered that he also **had talked** a good deal about it in his first year at Cambridge, and **given** it up in his second.

They were concerned with why the machine **had** not **run** the day before.

Sometimes the step back which is made in narration refers to one single action which is then expressed by the Past Perfect (see the examples above). Often, however, the step back in narration involves a whole situation comprising a number of actions. These actions may form a new succession of actions. In this case the Past Perfect may be used for all the actions (a) or for the first action alone. The other actions are then expressed by the Past Indefinite (b). There seem to be no hard and fast rules here.

e.g. a) Adeline was selecting a book from the shelves. When she **had** first **come** to the place there **had been** few books there. To these she **had added** many volumes of poetry, old and new, novels, works of philosophy, history, essays. It **had been** necessary to build new shelves to accommodate the books she **had collected.** He told her that he **had** recently recovered from an attack of typhoid and **had** come to Switzerland to get back his strength.

b) It was at Blackstable that I first met Edward. I was fifteen and **had** just **come** back from school for the summer holidays. The morning after I got home **I took** a towel and bathing drawers and **went** down to the beach. Passing the bank, I **called** in to say how-do-you-do to the manager, and when I came out I **met** my uncle. He **stopped** and **shook** hands with me. He was walking with a stranger. He **introduced** me to him.

2) Past Perfect II serves to express an action which began before a given past moment and continues into it or up to it. This grammatical meaning is mainly expressed by the Past Perfect Continuous (see "Verbs", § 34). However, the Past Perfect Non-Continuous is found in the following cases:

a) With stative verbs where its use is compulsory.

e.g. She began to do all the things that she **had wanted** to do *for years.*

He suddenly understood that she **had loved** him *all her life.*

b) With some dynamic verbs of durative meaning where the Past Perfect (Non-Continuous) may be used instead of the Past Perfect Continuous with little difference in meaning.

e.g. Roy mentioned that he **had dined** at home since his return.

June had never before been in the upper boxes. From the age of fifteen she **had** habitually **accompanied** her grandfather to the stalls.

As to terminative verbs, they normally have the meaning of Past Perfect I and never of Past Perfect II.

Since it is often difficult to draw the line between durative and terminative verbs, it is recommended that students of English should use the Past Perfect Continuous with all dynamic verbs to express an action begun before a given past moment and continued up to it or into it.

c) In negative sentences, when the action itself is completely negated, Past Perfect II is preferred to the Past Perfect Continuous.

e.g. Young Jolyon and Soames **had not met** *since the day of Bosinney's death.*

He mentioned that he **had not played** cards *for three years.*

Past Perfect II is associated with certain time indications: either a whole period of the duration of the action is indicated or its starting point (for details see "Verbs", § 16, *2).*

e.g. I suppose every family has a black sheep. Tom had been a sore trial to his *for twenty years.*

He was not aware *how long* he had sat there.

At ten o'clock he awoke and remembered that he hadn't seen Lily *since Saturday.*

He told me he had been badly ill since *he returned from abroad.*

Note. Note **that** in clauses of time introduced by ***Since*** the Past Indefinite is commonly used (see the example above).

3) In adverbial clauses of time introduced by the conjunctions *when, before, after, as soon as* and *till/until* to express a future action viewed from the past. It shows that the action of the subordinate clause will be completed before the action of the principal clause which is usually expressed by the Future-in-the-Past.

This use of the Past Perfect is structurally dependent as it is restricted only to the above-mentioned type of clauses. Besides, it is found only in reported speech.

e.g. It was desperately early; he took up his book again, making up his mind that he would not look at his watch *till* he had read thirty pages.

You would have to talk to him *before* he had made up his mind.

4) To express unreal actions. (For this see "Verbs", §§ 122-126, 132-133, 144, 146-149, 153, 162.)

§ 31. As has been said above, the Past Perfect is usually found in past-time contexts (see the examples above). However, it may also be used in present-time contexts in its various meanings. Yet even in this case its use is related not to the moment of speaking but to a definite past moment expressed or understood from the context or situation.

e.g. "We only learned about it before dinner," said Muriel. "We had not expected anything so fantastic."

Roy hesitated. "I don't know whether Mother has told you. Grace," he said, "but a friend of mine is arriving today."

"Yes, I had heard," said Grace.

"Did you know the average housewife walks ten miles a day about the house? I heard so on the radio today." "I hadn't thought about it," he said.

§ 32. Note the following sentence patterns in which the Past Perfect is or may be used:

1) In a simple sentence or in two co-ordinate sentences the Past Perfect is often used in combination with the Past Continuous when both actions are viewed from the same past moment. The definite moment need not be indicated in this case as the pattern itself shows that the actions are related to the same past moment. One action is accomplished before that implied moment while the other one is still in progress. This pattern is very widely used.

e.g. Ann had risen and was peering over his shoulder.

She had got up, and was breathing deeply, with her lips parted and her cheeks very flushed.

All along the walls people were standing and at the far end of the square boys had climbed into the trees.

As he went down the stairs I walked across to my window and pulled the curtains. The sky had cleared and the moon was shining on the snow.

With stative verbs and with some dynamic verbs of durative meaning the Past Indefinite is used instead of the Past Continuous in this pattern.

e.g. The rain had passed and the air was fresh and sweet. She had changed her wet clothes and wore a light cotton dress.

2) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction *when.* The time relations between the action of the when-clause and that of the principal clause may be of various kinds: the action of the principal clause may follow the action of the *when* -clause, be fully or partially simultaneous with it and even occasionally precede it. Accordingly, different finite forms are used in the principal and the subordinate clauses:

a) The most commonly occurring kind of time relation is when the action of the principal clause closely follows that of the *when*-clause — the two actions form a succession of actions. The Past Indefinite is usually used in both clauses in this case.

e.g. *When* they **reached** Grosvenor Square, Angela got **out** of the taxi and **looked** about her, puzzled.
When she **returned** with the grammar, she **drew** a chair near his and sat **down** beside him.

Yet sometimes, with the same time relation between the two actions, we find the Past Perfect in the when-clause. It is used in this case to emphasize the completion of the action in the subordinate clause and the *when-clause* then is close in meaning to that of the clause of time introduced by the conjunction *after* (see further below, p. 55).

e.g. *When* they **had shown** him round, **fed** him on their best, and **thrust** him into their softest chair, they eagerly **demanded** news.
In a moment the butler came in, to clear up. *When* he **had left** again, she said: "Your servant is an honest man, isn't he?"

b) When the two actions are partially simultaneous, the Past Continuous is usually found in the principal clause and the Past Indefinite in the *when-clause.* The former represents the action in its duration. The latter indicates a shorter action which occurs at a certain moment of the development of the action in the principal clause.

e.g. Later that night, **I was reading** in my sitting-room *when* the bell **rang.**
When he **returned** to the room she **was sitting** by the fire.

With stative verbs and some dynamic verbs of durative meaning, the same time relation is expressed by the Past Indefinite in the principal clause.

e.g. He was still in a state of uncertainty *when* his brother **returned** with a letter in his hand.
When the car **stopped** in front of the door he **looked** dazed.

c) When the two actions are fully simultaneous, the Past Indefinite is generally used in both clauses.

e.g. Ann Chester **looked her** best *when* she **smiled.**
I often felt sincere admiration *when* **I talked** to him.

Note. The same time relations as described under (a), (b) and (c) may be found in this sentence pattern when the Past Perfect has to be used in the principal clause to mark a step back in narration whereas the Past Indefinite remains unchanged in the *when-clause.*

e.g. My friendship with Roy became the deepest of my life. I **had** met him first *when* he was a boy of fifteen.
Ashenden remembered the iron grip he **had** given him *when* they **shook** hands and slightly shuddered.

d) Occasionally the action of the principal clause may precede that of the subordinate clause. In this case the Past Perfect is used in the principal clause and the Past Indefinite in the *when-clause.*

e.g. He walked at my side under the trees by the edge of **the** park. *When* **he next spoke** his tone **had changed.**
When he **returned** to the living-room, his wife **hadn't moved,** and the radio continued to play into the silence.

3) In a complex sentence with a *when-clause* containing the Past Indefinite in the subordinate clause and the negative form of the Past Perfect in the principal clause.

e.***g.*** **I hadn't been** in the pub two minutes *when* somebody **brought Tom in for** a **drink.**
I hadn't gone a hundred yards from the corner *when* **I noticed** there was a car behind me.

Note that there is always some indication of measure mentioned in the principal clause. Sentences of this kind are generally rendered in Russian as *не прошло и двух минут, как я пришел в бар, как..., не прошел я и ста ярдов, как...* .

4) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction *as soon as* when the action of **the** principal clause closely follows that of the subordinate clause. The two actions form a kind of a succession of actions. Hence, the Past Indefinite is normally used in both parts of the sentence.

e.g. As *soon as* I **had** the chance **I asked** Mary-Ann what she knew of the incident.
As soon as she arrived in my flat, she **busied** herself tidying it up.

Occasionally the Past Perfect may be found in the subordinate clause where it is used to emphasize the completion of the action

and then the meaning of the subordinate clause is close to that of the subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction *after* (see below).

e.g. *As soon as* he had gone, I spoke to Hanna.

5) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time intro duced" by the conjunction *after* (the action of the principal clause follows that of the after-clause). Generally, the Past Perfect is found in the after-clause and the Past Indefinite in the principal clause.

e.g. *After* I had dressed, I went up to Roy's room, and found him in shirt-sleeves and black waistcoat studying his image in the mirror.
After he had been through the grammar repeatedly, he took up the dictionary and added twenty words a day to his vocabulary.

The Past Perfect is used in the *after-clause* with terminative as well as durative verbs. With terminative verbs, however, the Past Perfect may be replaced by the Past Indefinite.

e.g. Shortly *after* we returned from Basel, Roy moved to London
After we rose from the table, James immediately went to make a telephone call.

6) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunctions *till* or *until* when the action of the principal clause is an action of some duration and precedes that of the subordinate clause. Usually the Past Indefinite is found in both the principal and the subordinate clause.

e.g. He read the manuscripts *until* he was dead tired.
I did not see him again *till* he returned to England for the summer.

Sometimes, however, the Past Perfect is used in the *till/until* clause to show that the action of the principal clause stopped only after the action of the subordinate clause was accomplished.

e.g. That evening I took out a deck-chair, sat under one of the apple-trees, and read *until* the summer sky had darkened and I could not make out the print.
He waited *till* she had regained a certain calm.

7) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction *before*, in which there may be two kinds of time relations between the two actions:

a) The action of the principal clause precedes that of the *before-clause*. Hence, the Past Perfect is found in the principal clause and the Past Indefinite in the subordinate clause.

e.g. Madge had given Dace a set of keys *before* they left the farm on Wednesday morning.
He had heard the news *before* he ran up my stairs.
Sentences of this kind are rendered in Russian by means of до *Того как..., прежде чем..,, перед тем как...* .
Actually, however, the Past Indefinite is by far more common in the principal clause, especially with terminative verbs.

e.g. He knocked at the door twice *before* a muffled voice asked: "Who's there?"
It happened *before* you came.

b) The action of one of the clauses is not fully accomplished before the action of the other clause occurs. The unaccomplished action is expressed by the Past Perfect. Sometimes there are indications of measure in such sentences.

If the unaccomplished action is expressed in the principal clause, its predicate verb is always negative in form.

e.g. They had not gone four miles *before* he understood that it was going to rain.
He had not been there for two days *before* he admitted that he should not have accepted the invitation.
Sentences of this kind are best rendered in Russian as *не успели они... как, не успев проехать и...* , etc.

If the unaccomplished action is expressed in the subordinate clause, its predicate verb is affirmative in form but negative in meaning.

e.g. I realized *before* you had been here a fortnight that you never were cut for this life.
I discovered the news *before* I had been in the house for an hour.

Sentences of this kind are generally rendered in Russian as *не прошло и двух недель... как, не пробыл я в доме и часа... как,* etc.

8) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the correlatives *scarcely... when, hardly... when, near ly… when,* and *no sooner... than,* the time relation between the two actions is of a specific character — the action of the subordinate clause takes place when the action of the principal clause is hardly accomplished yet. Hence, the Past Perfect is found in the principal clause and the Past Indefinite in the subordinate clause. Such sentences are emphatic in meaning and *scarcely, hardly* and *no sooner* may be placed at the head of the sentence with an inverted word order following.

e.g. He had *scarcely* entered the room *when* in a chair by the door he perceived Ann Chester.
She had *hardly* sat down *when* a very stout gentleman wearing a very small hat flopped into the chair opposite hers.
No sooner, however, had they established themselves in the house *than* he perceived to his dismay a return of her gloomy mood.

Note. When *scarcely, hardly* and *nearly* are used as adverbs and not as correla tives, they may be associated with different finite forms whose choice is determined by the situation.

e.g. He did not hate her, he scarcely **seemed** aware of her presence.
I hardly **know what to** say.

The Past Perfect Continuous

§ 33. The Past Perfect Continuous is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the Past Perfect and the *ing-form* of the notional verb (e.g. / *had been working. He had been working,* etc.). (On the formation of the ing-form see "Verbs", §11.)

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed be fore the subject (e.g. *Had you been working? Had she been work ing?,* etc.). In the negative form the negative particle not is placed after the first auxiliary (e.g. *We had not been working. They had not been working,* etc.). In spoken English the contracted forms *I'd, he'd, she'd, we'd, you'd, they'd* are used in affirmative and *hadn't* in negative sentences.

§ 34. The Past Perfect Continuous has two different uses which will be further referred to as Past Perfect Continuous I and Past Perfect Continuous II.

1) Past Perfect Continuous I serves to express an action which began before a given past moment and continued into it or up to it. In this meaning it is parallel to Past Perfect II (see "Verbs", § 30, *2).* Past Perfect Continuous I may be used with the same indications of time as are already described in "Verbs", § 16, *2.*

e.g. She suddenly realized that it was now completely dark and that she had been walking for a long while.
He knew what she had been thinking about since she received the telegram.
Grant Melville was charming, and quite a famous painter. He had been coming to North Cornwall for years, he had a shack up in the hills.
Ashenden assembled the observations that he had been making for the past few days.

The Past Perfect Continuous can be used with dynamic verbs of both durative and terminative meaning (see the examples above). Stative verbs express this meaning with the help of Past Perfect II (see "Verbs", § 30, *2).* Past Perfect II is possible with dynamic verbs of durative meaning but it is not found at all with terminative verbs.

2) Past Perfect Continuous II serves to express an action which was in progress just before a given past moment and it affects the past situation in some way. The precise time limits of
he action are not specified. In this meaning the Past Perfect Continuous is not parallel to Past Perfect II.

Past Perfect Continuous II is, as a rule, not associated with any indications of time.

e.g. Winifred rose from the chair in which she had been sitting.
Adeline, who had been helping her mother, now joined them.
She and Sylvia talked in high excited tones about an anthology of poetry they had been reading.
Half-heartedly I asked what she had been thinking about.
Adeline came across the lawn to meet him, carrying roses she had been cutting.

§ 35. In negative sentences the Past Perfect Continuous is not common; the Past Perfect (Non-Continuous) is preferred in them when the negation refers to the action itself but not to its circum stances (see also "Verbs", § 19).

e.g. I knew they had not corresponded for years.

§ 36. It is noteworthy that Past Perfect Continuous I and particularly Past Perfect Continuous II may sometimes be found with stative verbs.

e.g. Beside the porch he stopped to examine the web of a spider which he had been noticing for a week or more.
Certainly the medicine had steadied her; the sinking feeling she had been having was all gone.
Over tea she tried to find out whether I had been seeing Sheila.

§ 37. Note some sentence patterns in which the Present Perfect Continuous or the Past Perfect Continuous is found:

1) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by *since,* whose action indicates the starting point of the action in the principal clause. Hence, the Past Indefinite is used in the since-clause. As to the principal clause, the Present Perfect Continuous (or Present Perfect II) is used in it in present-time contexts (a) and the Past Perfect Continuous (or Past Perfect II) in past-time contexts (b).

e.g. a) "They are bombs. You could blow the roof of the whole of this building with what I've got here," said the lunatic "I've been carting them from room to room *since* the war began."
I've known him *since* we were kids.

b) Michael rose and clutched his hat. Wilfred had said exact ly what he himself had really been thinking ever *since* he came.
Mr Bentley was a publisher because ever *since* he was a boy he had had a liking for books.

2) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time in troduced by the conjunctions *while* and *since* or by some connective words and expressions such as *as long as, during the week, in the short time (that), all the time (that),* etc. The actions in both clauses may be parallel, starting at the same time in the past and continuing either into or up to the moment of speaking in present-time contexts (a) or into or up to a given past moment in past-time contexts (b). Accordingly, the Present Perfect Continuous (or Present Perfect II) is used in both clauses in the former case and the Past Perfect Continuous (or Past Perfect II) in the latter case.

e.g. a) Our friendship has been growing *all the time* we've been working on the project.
I've been rather shut in *since* we've been here, with all this bad weather.

b) We had been sitting on our beds *while* George had been telling me this true story.
The suit had been neither pressed nor brushed *since* he had had it.

3) In a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction *when.* The action of the subordinate clause may serve to indicate a given past moment into or up to which the action of the principal clause, that had begun before that moment, continued. The duration of the action is indicated by some adverbial modifier of time. Accordingly, the Past Indefinite is found in the *when-clanse* and the Past Perfect Continuous (or Past Perfect II) in the principal clause. It should be noted that this is a very commonly occurring pattern.

e.g. He had been sitting by the fire for nearly an hour *when* his mother came into the room with a letter in her hands.

They had been walking for less than an hour *when* the moon

suddenly appeared between the heavy clouds.

The Future Indefinite

§ 38. The Future Indefinite is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verbs shall (for the first person, singular and plural) and will (for the second and third persons, singular and plural) and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle to (e.g. / *shall see him tomorrow. He will see 'them tomorrow. You will see them tomorrow,* etc.).

It should be mentioned that in present-day English there is a tendency to use *will* for all the persons. Besides, the difference in the use of *shall* and *will* disappears altogether in spoken English where the contracted form *'ll* is used with all the persons (e.g. *I'll see him tomorrow. She'll see him tomorrow. They'll see him tomorrow,* etc.).

The auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* are used to build up the interrogative and the negative forms, too (e.g. *Shall we see you tomorrow? Will they see him tomorrow? I shall not see you tomor row. You will not see me tomorrow,* etc.).

In spoken English the contracted forms shan't and won't are commonly used in negative sentences.

§ 39. The Future Indefinite is found only in present-time contexts. It is by far the most common of all the finite forms referring an action to the future. Although it is widely used in English, it is somewhat restricted in its application owing to a number of reasons which will be dealt with below.

The Future Indefinite may be used to express:

1) a single point action that will be completed in the future,

e.g. It will ruin her.
I know I'm right, and one of these days you'll realize it.

2) an action occupying a whole period of time in the future,

e.g. I think I shall remain in love with you all my life.
I hope you'll live for many years.

3) a succession of actions in the future,

e.g. I shall wait in the next room and come back when she's gone.
We'll just talk about the weather and the crops for a few minutes and then we'll have dinner.

4) some recurrent actions in the future,

e.g. I shall come along as often as possible.
I hope we shall see something of you while you are in London.

5) some permanent future actions generally characterizing the person denoted by the subject of the sentence,

e.g. I'm afraid he'll be a bit lonely, poor darling.
The old age pension will keep me in bread, tea and onions, and what more does an old man want?

The Future Continuous

§ 40. The Future Continuous is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the Future Indefinite and the ing-form of the notional verb (e.g. / *shall be seeing him often now. He will be seeing them often now,* etc.). (On the formation of the Future Indefinite see "Verbs", § 38; on the formation of the *ing-form* see "Verbs", §11.)

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject (e.g. *Shall I be seeing him often now? Will he be seeing them often now?,* etc.). In the negative form the negative particle not is placed after the first auxiliary (e.g. / *shall not be seeing him often now. He will not be seeing them often now,* etc.).

In spoken English the contracted form '11 is used with all the persons in affirmative sentences and shan't and won't in negative sentences.

§ 41. The Future Continuous is used in the following cases:

1) To express an action in progress at a definite future moment. The precise time limits of the action are not specified and the future moment at which the action takes place is usually indicated by an adverbial modifier or is clear from the context or situation.

e.g. We'll just be beginning the experiments then, and my contract here ends this summer.
Now I feel absolutely dopy. God knows what I shall be saying in a minute.

However, in present-day English this original meaning of the Future Continuous is not so common since it is seldom required by the situation.

2) To express an action which the speaker expects to take place in the future in the natural course of events. It may be used with or without time indications and generally refers to the near future though it is also possible to use it for a more distant future.

e.g. I feel I shall be asking you the same question tomorrow.
Maurice is tired. He will be coming to bed directly.
"You haven't been out for a week," his mother said. "Five days," Vincent put down his paper. "You'll be taking root in that armchair. Your face is growing paler every day."

He yawned. "Another five minutes and I'll be explaining the law of gravity to another set of my pupils. I'll be making the same old jokes and they'll be laughing at them in the same old way."

Bob will not be coming. He's been taken ill.

This use should be regarded as the main application of the Future Continuous in modern English.

§ 42. Note the following examples in which the Future Continuous is used with stative verbs.

e.g. "What's your brother like? I shall be knowing him at Oxford," said Val.

Harris said, "We shall be wanting to start in less than twelve hours' time."

"What sort of house has Laura?" "I didn't notice. I shan't be seeing her again in any case."

The Future Perfect

§ 43. The Future Perfect is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to have in the Future Indefinite and the participle of the notional verb (e.g. *I shall have read the book by that time, He will have read the book by that time,* etc.). (On the formation of the Future Indefinite see "Verbs", § 38; on the formation of the participle see "Verbs", § 5.)

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject (e.g. *Will she have read the book by that time? Will you have read the book by that time?,* etc.). In the negative form the negative particle not is placed after the first auxiliary (e.g. *We shall not have read the book by that time. They will not have read the book by that time,* etc.).

In spoken English the contracted form '11 is used with all the persons in affirmative sentences and shan't and won't in negative sentences.

§ 44. The Future Perfect is used to express an action accomplished before a given future moment which is usually indicated by an adverbial modifier.

e.g. I daresay you'll have gone to bed by the time I've finished.

I suppose we shall have **made** up our minds whom we are going to elect before the meeting.

The Future Perfect is not used very often owing to the fact that it is seldom required by the situation.

Different Means of Expressing Future Actions Compared

§ **45.** All future actions are by nature hypothetical. Owing to that, ways of expressing future actions — in addition to the meaning of futurity — are often associated with various other modal meanings, such as intention, willingness, readiness, obligation, assurance, expectation and the like. That explains why English is rich in means of referring an action to the future.

§ 46. The following is a description of different means of expressing future actions in present-day English:[1]

1) The Present Continuous is used to express a future action as definitely settled due to one's previous decision. The action is going to take place in the near future and the time is, as a rule, indicated in the sentence by means of such adverbial modifiers as *tonight, next week, in a few days,* etc.

e.g. She is coming to lunch on Thursday.

You know, I'm going away tonight.

Are you staying long?

Teddie is leaving here by the first train tomorrow.

Patrick, are we doing anything at the weekend?

This use of the Present Continuous is also possible without any time indications and then the action refers to the immediate future.

e.g. It's Fred. He's going to Italy and wants to say good-bye.

I'm just going upstairs to change and pack.

I'm sorry you are leaving England.

And now I must go as we are dining out.

[1] Some of these forms can be regarded as purely grammatical ways of expressing future actions; others are on the border-line between lexical and grammatical means.

Note. Note that in questions beginning with *when* the Present Continuous a ways refers the action to the future.

e.g. When is he coming?
When **are** you going back?

When the Present Continuous is used to refer an action to the future, the action is regarded as fixed and the speaker is certain that it will take place.

With stative verbs the Future Indefinite should be applied to refer an action to the future.

2) The Future Continuous is also one of the means of express ing future actions. It is described in detail in "Verbs", § 41.

The difference between the Present Continuous used to denote a future action and the Future Continuous becomes quite evident if we compare the following sentences:

e.g. We are meeting tomorrow (= *we have arranged to meet tomor row, we have fixed the date of our meeting).*
We shall be meeting tomorrow (= *not because of some ar rangement but in the normal course of events; either be cause we work together, or because we attend classes togeth er, or regularly play some game at the same place and at the same time, etc.).*

3) *To be* + infinitive (with *to),* like the Present Continuous, serves to indicate a previous arrangement, but in addition to that meaning it generally implies obligation resulting from that arrangement. Besides, it differs from the Present Continuous in that it does not necessarily refer the action to the near future. The verb *to be* in this combination is regarded as a modal verb.

Since a previous arrangement is the basic meaning of this combination and the action always refers to the future, no special indi cation of time is needed in the sentence, though the time may be mentioned if necessary.

e.g. I've had a letter from home. I'm to go back at once.
This autumn he is entering the Military College. He is to make the Army his career.

The meaning of obligation may become so strong that *"to be* + infinitive" sometimes expresses orders or instructions which are to be carried out in the future.

e.g. Milly, you are not to talk like that in front of the child.

4) *To be going to* + infinitive is an important means of referring an action to the future which is frequently used in modern English. It is convenient to refer to it as the *"going-to* form".
The *"going-to* form" may have the following meanings:
a) It serves to express premeditated intention which means that the person denoted by the subject has been planning for some time to perform the action, has been thinking of it, that some preparation for the action has been in progress. Indications of time are optional in this case.

e.g. I'm not going to live at home.
I'm going to say something dreadful to you, Dorothy.
I'm going to tell him what I think of him.
He's not going to make any concessions.
Are you going to play tennis?
What are you going to do about it?
She's going to explain that tomorrow.
Oh, I'm not going to marry for years yet.

Note. The verb *to go* is actually not the Present Continuous here. It is the Present Continuous only in form; its use has become **idiomatic** in this combination.

Although this means of referring an action to the future is frequently found in English, its application is somewhat restricted — it is mainly found with dynamic verbs. An important exception to the rule, however, is the verb *to be* which often occurs in this construction.

e.g. He's going to be a solicitor.
Of course, the trip's going- to be wonderful.

The verbs *to go* and *to come* are rarely found with the *"going-to* form". Thus, *He is going to go* or *He is going to come* are uncommon in English. These verbs are generally used in the Present Continuous instead.

e.g. Oh, are you going to Italy?
Are you coming, Mother?

b) It may also be used to show the speaker's feeling that the action is imminent, that it is unavoidable in the near future. No indication of time is generally needed in this case.

e.g. I don't know what is going to happen.
"The next few years," said George, "are going to be a wonderful time to be alive."
Oh, what is going to become of us?
I'm afraid I'm going to cry.

5) The Present Indefinite is also an important means of expressing future actions. It is used in four different cases which have been described in "Verbs", § 10, *4*.

6) The Future Indefinite. After all the other means of expressing future actions have been described, it is now necessary to see what remains for the Future Indefinite proper to express.

In the first place it should be pointed out that the Future Indefinite is used differently with dynamic and stative verbs.

With stative verbs the Future Indefinite is used to express any action referring to the future, without any restrictions.

e.g. His suggestion will interest you enormously.
You'll think his ideas absurd.
She'll know the truth soon.
Don't bother, I shall manage all right by myself.
Dad will never consent to our marriage.
It'll be rather fun coming up to town to eat my dinners.
I'll be back presently.
We shall have some news for you to take to your people.
It will not make much difference to me.

The other means of expressing future actions are not common with stative verbs — some of them seem to be impossible with these verbs (e.g. the Present Continuous, the Future Continuous, partly the Present Indefinite) while others are uncommon (e.g. the *"going-to* form").

Although the number of stative verbs is limited, they are in frequent use, which makes the role of the Future Indefinite very important in English.

With dynamic verbs the Future Indefinite is used freely only under certain conditions:

a) In the principal clause of a complex sentence with a clause of time, condition and concession. [1]

[1] In the subordinate clauses we find the Present Indefinite or the Present Perfect (see "Verbs", § 10, *4* and § 16, 3).

e.,g. "We shall catch the train *if* we start now," she insisted.
You're the prettiest woman I've ever known and I shall say the same *when* you're a hundred.
As *soon as* we have had tea, Fred, we shall go to inspect your house.
We'll talk about it *whenever* he comes.

Other means of expressing future actions are uncommon in this case.

b) In passive constructions.

e.g. He'll be voted down.
My chief will be informed of your request.
She will be paid in cash.

c) To express a succession of actions in the future. No other means seems to be suitable here.

e.g. I shall prepare you a nice little dinner and then we'll leave you.
I'll take a walk to the sea and on my way back I'll buy you a newspaper.

d) When the time of the realization of the action is indefinite or when its realization is remote.

e.g. We shall meet again one day.
Life will teach her a lesson.
He'll never sell his little cottage.

Such sentences often contain adverbial modifiers of indefinite time, e.g. *always, forever, in future, never, some day* and the like.

e) To denote actions whose realization is uncertain, doubtful or merely supposed, as their fulfilment depends on some implied condition.

e.g. You mustn't cry. Please, don't, or I shall go to pieces.
Protest as you like, Mr Pyke, it won't alter my decision.

In this case we sometimes find such attitudinal adverbs in the Sentence as *perhaps, probably, of course* and the like.

e..g. They'll *probably* get a lot of satisfaction out of our quarrel.
Of course he will send you a letter in a few days.

f) In object clauses after verbs (and their equivalents) expressing personal views or opinions, such as to *be afraid, to believe, to be sure, to doubt, to expect, to have no doubt, to hope, to imagine, to know, to suppose, to suspect, to think, to wonder* and the like. Sometimes these verbs are used in parenthesis.

e.g. He *thinks* a scandal will ruin his reputation.
I *don't know* what I shall do without you.
I'm afraid he won't talk to you.
I've no doubt you'll explain it perfectly.
His new novel is (I'm quite sure of it) another masterpiece.

On the whole it should be noted that although other means of expressing futurity can also be used under the conditions described above (a, b, c, d, e, f), they are applied when their meaning is specially required.

§ 47. If dynamic verbs are used in the Future Indefinite under conditions other than those described above, the sentences become modally coloured. This occurs owing to the fact that the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* preserve their modal meanings.

Thus *shall* preserves its original meaning of obligation, if somewhat modified, with the 2nd and 3rd persons in sentences expressing promise, threat or warning.

e.g. I promise you, Arthur, that Harold shan't do anything about it.
He shall have a scandal. He shall have the worst scandal there has been in London for years.

Shall also preserves its modal meaning when it is used in asking after the will of the person addressed.

e.g. Shall I bring you some coffee?
Oh, Alfred, what shall we do?

Will (in print *will* or *'ll* is often used in affirmative sentences with the first person, singular and plural, to express such meanings as wish, willingness, readiness, intention, determination to perform an action.

e.g. Γ11 do what I can.
I'll go wherever you take me.

Will in sentences of this kind also shows that the speaker offers to perform an action.

e.g. I'll go and get a drink for you.
I'll wire to have the room ready for them.
I'll come with you, Barbara.

In affirmative sentences *will* with the 2nd and 3rd persons may occasionally express a command.

e.g. You will come here tomorrow not later than ten, Mr Lickcheese.
Bernard will pay the taxi.

In negative sentences *will* expresses refusal to perform an action.

e.g. I won't argue with you.
He won't be ordered about.

In general questions, direct and indirect, as well as in disjunctive questions, *will* also preserves its modal meaning and the interrogative sentence is actually to be understood as a request or an invitation.

e.g. Will you ask him to ring me back?
You'll wait for us, won't you?
Oh, ask him if he won't come in.

The same is true of complex sentences with an if-clause in which *will* is used to express willingness or consent.

e.g. Oh, but we shall be delighted if you'll lunch with us.
Will may express supposition.

e.g. As she entered the room, the telephone rang. "That'll be your mother," Jenny said to her husband.

For a detailed treatment of the modal verbs *shall* and *will* see "Verbs", §§105, 113-116.

§ 48. By way of exception to the above rules, dynamic verbs may occasionally be found in the Future Indefinite to express mere futurity without any additional modal meanings. This use of

the Future Indefinite may be understood as an expression of neutrality or impartiality on the part of the speaker. {Usually one of the other means of expressing futurity is used in such cases.)

e.g. I **shall dine** in my own room.
I shall leave you with your father for half an hour.
In this chapter we **shall present** a brief account of new methods that we have used.
Be quiet. Somebody **will** answer the bell.

This use of the Future Indefinite is found in formal announcements of future plans in newspapers and news broadcasts.

e.g. This is the weather forecast for the afternoon. A belt of depression **will spread** further north, showers **will fall** in southern districts.

§49. It stands to reason that sometimes the difference between the various means of referring an action to the future may become unimportant, as the distinction is often very subtle. Thus, **there** are cases when two different forms may be used interchangeably without any noticeable difference in meaning.

Cf. We **are going** to the pictures tonight.
We are to **go** to the pictures tonight.
He **is taking** his exam next week.
He **will be taking** his exam next week.
I'm meeting Tom at the station.
I'm going **to meet** Tom at the station.

§ 50. Note the use of the Future Indefinite in the following stereotyped sentences:

e.g. **I'll** ask you to excuse me.
You'll excuse me, Gardner.
Well, **we'll see.**
It'll do you good.
It won't do them harm to cool their heads a bit.
You've got a mind like a steel trap. You'll go far.
No good **will come** of it.

Means of Expressing Future Actions Viewed from the Past

§ **51.** English has some special forms to express future actions if they are viewed from some moment in the past. The most common of these means is **the Future-in-the-Past,** which, like the Future, has the following forms: **the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past, the Future Continuous-in-the-Past,** and **the Future Perfect-in-the-Past.**

1) The Future Indefinite-in-the-Past is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verbs **should** (for the first person, singular and **plural)** and **would** (for the second and third persons, singular and plural) and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle to (e.g. / *said I should do it. I said he would do it,* etc.). In present-day English there is a tendency to use *would* for all the persons. Besides, the difference in the use of *should* and *would* disappears altogether in spoken English where the contracted form 'd is used with all the persons (e.g. / *said I'd to it. I said he'd do it,* etc.). In negative sentences the particle **not** в placed after the auxiliaries *should* and *would* with which it often forms the contractions **shouldn't** and **wouldn't** (e.g. ***I*** *said I should not (shouldn't) do it. I said he would not (wouldn't) do it,* etc.).

The use of the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past is structurally dependent: mainly found in object clauses after one of the past fi**mite** forms in the principal clause. [1]

e.g. At twenty I did not know whether any woman **would love** me with her whole heart.
I felt that further conversation with Dave **would** be unprofit-
able at that moment.
He was sure I **should get** the job.

The Future Indefinite-in-the-Past expresses the time of the action relatively (see "Verbs", § 54), i.e. with regard to a given past moment the action of the subordinate clause follows that of the Principal clause.

2) **The Future Continuous-in-the-Past** is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past and the *ing-form* of the notional verb

[1] It can be used in all types of clauses in which the rules of the sequence of tenses are observed.

(e.g. / *said I should be seeing him often soon. I said he would be seeing her often soon*, etc.). In negative sentences the particle not is placed after the first auxiliary (e.g. *I said I should not be seeing him often now. I said he would not be seeing her often now*, etc.). In spoken English the contracted form 'd is used in affirmative sentences and the forms shouldn't and wouldn't in negative sentences.

The Future Continuous-in-the-Past generally serves to show that an action which is future from a definite past moment, is expected to take place in the natural course of events. Like the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past, it is also structurally dependent and is mainly found in object clauses.

e.g. Towards the end of May he had a letter from Rosalind, in which she said that she would soon be announcing her engagement to Ralph Udal.
He said he would be seeing her that evening at the Atkinsons.
I felt that in a moment we should be talking soberly like two old acquaintances.

It should be noted that the application of the Future Continuous-in-the-Past is infrequent.

3) The Future Perfect-in-the-Past *(should/would have done)* denotes an action completed before a definite moment which is future from the point of view of the past. But the form hardly ever occurs in English as it is seldom required by the situation.

e.g. I was afraid that he would have started off by the time I got to the coast.

§ 52. In addition to the Future-in-the-Past there are other means of expressing future actions from the point of view of the past.

1) The Past Continuous is used to express a future-in-the-past action which is definitely settled. The action is expected to take place soon after a definite past moment. The time of its realization is often, though not necessarily, indicated in the sentence by means of adverbial modifiers.

e.g. In the pocket of his dinner-jacket was a letter from Annette.
She was coming back in a fortnight.
The last time I saw him, he said he was going on the stage.

2) *To be to* + infinitive, which is usually treated as a modal phrase, serves, like the Past Continuous, to indicate a previous arrangement, but in addition to that meaning it generally implies obligation resulting from that arrangement.

e.g. I've still got the letter. I was to post it. But of course later I forgot.
He was beside himself with excitement because his book was to be published next month.

"To be to + infinitive" may also serve to express orders or instructions (mainly in reported speech).

e.g. I had already impressed upon her that she was not to mention my name to him.
There was a special order that no one was to come to the station to see the battalion off.

When it denotes a future action viewed from the past, *"to be to* + infinitive" may acquire the meaning of something destined to happen. (This meaning is not found with *"to be to* + infinitive" when it is used with reference to the actual future.)

e.g. And then came the offer of the research which was to occupy so much of his working life.
At that time I did not know what was to become of me.

3) *To be going to* + infinitive may have two different meanings:
a) Premeditated intention, which means that the person denoted by the subject had been planning for some time to perform the action, that some preparation for the action had been in progress. This use of the *"going-to* form" is chiefly found in object clauses.

e.g. Finn said he was going to write a letter to his uncle in Ireland.
I told George what I was going to say to the Committee.

It is noteworthy that the Past tense of the *"going-to* form" may, however, be structurally independent, when it occurs in independent sentences. In this case, in addition to premeditated intention, it denotes that the action was not carried out, i.e. the person indicated by the subject was prevented from carrying out his intention.

e.g. **He was going to meet** you himself, only his car was stolen.
It's your birthday, Stan. I **was going to keep** it a secret until tonight.

b) The speaker's feeling that the action was unavoidable, that it was imminent. This use of the *"going-to* form" is mainly found in reported speech.

e.g. If only we knew what **was going to happen.**
You always thought I **was going to die,** didn't you?
I knew he **was going to regret** the day he had ever written that letter.

4) **The Past Indefinite** may be used in two different cases which are both structurally dependent:

a) With reference to a future action viewed from the past in clauses of time, condition and concession (in accordance with the rules of the sequence of tenses),

e.g. So when Anna was leaving for France I said to her vaguely that I would look her up when she **returned.**
Probably she knew that whatever **happened** he would not give her away.
I told him if he **didn't hurry up** he'd get no breakfast.

Note. In clauses other than those of time, condition and concession, the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past is used even if these clauses are introduced by the conjunctions *when* and *if.*

e.g. I asked him *if* he would stay another week with us.
The time would come *when* they would all be proud of Tony.

b) In object clauses after one of the past tenses of *to see* (-= to attend), *to take care* or *to make sure* in the principal clause.

e.g. He knew that Rosalind *would see* that it **did not happen.**
Mother *took care* that I **held** myself well.

§ 53. To sum it up, it should be mentioned that though the use of the Future Indefinite-in-the-Past, in theory, is similar to that of the Future Indefinite, its use is actually much wider. The use of the other means of expressing future actions viewed from the past is, on the contrary, much more restricted than the use of the same means with reference to the real future.

The Rules of the Sequence of Tenses

§ **54. In certain** types of subordinate clauses the tenses are used relatively, i.e. the tense form does not refer the action to the present, past or future but shows whether the action of the subordinate clause is simultaneous with the action of the principal clause, precedes it or follows it.

The choice of the tense form in the subordinate clause depends **ion** the tense form used in the principal clause. This structurally dependent use of tenses in certain types of clauses is known as **the rules** of **the sequence of tenses.**

§ **55.** The relative use of tenses is mainly observed **in subordinate object clauses.**

l) After one of the past forms in the principal clause (including the Future-in-the-Past) we find past forms in the subordinate clause.

If the action of the object clause is **simultaneous** with that of the principal clause, the Past Indefinite or the Past Continuous is used in the object clause no matter which past form is found in the principal clause (the Past Indefinite, the Past Continuous, the Past Perfect, the Past Perfect Continuous, or the Future-in-the-Past).

e.g. Nobody **knew** what he **meant.**
I thought you **were joking.**
He had not realized how nervous she **was.**
He **would** never **know** what she **was thinking.**

If the action of the object clause **precedes** that of the principal clause, the Past Perfect or the Past Perfect Continuous is used in the object clause no matter which past form is found in the principal clause.

e.g. The people she met **seemed** to know where she **had been,** what she **had been doing.**
He was finally **telling** them what he **had been concealing.**
Soames looked at her. He **had said** that she **had not changed;** now he **perceived** that she **had.**

If the action of the object clause **follows** that of the principal clause, the Future-in-the-Past or one of the other means of ex-

pressing future actions viewed from the past is used in the object clause no matter which past tense-aspect form is found in the principal clause.

e.g. I had feared that my companion would talk too much, but it was soon plain that there was no such danger.
I explained that I was going up to London.
He thought of how wet they were going to get in the rain.
She knew that George would be waiting for her.

2) The rules of the sequence of tenses are also observed in object clauses if one of the present forms is used in the principal clause.

If the action of the object clause is simultaneous with that of the principal clause we find either the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous in it no matter which of the present forms is used in the principal clause.

e.g. Maurice doesn't know what he is doing.
"I know just how they feel," said Sophia.
I am beginning to think you're a fool.
You've noticed, I daresay, that she travels a good deal.
"Adeline has been telling me," he said, "that her father is willing to send her abroad."

If the action of the object clause precedes that of the principal clause we' find the Present Perfect, the Past Indefinite, the Present Perfect Continuous or the Past Continuous in it no matter which of the present forms is used in the principal clause.

e.g. I don't know whether any of you have met her.
I don't see why he did it.
I don't want her to see I've been crying.
I'm beginning to understand why your grandfather left you his house.

If the action of the object clause follows that of the principal clause we find one of the future forms or one of the other means of expressing futurity in it no matter which of the present forms is used in the principal clause.

e.g. I don't think he'll ever forgive me for asking these people to come here.
I expect she'll be ringing up again very shortly.
I don't know how I'm going to do it.
I've just told everyone that I'm sending him to school this autumn.
She's hoping I shall be back by Monday week.
They haven't even told me who my successor is going to be.

3) The rules of the sequence of tenses are observed in object clauses if one of the future forms or one of the means of expressing future actions is used in the principal clause.

If the action in the object clause is simultaneous with that of the principal clause we find the Present Indefinite or the Present Continuous in it.

e.g. I am sure we shall find we have quite a lot to say to one another.
Sir Walter will tell you that I'm not exaggerating.

If the action in the object clause precedes that of the principal clause we find the Present Perfect or the Past Indefinite in it.

e.g. Miss Sophia will be glad you've come.
They will ask you when you arrived in New York.
I never liked the idea and I'm not going to say I did.
Oh, come, you're not going to tell me that you've never been in love since you were in love with me.

If the action in the object clause follows that of the principal clause we find one of the future forms or one of the other means of expressing future actions in it.

e.g. I'll tell you what I'll do.
We'll let you know what we are going to do about it.
You are going to say that this will cost you a thousand pounds.

Note 1. Grammars usually say that the choice of the tense form in the subordinate clause is free after a present or a future tense form in the principal clause. This is not quite correct as only the above described forms can be used in this case, their choice being as strict and as regular as after a past tense form in the principal clause.

It is true, the relative use of tense forms is not so obvious after a present tense form in the principal clause since the situation is viewed from the moment of speaking and at first sight the use of tense forms seems to depend only on the sense. However, if we compare the use of tenses in object clauses after a present, past and future tense form it becomes evident that their choice always depends on the tense form of the predicate verb in the principal clause.

Besides, after a future tense in the principal clause it is a present tense form that is used in the object clause to express simultaneousness, but not a future tense form which might be logically expected (see the examples above). It might also be expected that a present tense form would denote priority after a future tense form in the principal clause but actually it is the Present Perfect or the Past Indefinite that are used.

Note 2. The rules of the sequence of tenses are observed in all object clauses irrespective of the conjunction or the conjunctive word by which the clause is introduced. The object clause may also be joined to the principal clause asyndetically (see the examples above).

Note 3. It should be noted that the rules of the sequence of tenses hold good in object clauses after a formal it used as the subject of the principal clause.

e.g. It pleased me to think that **he was making** progress.
It **appears** that you **know** my name.
It **was** remarkable that she seldom **thought** of Gerald.
It **was announced** at the commencement of the congress that a special mission **would leave** to investigate the crisis.

§ 56. Object clauses are usually subordinated to the predicate of the principal clause. But they may also be subordinated to some other parts of the sentence, expressed by a verbal and occasionally by an adjective. In this case the finite form of the subordinate clause also depends on the form of the predicate verb in the principal clause.

e.g. He **wanted** them *to see* that he **was** not hostile.
Winslow **was** fond of *saying* that he **had** a large collection of pictures.
He finally **went** home, *satisfied* that he **would have** no trouble.
John **had left** in April perfectly *ignorant* of what **he wanted** to become.

§ 57. The rules of the sequence of tenses in object clauses are sometimes violated. This occurs in the following cases:

1) In present-time contexts after a past form in the principal clause when reference is made to the actual present time (a), the actual past time (b) or the actual future time (c). This is found In dialogues (in plays, novels, stories) and also in newspaper and radio reports.

e.g. a) I **told** Lewis that we're **worried** about Myrtle.
I was obliged to tell him that too much **depends** on our decision.
Muriel **said** she's **been ringing** you all day, Mother.
I wonder **if** you **understood** a word of what **I have been saying.**

b) **I** think you **said** you **came** in a taxi.
"All night long I have been dreaming about this breakfast." **"I thought** you **said** you **didn't sleep."**

c) I came to tell you that I'll **vote** against you.
I read the other day that they are going **to** raise the war pensions.
"Did you **know,"** she said, "that Roy **is having** Lord and Lady Boscastle to lunch?"

In the above examples we may speak of the absolute use of finite forms as they actually refer the actions to the present, past or future.

It should be pointed out that though there is a tendency in present-day English to use the finite forms absolutely, the well-established tradition of their relative use is still holding ground. There are numerous examples of the same kind as those given above in which the rules of the sequence of tenses are strictly observed. Moreover, sometimes the formal dependence of the finite form of the object clause on that of the principal clause appears even illogical, contradicting the actual state of things, and yet the tradition does not give way.

e.g. "I **came** to see how your health was," he said to Miss Marple.
You are not angry with me because I quite **forgot** it **was** my birthday today.
I hear you are going to be married again; **I thought** you were tired of that game.
I didn't know I was so strong.

2) After a past form in the principal clause when the speaker believes that he is dealing with facts, statements or opinions which are true of all times, are a kind of general truth. In this case the Present Indefinite is used in the object clause after a past form in the principal clause. Examples of this kind are not very numerous.

e.g. You made me understand what love really is.
They were so young that they did not know what an advantage it is to be in society.
Soames was realizing more and more than ever how essential reputation is to a solicitor.

3) With certain modal verbs having only one form, e.g. *must, should, ought* and *need.*

e.g. I wrote that I must see him.
He said he was sure that there must be some mistake.
I didn't think you need worry.
I knew that from now on he should do no more work.
Two people advised me recently, almost in the same words, that I ought to see a doctor.

§ 58. As has been said, the rules of the sequence of tenses are mainly applied in object clauses. Yet these rules are strictly observed in some other cases too:

a) in subject and predicative clauses,

e.g. How she managed to do it is not known.
This is not what I expected.
That he has behaved as a coward is a fact.
After all, it's what we've been hoping all along, isn't it?
Why they had voted against him was a mystery.
My first impression was that they all behaved very well.
That he would soon ask for help was almost a certainty.
My only fear was that Finn would forget what he was supposed to be doing.

b) in appositive clauses,

e.g. The author expresses the confidence that readers of the paper will support the candidate.
She had the sensation that someone hidden among the trees was watching her as she passed.

c) in clauses of purpose (in which we mainly find the modal
verbs *can* and *may),*

e.g. I want to move to London so that I can really begin a new life.
As you go, leave the door open so that the light may show you some of the way down.
The doctor stepped around so that she could see him, and nodded.
He exclaimed loudly and clearly, so that all might hear.

d) in simple sentences as well as in all types of clauses in so-called inner speech (a stylistic device which consists in the author describing the thoughts of his characters as if they were speaking to themselves),

e.g. The house wasn't too bad, he reflected to himself. It was good, solidly built, though rather ugly. It would be quite comfortable to live in.
It was quite true, thought Lady Seal. Neville had spoken. surprisingly well that morning, as though at last he were fully alive to his responsibilities. She would ask him to luncheon. But perhaps he would be busy; many people were busy in those days.

e) in simple sentences in which a parenthetic sentence is inserted (the tense form of the simple sentence depends on that of the parenthetic one),

e.g. The house had, he admitted, a feeling of solidity and security.
The idea wasn't too bad, he reflected to himself.
It was all being done very well, Mrs Bantry thought.

§59. In all the other clauses, i.e. other than object, subject, predicative, appositive clauses and clauses of purpose, the use of the finite forms is structurally independent, i.e. the finite form is chosen in accordance with the sense to be conveyed.

Yet in narration in the vast majority of attributive clauses as well as clauses of time, cause, result, comparison, condition or concession we find past forms. In fact, this seems to be the general rule. But the reason why it is used is not its structural dependence on the finite form in the principal clause. Since all the events in narration refer to the past, it is only natural that one of the past forms should be used in these types of clauses.

e-g. I was in the garden one morning with Brenda when a car drew up to the front door.

But no one **knew** how the Greeks were holding on, because the supplies **were getting** scarce.
A tall tired-looking man, whom he **had not met** before, came out and without a word led him into the office.
It was one of the happiest afternoons he **had** ever **spent.**
She **was** as glad to end the conversation as he was.
Harris was so overcome with joy that he **fainted.**

But when necessary, it is possible to use any tense form required by the situation in such clauses.

e.g. Georgie, who is now twenty-six, **had been** an undergraduate at Cambridge, where she **had taken** a degree of economics.
We were standing in the part of the market that is devoted to flowers.
"It was many years ago," said Miss Marple, "but nevertheless human nature was very much the same as it is now."
He was as fond of his father as I **am** of mine.
I had known Palmer, when this story **starts, for** nearly four years.
I **had** never seen him before and I **had** never **heard** anything about him at the time, though **I have heard** a good deal since.

§ 60. The rules of the sequence of tenses are also observed in clauses of the second, third, etc. grade of subordination. Yet the choice of the finite form does not depend in this case on the finite form in the principal clause — it is determined by the form of the verb in the clause to which it is subordinated.

e.g. **He hurried** her away, grumbling to himself | (1) that he **had known | (2)** how **it would be.**

In the above example, clause 1 is subordinated to the principal clause and the Past Perfect is used to express the priority of the action to that of the principal clause; clause 2, however, is subordinated to clause 1 and the Future-in-the-Past serves to show an action following that of clause 1.

In the following example the Past Indefinite in clause 1 shows that the action is simultaneous with that of the principal clause; the Past Perfect in clause 2 expresses the priority of the action to that in clause **1.**

e.g. **I discovered |** (1) that he **thought |** (2) nothing specially unusual **had happened.**

The same rule is illustrated in the following examples:

e.g. Awkwardly, with kindness, he asked me about my studies. He said that Ann **had told** him how **I** was working.
But I was delayed and when I arrived the landlady **told** me that the girl **had said** she **was not used** to being kept waiting and **had** gone.
She was always so sure that at last she **had found** exactly what she **wanted.**
I thought you **said** that you **were trying** to *get* a **job.**
I thought I knew why they **had** come.

VOICE

§ 61. Voice is the form of the verb which serves to show whether the subject of the sentence is the agent or the object of the action expressed by the predicate verb. There are two voices in English — **the Active Voice** and **the Passive Voice.**

Note. The terms *the Active Voice* and *the Passive Voice* are used with reference to the form of the verb. Sentences in which the verb is used in the Active or in the Passive Voice are called active and passive constructions respectively.

The Active Voice

§ 62. The Active Voice shows that the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence is the agent (the doer) of the action expressed by the predicate verb, that it acts.

e.g. "I deny that," **said** Joan.
We **know** you've **been cheating us.**
Why **have** you **done it?**
George **walked** over to the window but **did not open** it.

The formation of the finite forms of the Active Voice and the use of these forms have already been described in "Verbs", § 7-60.

Note. In a vast majority of instances the Active Voice has the meaning described above. Yet there are cases when, owing to the lexical character of the verb,

the thing denoted by the subject of the sentence cannot be regarded as the doer of the action. This becomes obvious if we compare the following examples:

a) The maid who opened the door for me told me that Mr March was waiting for me.	b) The door opened and Mrs Knight appeared with a tea tray,
She closed the door softly and went straight to the telephone.	The door closed and there was silence in the large room.

In the examples under (a) the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action but in the sentences under (b) it becomes the object — the door cannot actually open or close by itself, the action is performed by someone else. Yet examples of the second kind are also treated in grammar as the Active Voice since the form of the verb is active.

The Passive Voice

§ 63. The Passive Voice serves to show that the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence is not the agent (the doer) of the action expressed by the predicate verb but the object of this action. The subject of a passive verb does not act but is acted upon, it undergoes an action.

e.g. She **was woken** from her sleep by his singing.
They **were received** with great frankness and charm.
The child knew that she **was being praised.**
The news **will be announced** after dinner.

Note. There are a few cases when, owing to the lexical character of the verb, the subject of the sentence cannot be regarded as the object undergoing the action expressed by the predicate verb. Yet examples of this kind are treated in grammar as the Passive Voice since the form of the verb is passive.

e.g. All of a sudden I realized that I was lost in the wild open country.
After Jacobs was drowned his farm was sold to MacMartin.

§ 64. The Passive Voice is an analytical form which is built up by means of the auxiliary verb to be in the required finite form and the participle of the notional verb (on the formation of the participle see "Verbs", § 5 and Appendix):

the Present Indefinite — **is (am, are) done**
the Past Indefinite — **was (were) done**
the Future Indefinite — **will (shall) be done**
the Present Perfect — **has (have) been done**
the Past Perfect — **had been done**
the Future Perfect — **will (shall) have been done**
the Present Continuous — **is** (am, **are) being done**
the Past Continuous — was (were) being done

The interrogative form is built up by placing the (first) auxiliary verb before the subject of the sentence (e.g. *When was it done? Has the work been done?,* etc.). The negative form is built up by placing the particle **not** after the (first) auxiliary (e.g. *The work was not done yesterday. The work will not be done tomorrow,* etc.).

Note. The Passive Voice may also be formed by means of the auxiliary verb to get and the participle of the notional verb. But instances of this kind are infrequent {even in informal English) and restricted mainly to situations and contexts dealing with accidental or unpleasant happenings.

e.g. The boy got hurt on his way home.
The table was turned over sideways and the china lamp *got* broken.
Somebody pushed Jane's elbow and her drink got spilt.
Don't make such a noise. You'll get turned out.

Types of Passive Constructions

§ **65.** English is rich in various types of passive constructions:

1) The subject of the passive construction may correspond to the direct object of the verb. This type of passive construction may be called **the Direct Passive.**

e.g. At twilight he was **carried** to the field hospital.
Then he noticed that the window in a room opposite **was being opened** he could not see by whom.
Nearly all the furniture **will be taken** out of the room.

Note. There are a number of verbs in English which can be used in the Passive Voice, while with their equivalents in Russian the passive construction is impossible. To these verbs belong, for example, *to approach, to attend, to answer, to kelp, to assist, to follow, to influence, to join, to watch* and some others.

e-g. Lady Bor was assisted to her car just before tea.
The general was followed into the room by his younger daughter.
At that moment they were joined by the others.

It should be noted that the Direct Passive is part of two widely used constructions:

a) It forms the basis of the construction which may be called the **complex subject** (see "Notes on the Syntactic Structure of **the Sentence", p.** 426).

e.g. She is said to be a first-class teacher.
The children, as usual, were busy doing all the things they had been told not to do.
I was not allowed to chat.
He was appointed secretary of the committee.
He was seen talking to the Minister.

b) The construction with a formal it as subject may also contain the passive of verbs denoting mental and physical perceptions, suggestion, order, request and decision as well as of verbs of saying, such as *to agree, to announce, to arrange, to believe, to decide, to demand, to determine, to expect, to explain, to feel, to know, to notice, to observe, to propose, to recommend, to report, to require, to request, to rumour, to say, to suggest, to think, to understand* and the like. This passive construction is followed by a clause introduced, as a rule, by the conjunction *that,*

e.g. It was explained that Roy was unaccountably absent from duty that morning.
It was known that he would not tolerate any criticism.
It was arranged that Martin should have the room all to himself.
It is said that she turned the job down.

Although the Direct Passive is the most commonly used passive construction, there are certain restrictions to its application:

a) The restrictions may be due to the nature of the direct object. The passive construction is impossible when the direct object of the verb is expressed by an infinitive (e.g. *We arranged to meet at 5 o'clock.),* a clause (e.g. / *saw that he knew about it.),* a reflexive pronoun or a noun with a possessive pronoun referring to the same person as the subject of the sentence (e.g. *He hurt himself- He cut his finger.).*

b) Sometimes there is no passive construction because the verb and the direct object are so closely connected that they form a set phrase and cannot be separated, e.g. *to keep one's word, to lose courage to lose heart, to lose one's patience, to take alarm, to take courage, to take flight* and many others.

Certain phrases of this kind, however, admit of a passive construction, e.g. *to take care, to take no notice, to pay attention, to take responsibility* and some others.

e.g. He paused at each table and then, when no notice was taken of him, with a smile he passed on.
In his school a great deal of attention is paid to mathematics.

c) In addition to intransitive verbs which are not used in the passive, some transitive verbs, at least in certain uses, do not occur in the passive either.

e.g. The boy resembled his father.
The hat suits (becomes) you.
The coat does not fit you.
He has (possesses) a sharp sense of humour.
He lacks confidence.
The place holds 500 people.

Yet in spite of the above restrictions, the use of the Direct Passive is quite extensive in English.

2) There are a number of verbs in English which take two objects — a direct and indirect. The most frequently used verbs of this kind are *to give, to grant, to leave, to lend, to offer, to pay, to promise, to send, to show, to tell* and a few others.

These verbs may have two passive constructions:

a) The Direct Passive (which has been described above).

e.g. When I came to the office a telegram was given to me.
Although a very good job was offered to me I had to turn it down.

As a rule, the indirect object takes the preposition *to* after the verb in the Passive.

b) The indirect object of the verb may also become the subject of the passive construction. This type of passive construction may be called the Indirect Passive.

e.g. I was told some very interesting news.
He told me that he had been offered a well-paid job at a publishing house.

In this passive construction the verb is always followed by the direct object *(news, a job);* it is called a retained object since it is retained by the verb.

Although the Indirect Passive is a construction peculiar to English, its use is not very common. It is freely used only with the

verb *to tell.* In this case the direct object is mainly expressed by a clause (a) and occasionally by a noun or pronoun **(b).**

e.g. a) **I'm told** that his new house will be finished soon.
I didn't care if Croxton **was told** I didn't like him.
b) I **am told** things. I appear to take them in — but they just pass through my brain and are gone.
You **weren't told** anything because there isn't anything to tell you.

The Indirect Passive is also found with set phrases containing the verb *to give* (occasionally *to grant)* followed by a noun, e.g. *to give a chance, to give a choice, to give a job, to give an explanation, to give an opportunity, to give a party, to give a post, to give a sentence, to give a task, to give First Aid, to give news, to give notice, to give orders, to give prominence, to give shelter, to grant an audi ence, to grant leave* and the like.

e.g. **I haven't been given** a chance to explain.
He **was given** an opportunity to go to Columbia to attend the Winter Meeting of the Physical Society.
He disliked me when I **had been given** my job there.
He was given a life sentence.
On John's tenth birthday he was **given** a party.
He'd been granted leave of absence from his work to make **researches** at the university library.

But in free combinations the verb *to give* and the other verb mentioned above are infrequent in the Indirect Passive.

e.g. To deal with two square inches of mutton, you **were given a** knife and fork big enough for a roasted ox.
In the hotel Charles **was shown** his **room.**
She **had been left** an immense fortune.
"Never mind what **I was promised or not promised,"** he snarled.
The moment you **are offered** something that you want — you want something else.

Note. There are a number of verbs in English which require a direct and an in direct object in the active construction, but they admit only of one passive con struction, namely, the Direct Passive. Among them we find *to bring, to play, to read, to telegraph, to write* and some others.

e.g. I wrote **him a letter.** —> **A letter** was written to him.
I played **him the tune.** —> **The tune** was played to him.
He telegraphed **me the** news. —? The news was telegraphed to me.

3) There are a great number of verbs in English that require a prepositional object. These verbs may also be used in the passive — the subject of the passive construction corresponds then to the prepositional object. The preposition retains its place after the verb. This construction may be called **the Prepositional Passive.**

e.g. He **was** highly **thought of** in his village.
When they found her lying on the floor, the doctor **was sent for.**

The Prepositional Passive is found in English more often than the Indirect Passive. Yet the use of this construction is not very extensive either. Its application is restricted in two ways:

a) Though in principle it may be formed from any verb which takes a prepositional object, it is regularly found with only a limited number of verbs. The most commonly occurring of them are:

(1) verbs of speaking such as *to comment on, to speak about (of, to), to talk about (of), to write about,*

e.g. You **have been** a good deal **talked about.**
She did all the rough work which Mrs Rodd told her to do, spoke when she **was spoken to,** but not otherwise, and ate a very great deal of food at lunch.
His book **was commented on** by the newspapers.

(2) **the verb** *to look* in different meanings with various prepositions, such as *to look at (to, upon, after, for, into),*

e.g. She could feel she **was being looked at** and it pleased her.
The suit-cases **were looked after.**
He was looked upon as their leader.

(3) **verbs expressing mockery or blame,** such as *to frown at, to laugh at, to mock at, to shout at, to sneer at, to spit at, to swear at, to whistle at,*

e.g. She had an uncomfortable feeling that she **was being laughed at.**
Julia had turned her head away hurriedly and **had been frowned at** by her mother.

(4) also a miscellaneous group of verbs including *to account for, to approve of, to ask for, to call for, to deal with, to depend on, to disapprove of, to dispose of, to rely on, to send for, to think of,* and a few others,

e.g. No one could understand a word he said, and an interpreter was sent for.
Her request was disapproved of.
At the college he was thought of as being a big man.

(5) Occasionally other verbs including set phrases, such as *to get in touch with, to make a fool of, to take care of,* etc. are found in the Prepositional Passive construction, but their occurrence seems to be infrequent,

e.g. It's all taken care of.
You're being made a fool of, that's all.

b) The Prepositional Passive is not used with verbs which take two objects, direct and prepositional. Here belong such verbs as *to announce, to dedicate, to devote, to explain (something to some body), to point out, to propose, to say, to suggest,* etc. They can only have a Direct Passive construction.

e.g. The difficulty was then explained to her.
Soon the engagement was announced to the family.
The mistake was pointed out to him.
A new plan was suggested to us.

The direct object after some of these verbs is rather often ex pressed by a clause. In this case the only possible passive construction is the one with a formal it as subject.

e.g. It had been explained to Sylvia that Renny had gone,
It was announced to them that the accommodation problem was now settled.

4) There is another passive construction possible in English: the subject of the passive construction corresponds to an adverbial modifier of place in the active construction. In this case the preposition also retains its place after the verb.

e.g. The occupant of the apartment was fully clothed, although the bed had been slept in.
The room looked as if it had not been lived in for years.
The high-backed ugly chairs looked as if they had once been sat in by cardinals.

The use of this construction is rare and usually occurs with the verbs mentioned in the examples.

The Use of Finite Forms in the Passive Voice

§ 66. The use of finite forms in the Passive Voice is not exactly parallel to those of the Active Voice. This can be accounted for by two reasons: 1) the absence of certain finite forms in the passive and 2) the lexical character of the verb, namely the differentiation between terminative and durative verbs.

1) The Passive Voice lacks the Future Continuous, the Future Continuous-in-the-Past and all the Perfect Continuous forms.

2) The lexical character of the verb affects the meaning of all the Indefinite Passive tenses.

With durative verbs the use of the Indefinite Passive tenses is parallel to the corresponding active forms.

e.g. The plural of nouns is formed with the help of the suffix -s.
He was an ardent fighter for freedom and independence. He was loved by millions and hated only by a handful.
His place in history is secure. He will be remembered long after his enemies have been forgotten.
She telephoned to know where the meeting would be held.

But with terminative verbs the grammatical meaning of the Indefinite passive forms is wider than that of the corresponding active forms. They may denote either an action or a state resulting from a previously accomplished action ("a resultant state").

Cf,	*Action*	*State*
	At the time the houses in Oak Crescent were built it wasn't considered that the working classes needed baths.	The house was very solidly built.
	Everything was settled twenty minutes after I arrived there.	So that's all settled.

I'm not often shocked, you know, but this does shock me a little.

Indeed? I am shocked to hear it.

Note. Certain combinations of the verb *to be* with a participle are to be treated as nominal predicates as they are devoid of the idea of action (see also "Verbs", §§179, 245).

e.g. He is quite convinced that it is true.
I am **prepared** to believe you.
I don't know anything. They **are** so reserved about it.
Of course, I'm disappointed you can't come.

The Indefinite passive forms denote an action in the following cases:

a) if the action expressed by the passive form is part of a succession of actions,

e.g. The door opened and the doctor was shown in.
Brenda and Lawrence came to trial, but no case was brought against them and they were dismissed.

b) if the passive form denotes a recurrent action.

In this case there are indications of frequency in the sentence. They may be expressed in various ways, mainly by adverbs of frequency or by the use of nouns in the plural.

e.g. She read Byron to him, and was often puzzled by the strange interpretations he gave to some passages.
He is invited to all the best dances.

c) if the time of the action expressed by the passive form is indicated in the sentence by adverbial modifiers of time (including clauses),

e.g. The novel was written during the summer of 1918.
The whole affair was soon forgotten.

d) if the manner in which the action is performed (occasionally the purpose of the action) is indicated by means of an adverbial modifier,

e.g. Nothing that's worth doing is done easily.
Tea was finished in silence.
The front door was slowly closed.
I was sent into the hospital to be X-rayed.

e) if the doer of the action is indicated in the sentence (in such cases the doer often happens to be a non-personal agent, and the passive form without it would be understood as expressing a state),

e.g. Soames was both annoyed and surprised by my glance.
He was disturbed by a series of explosions.

Note. Yet sometimes we find sentences in which the passive form denotes a state even when the doer is indicated.

e.g. She looked into the bedroom; the bed was made, as though by the hand of a man.
The two houses were connected by a gallery.

If none of the above mentioned indications are found in the sentence or in a wider context, the Indefinite passive forms generally express (with terminative verbs) a state resulting from a previously accomplished action.

e.g. We're defeated. Let's go back to New York and start all over again.
A table is set out for luncheon in the garden.
The door was locked; there was nobody in sight.
The big bed was covered with a quilt.
Her car, a green Fiat, was parked outside.
If you come so late the front door will be locked and you'll have to go by the back door.

Note, The Future Indefinite Passive tends, on the whole, to denote an action (not a state) even if there are no special indications such as those described above.

e.g. You needn't worry. Every precaution will be taken.
"What do I need to take with me?" "Nothing. Everything you need will be provided for you"

§67. The use of the Present and Past Continuous Passive is parallel to the use of the corresponding active forms.

e-g. What sort of research is being done, and who is doing it?
He lost his temper and said he was always being made to do everything he didn't want to.

The use of the Perfect passive forms is also parallel to the corresponding active forms.

e.g. You can see that this glass has been used.
"Why did you come?" "I've been turned out of the place where I live."
Ever since I came into this silly house I have been made to look like a fool.
Nancy looked displeased and told me she had been sent to fetch the breakfast tray.
All of a sudden he realized the full force of what he had been told.
I suspected that I had been followed and watched since I arrived in London.

Note 1. As has been mentioned before, the Future Perfect is not of frequent occurrence in the active. In the passive its use is quite uncommon.

Note 2. The sentences *The work is finished* and *The work has been finished* are somewhat similar in meaning. Yet there is a difference between them: the former serves to express a state in the present which is the result of the previously accomplished action; the latter denotes the action proper which is accomplished by the present moment.

The Choice of the Passive Construction

§ 68. The passive is not the reverse of the active. The two constructions are not parallel in their use and serve different purposes.

As a general rule, the passive construction is used when there is no need to mention the agent of the action because it is either easily understood from the situation or context (a), or because it is self-evident (b), or because it happens to be any number of unidentified people (c).

e.g. a) Roger was invited to dinner at their house every Sunday *(by the people living in the house).*
The ambulance arrived and she was taken to hospital *(by the ambulance).*
b) Her two brothers were killed in the war.
The telegram had been delivered in time.
He was arrested in a hotel.
c) In my young days it was considered bad manners to take medicines with one's meals. It was on a par with blowing your nose at the dinner table.
It just wasn't done. In industry coal is now used much less than before.

Occasionally the passive is used when the agent of the action is not known or kept secret for some reason.

e.g. All my books were totally disarranged in ray absence and now I can't find the book I want.
At night his car was broken into and a few things were stolen from it.
I was told that you were getting a divorce from your husband.

As there is no need to mention the agent of the action in the above cases, the Passive Voice makes it possible to shift the focus of attention onto other parts of the sentence.

Although there is usually no mention of the agent of the action in passive constructions, it sometimes becomes necessary to indicate the doer and then a by-phrase is used.

e.g. Other possibilities were talked of *by some of my colleagues.*

In this case a corresponding active construction is possible,

e.g. Some of my colleagues talked of other possibilities.

However, there appears to be a difference between the two sentences which lies in the fact that in the active construction it is the words *other possibilities* that are made the centre of communication, and in the passive construction the focus is shifted to *some of my colleagues*. (End position is generally connected with a stronger stress and thus a word is made more prominent in this case.) The passive may be called a word-order device here. As logical stress is laid on two different parts of the sentence in the active and in the passive, the two constructions cannot be regarded as interchangeable. As has been earlier said, they serve different purposes.

The following examples illustrate the use of passive constructions in which stress is laid on the doer of the action:

e-g- You can't go wrong if you are advised *by me.* Auntie Alice is always right.
His pleasant colour was heightened *by exercise.*
But has your boy's conduct ever been influenced *by your reasons?*

With certain verbs the passive is impossible without the mention of the agent as the sentence would be meaningless without it. This is the case with such verbs as *to accent, to accompany, to attend, to attract, to bring about, to characterize, to cause, to confront, to control, to enhance, to follow, to govern, to join, to influence, to mark, to overtake, to rule, to seize, to set off, to visit and* some others.

e.g. The answer was **followed** by an impressive silence.
He was accompanied by his father who was very nervous.
He **is** very easily **influenced** by the ideas of anyone whom he meets.
Then my attention was caught by the noise coming from behind the fence.

Reasons for the Frequent Occurrence of the Passive

§ **69. It** is common knowledge that the passive is extensively used in English. This seems to be due to a number of reasons:

1) In English there are no means of avoiding the indication of the doer of the action in active constructions.

In other languages we find special active constructions which make it possible to avoid any mention of the agent. For example, in Russian there are several grammatical means that serve the purpose:

a) the so-called indefinite-personal sentences in which there is no subject and the predicate is in the third person plural,

e.g. Греков *держали* как пленников, но при этом *обращались с* ними самым почтительным образом и *предоставляли* им всевозможные блага.

b) sentences with reflexive verbs,

e.g. Эта картина *ценилась* выше, чем все другие.
Он знал, что *оставался* еще один важный вопрос.
Его неожиданное появление *объяснялось* очень просто.

c) impersonal sentences,

e.g. *Не слышалось* никакого шума.
Все небо *обложило* тучами.

In French and German the same idea is often expressed in sentences with the indefinite pronoun *on (Fr.)* and *man (Ger.).*

e.g. He is much spoken about in the town. — He **is** said to be ill.
Man spricht viel von ihm in der Stadt. — **Man** sagt, dass er krank ist.
On parle beacoup de lui dans la ville. — **On dit** qu'il est malade.

It is true that in English the indefinite pronoun *one* and occasionally the personal pronouns *we, you* and *they* and the noun *people* may be used in the same way.

e.g. "One ought to keep one's languages up," said Roy; his gaze was solemn, reproving, understanding. "It's terrible how **one** forgets them. Isn't it?"
One will have to think twice about accepting invitations — if there is a risk of being made miserable. **One** will just have to refuse.
"Is that the old lady who lives in the house by the church?" "That's right." "**They** say she's sharp," said Tiddler. "They say there's nothing goes on near that Miss Marple doesn't hear about."
In my young days it was considered to be bad manners to take medicines with one's meals. If **you** had to take pills or capsules, or a spoonful of something, **you** went out of the room to do so.
"Oh, I'm sure I never said anything of the kind," Lola laughed. "**People** exaggerate so."

But for some reason or other, the use of this kind of sentences is restricted, and English, instead, resorts to passive constructions.

2) In English, owing to the loss of distinction between the accusative and the dative cases, the number of verbs taking a direct object is quite considerable. It accounts for the extensive use of the Direct Passive.

3) There is a great variety of passive constructions in English. Although some of them are restricted in their application, they still contribute to the frequent occurrence of the Passive.

MOOD

§ 70. Generally **Mood** shows the relation between the action expressed by the predicate verb and reality. This relation is established by the speaker.

In present-day English **the category of mood** is made up by a set of forms opposed to each other in presenting the event described as **a real fact, a problematic action or as something unreal that does not exist.**

§ **71.** Actions represented as real facts are expressed by **the Indicative Mood.**

e.g. Architects **have done** some very good work, too, in designing new schools. Many of these **are** prefabricated, which means that as much of the building work as possible **is done** not on the building site but in factories where mass production methods **are used.**

When the brothers **had** gone home, Mr Waterall announced that they **were** a much pleasanter pair of young men than **he had been led** to believe.

The Indicative Mood is characterized by a great number of tense-aspect-phase forms which may be used in the Active or in the Passive Voice. These forms have been described in "Verbs", § 7-68.

Note. It should be stressed that the use of the Indicative Mood does not always-. mean that the action expressed by the predicate verb is true to fact, that it actually takes (or took, or will take) place in reality. When the speaker uses the Indicative Mood he merely represents an action as a fact, but he may be mistaken or even telling a lie.

e.g. "I've seen to it," he said, but everyone knew it was not true.

§ 72. Commands and requests which are problematic actions are expressed by **the Imperative Mood.**

The Imperative Mood is the plain stem of the verb (e.g. *Come over here. Listen to him,* etc.). It may be used in the affirmative and in the negative form. The negative form is an analytical form built up by means of the plain stem of the auxiliary verb **to do** followed by **not** (in spoken English — **don't)** and the infinitive of the notional verb without **to** (e.g. *Don't go over there. Don't listen to him,* etc.). The negative form of the verb *to be* is also built up by means of the auxiliary verb **to do** (e.g. *Don't be inquisitive. Don't be **a** fool,* etc.).

If we wish to make a command or request more expressive, **we** use the emphatic form. It is also an analytical form built up with the help of the plain stem of the auxiliary verb to **do** which is placed before the notional verb, including **to be** (e.g. *Do come over here. Do listen to him. Do be quiet,* etc.).

A command or request is generally addressed to the second person singular or plural (see the examples above). There is usually no need to mention the subject of the action before the verb in the Imperative Mood. But occasionally the verb may be preceded by *you* in familiar style (e.g. *You don't worry.).*

A command or request may be addressed to the third person, singular or plural. Commands and requests of this kind are formed with the help of the plain stem of the verb **to let** which is followed by a personal pronoun in the objective case *(him, her, it* or *them)* and the infinitive of the notional verb without **to** (e.g. *Let him go there at once. Let them do it by themselves,* etc.).

A command or request may be addressed to the first person plural. It is also formed with the help of the plain stem of the verb **to let** followed by the pronoun us (the contracted form is **let's)** and the infinitive of the notional verb. This form is actually an invitation to a joint action (e.g. *Let's have a cup of tea. Let's do **it** together,* etc.). In the negative form *let's* is followed by **not** (e.g. *Let's not talk about it.).*

Note. In colloquial English we also find *Don't let's talk about it.*

§ 73. Actions represented as unreal are in present-day English expressed by a variety of forms.

Among them there is a mood form — the Conditional Mood (see § 124).

The fact that there are a number of forms engaged in expressing unreal actions can be explained historically.

In the older periods English used to be a synthetic language and had special forms which served to express unreal actions — the so-called Subjunctive Mood. It was built up synthetically by means of inflections. As a result of loss of inflections, the difference between the forms of the Indicative Mood and the Subjunctive

Mood has in most cases disappeared. The place of the old Subjunctive Mood was in a number of cases taken up by analytical forms and modal phrases, i.e. combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive. It is this historical process that accounts for the great variety of different forms expressing unreality in modern English.

As some of the forms expressing problematic or unreal actions are modal phrases, it is necessary before describing the different forms of unreality to treat modal verbs first.

§ 74. The speaker's attitude towards the action in the sentence may be expressed in different ways:

1) By **one of the mood forms** which serve, as has been said, to show whether the action is represented as a real fact or as problematic, or unreal. This form of expression is found in every sentence because it is indispensable to predication.

2) By **modal verbs** which represent an action as necessary or unnecessary, possible or impossible, certain or doubtful and the like. But modal verbs need not be used in every sentence and are, therefore, to be regarded as an additional means of expressing the speaker's attitude towards the action in the sentence.

3) By **attitudinal adverbs** such as *certainly, perhaps, probably, luckily, unfortunately,* etc. (see also "Adverbs", § 2, 8). They express different degrees of certainty on the part of the speaker or the desirability of the action from his point of view.

Modal Verbs

§75. We find the following modal verbs in English: **can, may. must, ought, shall, should, will, need** and **dare.** Besides, **to** have and **to be** in some of their uses are also classed among modal verbs.

A modal verb in combination with the infinitive forms **a modal compound predicate.**

Modal verbs are defective verbs since they lack many **forms** characteristic of regular verbs: they have no -s in the third person singular in the present tense and no verbals, so they have no analytical forms; some of them lack the form of the past tense.

Modal verbs have the following peculiarities:

1) they are followed by the infinitive **without** the particle *to* (with the exception of *ought, to have* and *to be);*

2) their interrogative and negative forms are built up **without** the auxiliary *do.*

Most of the modal verbs have more than one meaning. Each of their meanings is characterized by a specific usage.

1) Some of the meanings may be found in all kinds of sentences; others occur only in affirmative or interrogative or negative sentences;

2) Different meanings may be associated with different forms of the infinitive — simple and perfect (both in the active and passive forms), continuous and perfect continuous;

3) If the modal verbs have more than one form *(can — could-, may — might, will — would,* also the verbs *to have* and *to be),* their different meanings are not necessarily found in all those forms.

The use of modal verbs is in most cases independent of the structure of the sentence: the use of this or that modal verb is determined by the attitude of the speaker towards the facts contained in the sentence. In this case we may speak of the **free or independent use of modal verbs.**

e.g. He admires you. He thinks you're a little beauty. Perhaps **I oughtn't to have told** you that.
He **may be** in the hall now, waiting for me.

But sometimes the use of certain modal verbs depends on the structure of the sentence, mainly on the type of the subordinate clause, and occasionally also on the lexical character of the predicate verb in the principal clause. This may be called the **structurally dependent use of modal verbs.**

e.g. **It** is obviously necessary that an investigation **should be made.**
Christine feared she **might not be met** at all.

As the difference between the active and the passive forms of the infinitive is of no consequence for the meaning of the modal verb, there is no need to illustrate these forms separately. However, instances where the differentiation between the active and the passive infinitive is important, are dealt with specialty.

When the use of modal verbs is structurally dependent, their meaning is sometimes weakened; in fact, it may be quite vague. This may be accounted for by the fact that these verbs become rather part of the structure than bearers of individual meaning.

It is important to take into account one more feature peculiar to modal verbs. They all show that a certain action is represented as necessary, possible, desirable, doubtful, etc. **from the point** of **view of the speaker.** Consequently, modal verbs are generally used in conversation, In past-time contexts they may be found only in reported speech or thought. Thus *You should have done it before,* or *He might be wrong,* or *It must be true* cannot be possibly found in narration unless they are used after *He thought that... . He said that... . He knew that...,* etc.

The only exceptions are the past tense forms *could, would, had, was* and *might* which may be used not only in conversation but also in narration.

e.g. Walker was illiterate and **could not** sign his name.
When I looked at her I saw tears in her eyes. So I **had to** tell her the truth.

can

§ 76. The modal verb *can* has the following forms: **can** — the present tense (e.g. *He can speak English)* and **could** — *the* past tense. The form *could* is used in two ways: a) in past-time contexts as a form of the Indicative Mood (e.g. *He could speak English when he was a child),* b) in present-time contexts to express unre ality, or as a milder and more polite form of *can,* or as a form implying more uncertainty than *can* (e.g. *He could speak English if necessary. Could I help you? Could it be true?)* Compare with the Russian *мог бы: Он мог бы сделать это, если бы у него было время* (unreality). *Не мог бы я вам помочь?* (politeness) *Не ужели он мог бы так сказать"!* (uncertainty).

§ 77. *Can* has the following meanings:

1) ability, capability,

e.g. I **can imagine** how angry he is.
He **can read** a little French.

This meaning may also be expressed by **to be able.** The phrase can be used in all tense-forms if necessary.

In the meaning of ability and capability *can* occurs in all kinds of sentences.

e.g. She **can play** a few simple tunes on the piano.
Can you **write** with your left hand?
I **cannot (can't) promise** you anything.

In this case *can* is followed by the simple infinitive (see the examples above) and reference is made to the present. But depending on the context it may also refer to the future.

e.g. We can discuss your paper after lunch.

However, if the time reference is not clear from the context or if it is necessary to stress that the action refers to the future, **shall/will be able** is used.

e.g. He **will be able to write** to us from Portugal.
I shall be able to earn my own living soon.

The form *could* may be used in past-time contexts and in this case it is followed by a simple infinitive. It is a form of the Indicative Mood here.

e.g. He **could read** a great deal during the holidays.
Could the boy **read** before he went to school?
After what had happened I **couldn't trust** him.

The form *could* may also be used in present-time contexts in combination with the simple infinitive to express unreality with reference to the present or future.

e.g. "I don't want my daughter to be a typist." "Why not? She **could be** secretary to some interesting man." (могла бы быть)
You **could articulate** more distinctly with that cigarette out of your mouth, (мог бы говорить более отчетливо)

As the form *could* may be used in two ways (see § 76) it is Usually understood as expressing unreality with reference to the present or future unless there are indications of past time in the sentence or in the context. Thus the sentence *She could paint landscapes* will be understood as *Она могла бы писать пейзажи.*

If there is no indication of past time in the context but the speaker wishes to refer the action to the past, *was/were able* is used **instead** of *could* to avoid ambiguity.

e.g. She was **able to explain** the mystery.

In combination with the perfect infinitive *could* indicates that the action was not carried out in the past.

e.g. She **could have explained** the mystery. Она могла бы объяснить эту тайну, (но не объяснила)

2) **possibility due to circumstances,**

e.g. You **can see** the forest through the other window.
We can **use** either the Present Perfect or the Present Perfect Continuous in this sentence.

In this meaning *can* is found in all kinds of sentences. It is followed by the simple infinitive and it refers the action to the present or future.

e.g. You **can obtain** a dog from the Dogs' Home at Battersea.
Can we use the indefinite article with this noun?
We **can't** use the indefinite article with this noun.

In past-time contexts the form *could* is used. It is followed by the simple infinitive in this case.

e.g. You **could** see the forest through the other window before the new block of houses was erected.

The form *could* in combination with the simple infinitive may also express unreality with reference to the present or future.

e.g. You **could** see the house from here if it were not so dark.

In combination with the perfect infinitive, *could* indicates that the action was not carried out in the past.

e.g. You **could have seen** the house from there if it had not been so dark.

Note. When *could* is used with reference to the past it denotes only the ability
or possibility of performing an action but not the realization of the action. Therefore when a realized or an unrealized action is expressed, *could* is naturally not used. If an action was carried out in the past, it is expressed with the help of *to manage* or *to succeed* (the latter is used in literary style).

e.g. He managed to settle the difficulty.
He succeeded in attaining his aim.

If an action was not realized in the past it is expressed with the help of *to fail,* or *to manage* and *to succeed* in the negative form.

e.g. He failed to reach the peak.
He did not manage to settle the difficulty.

Compare with the Russian: *Он мог (был способен) переплыть Волгу в юности. — In his youth he could swim across the Volga.*
But: *Он смог переплыть Волгу а прошлом году. — He managed to swim across the Volga last year.* Also in: *Он не мог (ему не удалось) переплыть Волгу в прошлом году. — He failed (didn't manage) to swim across the Volga last year.*
As for *to be able,* it may, depending on the lexical character of the infinitive or the context, express either the ability or possibility of performing an action or the realization of that action.

e.g. He was able to speak English well. (Он мог/умел хорошо говорить по-английски.)
He was able to get the book from the library. (Он смог достать книгу в библиотеке.)

3) permission,

e.g. You **can take** my umbrella.

Can in this meaning is found in affirmative sentences, interrogative sentences in which a request is expressed, and in negative sentences where it expresses prohibition.

Cf. You **can use** my car.
Can I **use** your car?
You **can't use** my car today.

In this meaning *can* is combined with the simple infinitive.
The form *could* with reference to the present is found only in interrogative sentences in which it expresses a more polite request.

e.g. **Could** I **use** your car?

The form *could* is found in reported speech (i.e. in accordance with the rules of the sequence of tenses).

e.g. He said that **I could use** his car.

He asked me if he **could use** my car.

4) **uncertainty, doubt,**

e.g. **Can** it **be** true?

In this meaning *can* is found only in interrogative sentences (in general questions). Besides, sentences of this kind are often emotionally coloured and so their application is rather restricted.

Depending on the time reference, *can* in this meaning is used in combination with different forms of the infinitive.

Thus, if reference is made to the present, the simple infinitive is found with stative verbs.

e.g. **Can** he really **be** ill?
Can it **be** so late?

With dynamic verbs, the continuous infinitive is used.

e.g. **Can** she **be telling** lies?
Can he **be making** the investigation all alone?

Can in combination with the perfect infinitive refers the action to the past.

e.g. **Can** he **have said** it?
Can she **have told** a lie?

The combination of *can* with the perfect infinitive may also indicate an action begun in the past and continued into the moment of speaking. This is usually found with stative verbs.

e.g. **Can** she really **have been** at home all this time?

However, if *can* is followed by a dynamic verb the Perfect Continuous infinitive is used.

e.g. **Can** she **have been waiting** for us so long?

Could with reference to the present is also used in this way, implying more uncertainty.

e.g. **Could** it **be** true?
Could she **be telling** lies?
Could he **have said** it?
Could she have been waiting for us so long?

In Russian both variants, with *can* and *could*, are rendered in the same way: *Неужели это правда?, Неужели она лжет?* and so on.

5) improbability,

e.g. It can't be true. (Это не может быть правдой. Вряд ли это так.)

In this meaning *can* is found only in negative sentences, which are often emotionally coloured. Depending on the time reference, this *can* is also used with different forms of the infinitive.

e.g. He **can't be** really ill.
She **can't be telling** lies.
He **can't have said** it.
She **can't have been** at home all this time.
She **can't have been waiting** for us so long.

Could is also used in this way making the statement less categorical.

e.g. It **couldn't be** true.
She **couldn't be telling lies.**
He couldn't have said it.
She **couldn't have been** at home all this time.
She **couldn't have been waiting** for us so long.

§ 78. *Can* and *could* followed by different forms of the infinitive, are found in special questions where they are used for emotional colouring (for instance, to express puzzlement, impatience, etc.).

e.g. What **can (could)** he **mean?**
What **can (could)** he **be doing?**
What **can (could)** he **have done?**
Where **can (could)** he **have gone to?**

It can be rendered in Russian as: *Что, собственно, он имеет в виду?*

§ 79. As is seen from the above examples, the form *could* referring to the present is sometimes clearly opposed to *can* in that it expresses unreality whereas *can* expresses reality. This may be observed in the following meanings:

ability — He can speak English.
He could speak English if necessary.

possibility due to circumstances —
You **can get** the book from the library.
You could get the book from the library if necessary.

In the other meanings, however, this difference between the two forms is obliterated. *Could* is used either as a milder or more polite form of *can* (a) or as a form implying more uncertainty than *can* (b):

a) *permission* — **Can** I **use** your pen?
Could I **use** your pen? *(more polite)*
b) *uncertainty, doubt, improbability* —
Can it **be** true?
Could it **be** true? *(less certain)*
It can't be true.
It **couldn't be** true, *(less certain)*

§ 80- In addition to the above cases illustrating the independent use of *can,* this modal verb occurs in adverbial clauses of purpose, where it is structurally dependent (for a detailed treatment of this use of *can* see "Verbs", § 143).

e.g. **I'll** leave the newspaper on the table so that he **can see it** at once.
I left the newspaper on the table so that he **could see** it at once.

§ 81. Note the following set phrases with *can:*
a) She **can't help crying.**
He couldn't help laughing.
/ *can't help doing* means *не могу удержаться от...* or *не могу не делать (чего-то).*
b) I can't but ask him about it.
They **couldn't but refuse** him.
/ *can't but do something* means *{мне) ничего другого не остается, как...* .
c) He **can't possibly do** it.
I couldn't possibly refuse him.
I can't (couldn't) possibly do means *просто не могу (не мог) сделать...* .

may

§ **82.** The modal verb *may* has the following forms: **may —** the present tense (e.g. It **may be** true) and **might —** the Past tense. The form *might* is used in two ways: a) in past-time contexts, mainly in reported speech in accordance with the rules of the sequence of tenses (e.g. *He told me that it might be true)* and b) in present-time contexts as a milder and more polite form of *may,* or as a form implying more uncertainty than *may (e.g. Might I come and see you? It might be true),* or to express unreality (e.g. *He might have fallen ill if he hadn't taken the pills).*

§ **83.** *May* has the following meanings:
1) supposition implying uncertainty,

e.g. He **may be** busy getting ready for his trip.

In Russian this meaning is generally rendered by means of the modal adverbs *возможно* and *может быть.*

In English this meaning may also be rendered by means of the attitudinal adverbs *perhaps* and *maybe.*

In the meaning of supposition implying uncertainty the verb *may* occurs in affirmative and negative sentences.

e.g. He **may be** at home.
He **may** not **be** at home. (Возможно, что его нет дома. Может быть, его нет дома.)

In this meaning *may* can be followed by different forms of the infinitive depending on the time reference expressed.

May in combination with the simple infinitive usually refers the action to the future.

e.g. He may come soon.

The action may also refer to the present but only with stative **verbs.**

e.g. He **may be** ill.
He **may not know** about it.

May in combination with the Continuous infinitive of dynamic Verbs refers the action to the present.

e.g. It's too late to phone him now. He may be sleeping.
I never see him about now. For all I know, he may be writing a book.

May in combination with the Perfect infinitive refers the action to the past.

e.g. He may have fallen ill.
"What's happened to the dog?" I said. "It isn't here. His master may have taken it with him."

The combination of *may* with the Perfect infinitive may also indicate an action begun in the past and continued into the moment of speaking. This is usually found with stative verbs.

e.g. He may have been at home for about two hours.

However, if *may* is followed by a dynamic verb, the Perfect Continuous infinitive is used.

e.g. He may have been waiting for us for an hour.

In the meaning of supposition implying uncertainty, the form *might* is also found. It differs from the form *may* in that it emphasizes the idea of uncertainty. It may be followed by the simple, Continuous or Perfect infinitive.

e.g. He might come soon.
He might be ill.
He might be doing his lessons now.
He might have spoken to her yesterday.

2) possibility due to circumstances,

e.g. You may order a taxi by telephone.
A useful rough-and-ready rule is that time adverbs may come at either end of the sentence, but not in the middle.

May in this meaning occurs only in affirmative sentences and is followed only by the simple infinitive.

The form *might* is used in past-time contexts in accordance with the rules of the sequence of tenses.

e.g. He said he might order a taxi by telephone.

Might followed by the Perfect infinitive indicates that the action was not carried out owing to certain circumstances (expressed in the sentence or implied).

e.g. He might have fallen ill if he hadn't taken the medicine.
Luckily he wasn't driving the car. He might have been hurt.
You are so careless. You might have broken the cup. (Ты чуть было не разбил чашку.)

3) permission,

e.g. The director is alone now. So you may see him now.

May in this meaning is found in affirmative sentences, in interrogative sentences which usually express a request, and in negative sentences where it denotes prohibition. But in negative sentences it is not common as prohibition is generally expressed by other modal verbs (see *can* and *must).*

e.g. You may smoke in here.
May I smoke in here?
You may not smoke in here.

In this meaning *may* is combined only with the simple infinitive. In interrogative sentences the form *might* is also found when we wish to express a more polite request.

e.g. Might I join you?

In reported speech the form *might* is used.

e.g. He told me that I might smoke in the room.
He asked me if he might join us.

4) disapproval or reproach,

e.g. You might carry the parcel for me.
You might have helped me.

Here we find only the form *might* used in affirmative sentences and followed by the simple or Perfect infinitive. In the latter case it expresses reproach for the non-performance of an action.

§ 84. The form *might* which expresses unreality is not always Parallel to *may.*

Might expresses unreality only in combination with the Perfect infinitive.

e.g. You might have let me know about it beforehand.
There was a car accident in front of our house. Luckily Tommy was at school. He might have been killed.

In most cases *might* is used as a milder and more polite form than *may* (a) or as a form implying a greater degree of uncertainty (b):

a) *permission* — May I speak to him now?
Might I speak to him now? (*very polite)*
b) *supposition* — He may come a little later.
He might come a little later, *(less certain)*

The two forms are not opposed in the meaning of possibility due to circumstances where only *may* is used, nor in the meaning of disapproval or reproach where *might* alone is found.

e.g. You may **find** the book at the library.
You might have considered your parents' feelings.

§ 85. Notice the following set phrases with *may* and *might:*

a) *May as well (might as well, might just as well) + infinitive* is a very mild and unemphatic way of expressing an intention. It is also used to suggest or recommend an action.

e.g. I may as well take the child with me. (Я, пожалуй, возьму ребенка с собой. Пожалуй, будет лучше, если я возьму ребенка с собой.)
You may as well give him the letter.
I might as well stay at home tonight,
"**I'll** go at six." "That's far too late; you might just as **well not** go at all." (Можно было бы и не ходить туда совсем.)

b) *It might have been worse* means 'Things are not so bad after all.' In Russian it is rendered as: *Могло бы быть и хуже* or *В конце концов дела обстоят не так уж плохо.*

c) *He might have been a...* means 'He might have been taken for a...', 'He looked like a... .'

e.g. Roy Wilson, the new doctor, was twenty-eight, large, heavy mature and blond. He might have been a Scandinavian sailor-

d) */f / may say so...* has become a stereotyped phrase in which the meaning of permission is considerably weakened.

e.g. If I may say so, I think you have treated him very badly.

§ 86. In addition to the above cases illustrating the independent use of *may,* this modal verb occurs in subordinate object clauses after expressions of fear as well as in adverbial clauses of purpose and concession. Here it is structurally dependent (for a detailed treatment of this use of *may* see "Verbs", §§ 135, 143, 152).

e.g. I fear he may **fall ill.**
He is coming here so that they may discuss it without delay.
However cold it may be, we'll go skiing.

can and *may* compared

§ **87.** The use of *can* and *may* is parallel only in two meanings: possibility due to circumstances and permission. In these meanings, however, they are not always interchangeable for a number of various reasons.

1) Thus in the meaning of possibility due to circumstances the use of *may* is restricted only to affirmative sentences, whereas *can*
is found in all kinds of sentences.

May	*Can*
He may **find** this book at the library.	He **can find** this book at the library.
	Can he **find** this book at the library?
	He cannot **find** this book at the library.

Their time reference is also different. *May* refers only to the Present or future; the form *might* is used in past-time contexts only in reported speech. *Can (could)* may refer to the present, Past or future.

May	*Can*
He may **find** the book at the library.	He can **find** the book at the library.

I said that he **might find** the book at the library.

He could find the book at the library yesterday.
He **can find** the book at the library tomorrow.

Both *could* and *might* combined with the Perfect infinitive indicate that the action was not carried out in the past.

e.g. He **might have found** the book at the library.
He **could have found** the book at the library.

It follows from the above that the sphere of application of *can* in this meaning is wider than that of *may*.

2) When *may* and *can* express permission the difference between them is rather that of style than of meaning — *may* is more formal than *can* which is characteristic of colloquial English.

Cf. **May (might) I speak** to you for a moment, professor?
Can (could) I have a cup of tea, Mother?

May in negative sentences expressing prohibition is uncommon.

must

§ 88. The modal verb *must* has only one form. It is used in present-time contexts with reference to the present or future and in combination with the Perfect infinitive it refers to the past. In past-time contexts this form is used only in reported speech, i.e. the rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed with *must.*

§ 89. *Must* has the following meanings:

1) **obligation** (from the speaker's point of view),

e.g. You **must talk** to your daughter about her future.
Must he **do** it himself?

In different contexts *must* may acquire additional shades of meaning, such as **duty** or **necessity.**

In this meaning must is found in affirmative and interrogative sentences and followed only by the simple infinitive.

2) prohibition,

e.g. He must not leave his room for **a** while. (Он не должен/ему нельзя выходить из комнаты некоторое время.)

This meaning is expressed in negative sentences and *must* is also followed by the simple infinitive.

Note, Absence of necessity (in Russian *не нужно, нет необходимости)* is expressed by other verbs (see *to have* and *need).*

3) emphatic advice,

e.g. You **must come and** see us when you're in London.
You **must stop** worrying about your son.
You **mustn't** give another thought to what he said.
You mustn't miss the film. It is very good.
You must have your hair cut. It's much too long.
You **mustn't cry.**

This meaning is found in affirmative and negative sentences and is closely connected with the two above mentioned meanings.

4) **supposition implying strong probability,**

e.g. He **must be** ill. He looks so pale.
It must be late as the streets are deserted.

Must in this meaning is found only in affirmative sentences.

In Russian this meaning is generally rendered by means of the attitudinal adverbs *вероятно, должно быть.*

In English this meaning may also be expressed by means of the attitudinal adverb *probably.*

In this meaning *must* may be followed by different forms of the infinitive. If reference is made to the present, the Continuous infinitive is used with dynamic verbs.

e-g. The book is not on the shelf. Jane **must be reading** it.
Let's have something to eat. You **must be starving.**

If *must* is followed by the simple infinitive of dynamic verbs, it expresses obligation.

e-g. Jane must read the book.
You **must** stay here.

However, with stative verbs the simple infinitive is used to express supposition.

e.g. **He must be** over fifty.
He **must know** all about it as he has read a lot on the subject.

Must in combination with the Perfect infinitive refers the action to the past.

e.g. Do you see him smoking over there? He **must have finished** his work.
It is six o'clock. She **must have come** home.

The combination of *must* with the Perfect Continuous infinitive indicates an action begun in the past and continued into the moment of speaking.

e.g. It must have been raining all the night. There are big puddles in the garden.

However, if *must* is followed by a stative verb, the Perfect infinitive is used.

e.g. **He must have been** here since breakfast.
He **must have known** it all along.

Note. Occasionally the combination of *must* with the Perfect Continuous infinitive may express an action going on at a given past moment.

e.g. He **must have been writing** a letter when I came.

When *must* expresses supposition implying strong probability, its use is restricted in two ways:

a) It is not used with reference to the future. In this case we find attitudinal adverbs in the sentence.

e.g. He **will probably come** tomorrow.
He **will evidently know** all about it.

b) It is not used in the interrogative or negative form. It is found only in the affirmative form.

Note. To express supposition implying strong probability with negative meaning, in addition to attitudinal adverbs, the following means are employed:

e.g. He **must have failed** to get in touch with her.
He **must have misunderstood** you.
He must be unaware of that.
He must never have guessed the truth.
No one **must have told** him about **it.**

§ 90. Note the following set phrases with *must.*

a) Must needs denotes obligation.

e.g. He **must needs** go there. (Он непременно должен пойти туда.)

b) / *must be going* and / *must be off* both mean 'it is time for me to go* (in Russian *Мне пора уходить).*

c) / *must tell you that...* and / *must say...* are stereotyped phrases in which the meaning of obligation is considerably weakened **in** *must.*

d) In the sentences: *You must come and see me some time. You must come and have dinner with me. You must come to our party. You must come and stay with us for the week end* and the like, the meaning of obligation in *must* is also weakened. *Must* has become part of such sentences which are a common way of expressing invitations.

must and *may* Compared

§ 91. *Must* and *may* can be compared in two meanings:

1) Both *may* and *must* serve to express **supposition** but their use is not parallel. *May* denotes supposition implying uncertainty whereas the supposition expressed by *must* implies strong probability.

Cf. For all I know, he **may be** an actor. His face seems so familiar.
He must **be** an actor. His voice carries so well.
I saw him an hour ago. He **may** still **be** in his office now.
He always comes at 10 sharp. So he **must be** in his office now.

2) *May* and *must* are used to express **prohibition** in negative sentences. But *may* is seldom found in this meaning. In negative answers to questions with *may* asking for permission we generally find *must not* or *cannot.*

e.g. "May I smoke here?" "No, you **mustn't** (you **can't).**"

to have to

§ 92. *To have to* as a modal verb is not a defective verb and can have all the necessary finite forms as well as the verbals.

e.g. He is an invalid and **has to have** a nurse.
She knew what she **had to do.**
I shall have to reconsider my position.
He is always **having to exercise** judgement.
My impression was that he **was having to force** himself to talk.
I have had to remind you of writing to her all this time.
The women at Barford **had had to be told** that an experiment was taking place that day.
"As a matter of fact," he said, **"I've been having to spend** some time with the research people."
It wouldn't have been very nice for the Davidsons **to have** to **mix** with all those people in the smoking-room.
Having to work alone, he wanted all his time for his research.

The interrogative and negative forms of the modal verb *to have to* are built up by means of the auxiliary verb *to do.*[1]

e.g. Why **do** I **have to do** everything?
Did he **have to tell** them about it?
"That's all right," she said. "I just thought I'd ask. You **don't have to explain."**
There was a grin on his face. He **did not have to tell** me that he already knew.

§ 93. The verb *to have to* serves to express **obligation** or **necessity** imposed by circumstances. It is rendered in Russian as *приходится, вынужден.*

In this meaning it is found in all kinds of sentences — affirmative, interrogative and negative — and is combined only with the simple infinitive.

e.g. **He had to do** it.
Did he **have to do** it?
He **did not have to do it.**

In negative sentences *to have to* denotes absence of necessity (compare with the negative form of *must* which expresses prohibition).

[1] The interrogative and negative forms of the modal verb *to have to* built up without the auxiliary *do* are uncommon in American English and infrequent in British English-

e.g. You **don't have to go** there. (Вам не нужно/нет необходимости идти туда.)
You **mustn't** go there. (Вам нельзя идти туда.)

§ 94. In spoken English the meaning of obligation and necessity is also expressed by *have (has) got to.* Like the verb *to have to,* it is found in all kinds of sentences and is combined with the simple infinitive.

e.g. He **has got to go** right now.
Has he **got to** go right now?
He **hasn't** got **to go** just yet.

This combination may also be found in the past tense, though it is not very common.

e.g. He **had got** to sell his car.

§ 95. Note the set phrase *had better.*

e.g. A few drops began to fall. **"We'd better take** shelter," she said. (Нам лучше укрыться.)
She didn't like to say that she thought they **had better not** play cards when the guest might come in at any moment.

Had better is followed by the infinitive without *to.*

to be to

§ 96. *To be to* as a modal verb is used in the present and past tenses.

e.g. We **are to meet** at six.
We **were to meet** at six.

§ 97. *To be to* as a modal verb has the following meanings:
1) a previously arranged plan or obligation resulting from the arrangement,

e-g. We **are** to discuss it next time.
We were to discuss it the following week.
Is he to arrive tomorrow?
Who was **to** speak at the meeting?

This meaning of *to be to* is found in affirmative and interrogative sentences in the present and past tenses. *To be to* is followed by the simple infinitive.

The past tense of the verb *to be to* in combination with the Perfect infinitive denotes an unfulfilled plan.

e.g. I promised to go to a club with her last Tuesday, and I really forgot all about it. We were to have played a duet together.

2) orders and instructions, often official (frequently in reported speech),

e.g. I just mention it because you said I was to give you all the details I could.
Norman says I am to leave you alone.
All junior officers are to report to the colonel at once.

In this meaning *to be to* is found in affirmative and negative sentences and followed by the simple infinitive.

3) something that is destined to happen,

e.g. He was to be my teacher and friend for many years to come.
He did not know at the time that he was never to see his native place again.
It's been a great blow to me that you haven't been able to follow me in my business as I followed my father. Three generations, that would have been. But it wasn't to be.

This meaning of *to be to* is rendered in Russian as *суждено*. It is mainly found in the past tense and its application is limited to narration. It occurs in affirmative and negative sentences and is followed by the simple infinitive.

4) possibility,

e.g. Her father was often to be seen in the bar of the Hotel Metropole.
Where is he to be found?
Nothing was to be done under the circumstances.

In this meaning *to be to* is equivalent to *can* or *may*. It is used
in all kinds of sentences in the present and past tenses and is fol' lowed by the passive infinitive.

§ 98. Note the following set phrases with the modal verb *to be to:*
What am I to do? (Что мне делать? Как мне быть?)
What is to become of me? (Что со мной станется? Что со мной будет?)
Where am I to go? (Куда же мне идти? Куда же мне деваться?)

§ 99. *To be to* in the form of *were to + infinitive* for all persons is found in conditional clauses where it is structurally dependent (for a detailed treatment of this use of the verb *to be to* see "Verbs", § 149).

e.g. If he were to come again I should not receive him.

musty to have to **and** to *be to* **Compared**

§ **100.** The verbs *must, to have to* and *to be to* have one meaning in common, that of obligation. In the present tense the verbs come very close to each other in their use, though they preserve their specific shades of meaning. Thus *must* indicates obligation or necessity from the speaker's viewpoint, i.e. it expresses obligation imposed by the speaker.

e.g. I must do it. (/ *want to do it.)*
He must do it himself. (7 *shan't help him.)*

To have to expresses obligation or necessity imposed by circumstances.

e.g. What a pity you have to go now. *(It's time for you to catch your train.)*
He has to do it himself. *(He has got no one to help him.)*

To be to expresses obligation or necessity resulting from an arrangement.

e-g. We are to wait for them at the entrance. *(We have arranged to meet there, so we must wait for them at the appointed place.)*

Sometimes the idea of obligation is absent and *to be to* expresses only a previously arranged plan.

e-g. We are to go to the cinema tonight.

Note. In public notices we find must because they express obligation imposed by some authorities.

e.g. Passengers **must** cross the railway line by the foot bridge.

The same is true of prohibition expressed in negative sentences,

e.g. Passengers **must not walk** across the railway line.

Visitors **must not feed** the animals.

In the past tense, however, the difference in the use of the three verbs is quite considerable.

Must has no past tense. It is used in past-time contexts only in reported speech.

e.g. He said he **must do** it himself.

Had to + infinitive is generally used to denote an action which was realized in the past as a result of obligation or necessity imposed by circumstances,

e.g. **I had to sell** my car. *(It was necessary for me to do it because I needed money.)*

He **had to put on** his raincoat. *(It was raining hard out side and he would have got wet if he hadn't.)*

Was (were) to + infinitive is used to denote an action planned for the future which is viewed from the past. The action was not realized in the past and the question remains open as to whether it is going to take place.

e.g. We **were to** meet him at the station. *(It is not clear from the sentence if the action will take place.)*

If the speaker wishes to make it clear at once that the plan was not fulfilled, the perfect infinitive is used to show that,

e.g. We were **to have** met him at the station. *(That means that we failed to meet him.)*

However, the simple infinitive may also be used in this case.

§ **101.** In reported speech (in past-time contexts) *must* remains

unchanged in all of its meanings.

e.g. He said he **must do** it without delay.
He said I **mustn't tell** anyone about it.
The doctor told her that she **must eat.**
They believed the story **must be** true.

Parallel to *must, had to + infinitive* is also used occasionally reported speech to express obligation.

. He said he **had to make** a telephone call at once.

In this case *had to* is close to *must* in meaning: it does not include the idea of a realized action but refers to some future moment.

Note. Care should be taken not to replace *must* by *had to* in reported speech as two verbs express different meanings (see above).

ought to

§ **102.** The modal verb **ought to** has only one form which is used with reference to the present or future. In reported speech it re-
ins unchanged. *Ought* is always followed by the infinitive with *to.*

§ **103.** *Ought to* has the following meanings:
1) **obligation,** which in different contexts may acquire additinal shades of meaning, such as **advisability** and **desirability,**

;. You **ought to** say a word or two about yourself.
Ought she **to warn** him?
He **oughtn't to mention** it to anybody.

In this meaning *ought to* is possible in all kinds of sentences, though it is felt to be awkward in questions where *should* **is** preferred.

Generally *ought to* refers an action to the future and is followed by the simple infinitive. With reference to the present *ought to* is used with the continuous infinitive or with the simple infinitive if the verb is stative.

e.g. At your age you **ought to be earning** your living.
You **ought to feel** some respect for your elders.

In combination with the perfect infinitive *ought to* in the affirmative form shows that a desirable action was not fulfilled.

e-g. You **ought to have chosen** a more suitable time to tell me this news.

He ought to have put everything off.

In the negative form *ought to* in combination with the Perfect infinitive shows that an undesirable action was fulfilled.

e.g. I'm sorry. I oughtn't to have said it.

You oughtn't to have married her, David. It was a great mistake.

2) supposition implying strong probability,

e.g. The new sanatorium ought to be very comfortable.

The use of *ought to* in this case is not very common as this meaning is normally rendered by *must.*

Note the set phrases *He/you ought to know it* (=he is/you are supposed to know it). *You ought to be ashamed of yourself.*

shall and *should*

§ 104. Historically, *shall* and *should* were two forms of the same verb expressing obligation. [1] But later they came to express different meanings and in present-day English their use is not parallel — they are treated as two different verbs.

shall

§ 105. In modern English the modal meaning of obligation in shall is always combined with the function of an auxiliary verb of the future tense.

Shall is still used to express obligation with the second and third persons, but at present it is not common in this meaning in spoken English. Its use, as a rule, is restricted to formal or even archaic style and is mainly found in subordinate clauses, i.e. it is structurally dependent,

e.g. It has been decided that the proposal shall not be opposed.

This book is sold subject to the condition that it shall not, by way of trade, he lent, resold, hired out or otherwise disposed of without the publisher's consent.

[1] *Shall* was the present tense of the Indicative Mood; *should* was the Subjunctive Mood.

At present, however, this meaning of obligation, somewhat modified, is found with the second and third persons in sentences expressing promise, threat or warning. It is used in affirmative and negative sentences and combined with the simple infinitive.

e.g. You shall have my answer tomorrow.

"You shall stay just where you are!" his mother cried angrily.

He shall do as I say.

The meaning of obligation may also be traced in interrogative sentences where *shall* is used with the first and third persons to ask after the will of the person addressed. In this case it is also followed by the simple infinitive.

e.g. Shall I get you some fresh coffee, Miss Fleur?

Who shall answer the telephone, Major?

Sentences of this kind are usually rendered in Russian with the help of the infinitive: *Принести вам еще кофе? Кому отвечать по телефону?* etc.

should

§ 106. In modern English the modal verb should is used with reference to the present or future. It remains unchanged in reported speech.

§ 107. *Should* has the following meanings:

1) obligation, which in different contexts may acquire additional shades of meaning, such as advisability and desirability,

e.g. It's late. You should go to bed.

You shouldn't miss the opportunity.

Should I talk to him about it?

Should in this meaning is found in all kinds of sentences. Like o*ught to,* it generally refers an action to the future and is followed by the simple infinitive.

With reference to the present *should* is used with the Continuous infinitive or with the simple infinitive if the verb is stative.

e-g- You shouldn't be sitting in the sun. Move out of it into the hade.

You shouldn't feel so unhappy over such trifles.

Should may be combined with the Perfect infinitive. In this case the meaning of the combination depends on whether the sentence is affirmative or negative. In an affirmative sentence *should + Perfect infinitive* indicates that a desirable action was not carried out.

e.g. He looks very ill. He **should have** stayed at home.
He **should have told** me about it himself.

In a negative sentence *should + Perfect infinitive* serves to show that an undesirable action was carried out.

e.g. Oh, Renny, you **shouldn't have done** as you did!
They **shouldn't have concealed** it from us.

2) **supposition** implying strong **probability,**

e.g. The film **should be** very good as it is starring first-class actors.

The use of *should* in this case does not seem to be very common as this meaning is usually rendered by *must.*

§ **108.** In addition to the above mentioned cases showing the independent use of *should,* this verb occurs in certain object clauses where it depends on the lexical character of the predicate verb in the principal clause and in adverbial clauses of condition, purpose and concession. Here its use is structurally dependent (for a detailed treatment of this use of the verb see "Verbs", §§129, 131, 138, 140, 143, 149).

e.g, 1 suggest that you **should stay** here as if nothing had happened.
"It's important," I broke out, "that the Barford people **should know** what we've just heard."
She was terrified lest they **should** go **on** talking about her.
Suddenly she began to cry, burying her. head under the book so that I **shouldn't see.**
If he **should drop** in, give him my message.

§ **109.** *Should* may have a peculiar function — it may be used for emotional colouring. In this function it may be called the **emotional *should.*** The use of the emotional *should* is structurally dependent. It is found in the following cases:

1) In special emphatic constructions, where a simple predicate **is** not used:

a) in **rhetorical questions** beginning with *why,*

e.g. Why **should I do** it? (С какой стати я буду делать это?)
Why **shouldn't** you **invite** him? (Почему бы вам его не пригласить?)

b) in **object clauses** beginning with *why,*
e.g. I don't know why he **should want** to see George. (Я не знаю, зачем ему нужен Джордж.)
I don't see why we **shouldn't make** friends,

c) in **attributive clauses** beginning with *why* after the noun *reason,*
e.g. There is no reason why they **shouldn't get on** very well together. (Нет причины, почему бы им не ладить друг с другом.)
I don't see any reason why he shouldn't be happy,

d) in **constructions of the following kind,**
e.g. The door opened and who **should come in** but Tom. (Дверь открылась, и кто бы вы думали вошел? Не кто иной, как Том.)
As I was crossing the street, whom **should I meet** but Aunt Ann.

e) in **the set phrase** *How should I know?* (Почем я знаю?).
In the above cases *should* may be followed by the Perfect infinitive which in simple sentences refers the action to the past (a) and in complex sentences shows that the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the principal clause (b).
e-g. a) I went into business with her as her partner. Why **shouldn't I have done** it? (Почему бы мне было не сделать этого?)
b) He did not know why he **should have expected** them to look different. (Он не знал, почему он ожидал увидеть их другими.)
There were fifteen equally good reasons why she **should not have played** bridge.

2) In certain types of subordinate clauses where *should* + ***infinitive*** is interchangeable with a simple predicate in the Indicative Mood (for the use of the Indicative Mood in these clauses see "Verbs", § **130):**

a) in **object clauses** after expressions of regret, surprise, sometimes pleasure or displeasure,

e.g. I'm sorry that you **should think** so badly of me. (Мне жаль, что вы так плохо обо мне думаете.)

He was little surprised that **Ann should speak** so frankly about it.

I am content that you **should think** so.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed here. The Perfect infinitive is used to show that the action of the subordi nate clause precedes that of the principal clause,

e.g. I am sorry that you **should have had** a row with Kate about it.

He was annoyed that they **should have asked** him that,

b) in **object clauses** following the principal clause with *it* as a formal subject,

e.g. It is absurd that such things **should happen** to a family like theirs. (Нелепо, чтобы такие вещи случались в такой семье, как их.)

It was strange that he **should be** asking those questions.

It struck him as exceedingly funny that his brother should **be** in love.

In the principal clause we find such expressions as *it is wonderful (absurd, monstrous, natural, odd, queer, singular, strange, terrible* and the like), *it infuriated (outraged, puzzled, startled, surprised* and the like) *me, it struck me as funny,* etc. We also find the following interrogative and negative expressions in the principal clause: *is it possible {likely, probable)?, it is not possible (likely, probable), it is impossible (improbable, unlikely).* '

As we see from the above examples, the rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed here either.

If the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the principal clause, the Perfect infinitive is used after *should.*

[1] After the affirmative *it is possible (likely, probable)* a simple predicate is used"

e.g. It is inconceivable that Mrs Crosbie **should have written** such a letter.

It's much better that you **should have found** everything out before it's too late.

It infuriated her that he **should have spoken** to her in such a tone.

Note. Should + infinitive may be occasionally found instead of a simple predicate in some other kinds of subordinate clauses, but it is not in common use:

a) in predicative clauses,

e.g. The part that interests me is that such a thing **should happen** to such people.

b) in appositive clauses,

e.g. The fact that he **should have** made such a brilliant speech surprised me greatly.

c) **in constructions of the following kind,**

e.g. That it **should come** to this! (И до чего дошло дело!)

To think that it **should come** to this! (Только подумать, до чего дошло дело!)

To think that it **should have happened** to me! (Только подумать, что это произошло со мной!)

To sum it up, it should be said that as compared to the use of a simple predicate in the Indicative Mood, the use of *should + infinitive* gives the statement emotional colouring such as surprise, amazement, irritation, indignation, pleasure, displeasure, etc., i.e. it emphasizes the speaker's personal attitude towards the facts stated in the sentence. The Indicative Mood represents these facts in a more matter-of-fact way.

must, should and *ought to* Compared

§110. All the three verbs serve to express obligation. *Must,* however, sounds more forceful, peremptory.

e-g. You **must do** it at once. (Вы должны (обязаны) сделать это немедленно.)

Both *should* and *ought to* express obligation, advisability, desirability and are used when *must* would sound too peremptory.

e-g- You **should do** it at once. (Вам следует (нужно) сделать

You **ought to do** it at once. это немедленно.)

Should and *ought to* are very much alike in meaning and are often interchangeable. In using *ought to,* however, we lay more stress on the meaning of moral obligation, whereas *should* is common in instructions and corrections.

e.g. You ought to help him; he is in trouble.
You should use the definite article in this sentence.

Notice that *ought to* cannot be used instead of the emotional *should.*

§111. *Must, ought to* and *should* serve to express supposition implying strong probability. *Must,* however, seems to be in more frequent use than the other two verbs.

should + Perfect Infinitive, *ought to* + Perfect Infinitive and *was/were* to + Perfect Infinitive Compared

§ 112. *Should + Perfect infinitive* and *ought to + Perfect infinitive* show that the action has not been carried out though it was desirable; *was/were to + Perfect infinitive* indicates an action that has not been carried out though it was planned.

e.g. You **should have helped** him.
You **ought to have warn him** *(Now he is in trouble.)*
He was to have arrived last week. *{But his plans were upset by some cause or other.)*

will and *would*

§113. The verb *will*[1] has the following forms: will — the present tense and would — the past tense. The latter form is used in two ways: a) in past-time contexts to express an actual fact and b) in present-time contexts to express unreality or as a milder and more polite form of *Will.*

[1] *Will* and *would* may also be used as verbs of full predication (not modal verb-) *Will* may be used as a regular verb *{wills, willed).* It means *проявлять волю, велеть* ***заставлять,*** *внушать.* ***Would*** is a defective verb. It is used with reference to the present and means 'желать'. It is found mainly in poetry and like the verb *to wish* followed by an object clause (see "Verbs", § 132), e.g. / *would I were a careless child*

While *shall* and *should* are treated as two different verbs in modern English, *will* and *would* are considered to be the forms of the same verb, its original meaning being that of volition.[J] However, in some of their meanings the use of *will* is parallel only to *would* which denotes an actual fact in the past; in other meanings *will* is found alongside *would* which expresses unreality in the present or serves as a milder or more polite form of *will.*

§ 114. The use of *will* and *would* which denotes an actual fact in the past is parallel in the following cases:

1) When they express habitual or recurrent actions,

e.g. She will (would) sit for hours under the old oak tree looking at the beautiful country around her (...любит [любила] сидеть, обычно сидит [сидела]...).

In addition to indicating a habitual action, *will (would)* in this case implies willingness, personal interest on the part of the doer of the action. *Will (would)* in this meaning is found in affirmative sentences and is followed by the simple infinitive.

In present-time contexts *will* in this meaning is not common. In past-time contexts *would* is mainly characteristic of literary style.

e.g. Then there were weekends when he would ride over to the house of one farmer or another and spend a couple of nights on the hills.

2) When they express refusal to perform an action,

e.g. The doctor knows I won't be operated on.
He was wet through, but he wouldn't change.

This meaning is found in negative sentences; *will (would)* is followed by the simple infinitive. In Russian it is usually rendered as *никак не хочу, ни за что не хотел.*

3) When they are used with lifeless things to show that a thing fails to perform its immediate function.

e.g. My fountain pen won't (wouldn't) write.
The door won't (wouldn't) open.

' Volition is a general term which includes such meanings *as* willingness, readiness, consent, intention and determination to perform an action.

In this meaning *will (would)* is found in negative sentences and is followed by the simple infinitive. In Russian it is usually rendered as *никак не пишет {не писала), никак не открывает ся (не открывалась)* and the like.

4) When they are used with the first person to express **will, intention** or **determination,**

e.g. "Damn it!" he thought, "I'm going to get out of this hole. I **will** make money."
I am an Englishman, and **I will suffer** no priest to interfere in my business.
I said I **would do** anything for him.
We decided that we **wouldn't interfere.**

This meaning is found in affirmative and negative sentences. The present tense *will,* in addition to expressing its modal meaning, serves to refer an action to the future; the past tense *would* is generally used in reported speech and also serves to refer an action to the future but in this case it is viewed from a past moment.

§ **115.** The use of *will* and *would* which expresses unreality in the present or serves as a milder or more polite form of *will* is parallel in the following cases:

1) in interrogative sentences where they express **willingness, consent,**

e.g. **Will** you **dine** with me tomorrow, Lewis?
"Won't you **sit** down?" said the doctor.
You'll forgive me, **won't** you?
"Would you **do** it?" she asked eagerly.

2) in clauses of condition introduced by *if* (see also "Verbs". § 149) where they also express willingness, **consent,**

e.g. "It's about forty minutes' walk from here and if you'll come now I'll go with you," she said.
No, we are not going to quarrel at all if you'll only **let** me talk.
If you **would stand** by me I should have another try.

In both cases ***will*** *(would)* is followed by the simple infinitive and the action always refers to the future.

Both interrogative and conditional sentences are often actually polite requests in this case. There is hardly any difference between the use of *will* and *would* here; the role of *would* is to make the request still more polite.

§ **116.** The use of *will* and *would* is not parallel in the following cases:

1) *Will* may be used to express **supposition** with reference to the present or to the future in combination with the simple infinitive, or to the past in combination with the Perfect infinitive. This meaning is found with the second and third persons.

e.g. This **will be** the school, I believe. (Это, по-видимому, и есть школа.)
You **will have heard** the news, I'm sure. (*Я* полагаю, что вы уже слышали новость.)

It should be noted that the use of *will* **in** this meaning is not common.

2) *Would* may be used rather sarcastically to express that **something was to be expected.** It is found in affirmative and negative sentences.

e.g. "Auntie Meg has been very brave." "Yes. She **would be** brave." *(That was to be expected of her under the circumstances.)*
"I don't understand him and I don't approve of his decision."
"No, you **wouldn't."** (*/ did not expect you would.)*

This meaning can be rendered in Russian as *Этого и следовало ожидать.*

3) Note the use of *will* in the following sentences:

e.g. Boys **will be** boys. (Мальчишки остаются мальчишками.)
Accidents **will happen.** (Без несчастных случаев дело не обходится.)

4) Note the set phrases with *will* and *would:*

a) *Will not have (won't have)* followed by an object and an infinitive without *to* means 'I'll see to it that it does not happen.'

e-g. "I **will not** (won't) **have** you **speak** to me like that, her voice came sharply. (*Я* не допущу, чтобы...)

b) Both *would rather* ('d *rather)* and *would sooner ('d sooner)* followed by an infinitive without *to* mean 'to prefer'.

e.g. **"I'd rather do** it myself," said Luke.
He'd sooner die than let me think he was a failure.

e) *Would... mind* in interrogative and negative sentences means 'to object'.

e.g. **Would** you **mind** my staying here for a while?
I **wouldn't mind** your telling them about Hardy.

Would...mind in interrogative sentences may also express a polite request.

e.g. **Would** you **mind** getting me a cup of tea?

§ **117.** *Would* also occurs in certain subordinate clauses where it is structurally dependent (for a detailed treatment of this case see "Verbs", § 132).

e.g. I wish the rain **would stop** for a moment.
I wish they **wouldn't insist** on it.

need

§ **118.** The modal verb **need** may be used either as a defective or as a regular verb.

1) *Need* as a defective verb has only one form which is the present tense. In reported speech it remains unchanged. It is followed by the infinitive without *to.*

Need expresses **necessity.** When reference is made to the present or future it is followed by the simple infinitive. It is used in negative and interrogative sentences.[1]

In interrogative sentences *need* usually implies that there is no necessity of performing the action.

e.g. You **needn't be** afraid of me. (Вам не нужно/незачем бояться меня.)
You **need not meet** him unless you'd like to.
Need I repeat it? (Нужно ли/К чему мне повторять это?)

[1] Occasionally it may be found in affirmative sentences but it is not typical.

In negative sentences it is not always the verb *need* that is in the negative form; the negation may be found elsewhere in the sentence.

e.g. I *don't think* we **need give** her any more of our attention.
I **need** *hardly* **say** that I agree with you.

In combination with the Perfect infinitive *need* expresses an action which has been performed though it was unnecessary. It implies a waste of time or effort.

e.g- You **needn't have come.** The deal is off. (Вам незачем (не к чему) было приходить. Вы зря пришли.)
It was obvious. You **needn't have protested.**
We needn't have told him a lie even if we didn't want to tell him the truth. (Нам незачем (не к чему) было лгать ему... Мы зря солгали ему...)

Note. Note that the Russian sentence *Вам не следует/не надо беспокоиться (волноваться)* is rendered in English as *You needn't worry (be nervous).*

2) As a regular verb *need* can have all the necessary forms, including the verbals. It also expresses **necessity. It** is followed by the infinitive with *to* and is mainly used in interrogative and negative sentences (like the defective *need).*

e.g. He did not need to explain.
You **don't need to tell** me that you are sorry.
Did you **need to read** all those books?

It should be noted that this *need* is in more common use than the defective *need,* particularly in American English.

Note. The regular verb *need* may be followed by a noun or pronoun. But in this case *to need* is not a modal verb.

e-g. He needs a new coat.
Does he need my help?
He does not need anything.

dare

§ **119.** The modal verb **dare** may also be used as a regular and as a defective verb.

1) *Dare* as a defective verb has two forms which are the present and the past forms. It means 'to have the courage or impertinence to do something.' Its use is very restricted. In present-day English it is mainly found in questions beginning with *how,* which are actually exclamations, and in negative sentences.

e.g. How **dare** you **say** that!
How **dare** she **come** here!
How many years is it since we danced together? **I daren't think.**
He dared not look at her.

2) *Dare* as a regular verb has all the necessary forms including the verbals. It has the same meaning as the defective *dare.* Its use is also restricted. It is mainly found in negative sentences.

e.g. **He does not dare to come** here again.
She told me she **had** never **dared to ask** him about it.
No one **dared to live** in the house since.

3) Note the colloquial set phrase / *dare say.*

e.g. **I dare** say **I** looked a little confused.
My son is not in town, but **I dare** say he will be before long.

In Russian this phrase is usually rendered as *очень возможно, пожалуй, полагаю, осмелюсь сказать.*

***shouldn't* + Perfect Infinitive, *oughtn't to* + Perfect Infinitive and *needn't* + Perfect infinitive Compared**

§ **120.** *Shouldn't + Perfect infinitive* and *oughtn't to + Perfect infinitive* show that an action has been carried out though it was undesirable; *needn't + Perfect infinitive* indicates that an action has been carried out though it was unnecessary.

e.g. You **shouldn't have come** *(because you are ill).*
You **oughtn't to have written** to them *(because your letter upset them).*
You **needn't have** come *(because the work is finished).*
You **needn't have written** to them *(because I sent them a telegram).*

Expressions of Absence of Necessity

§ 121. The main verbs expressing necessity are: *must, to have to, to be to, should* and *ought to.*

Yet care should be taken to remember that the verbs *must, to be to, should* and *ought to* in their negative forms do not express absence of necessity (see the use of these verbs above).

Absence of necessity is expressed by the negative forms of **to have to** and **need.**

In the present tense:

e.g. You **don't have to go** there.
You **needn't go** there.

The two verbs generally differ in that *needn't + infinitive* indicates that the speaker gives authority for the non-performance of some action, whereas *don't (doesn't) have + infinitive* is used when absence of necessity is based on external circumstances.

Cf. You **needn't** come here. *(I'll manage everything without your help.)*
You **don't have to come** to the Institute tomorrow. *(There will be no lectures tomorrow.)*

In the past tense (where the regular form of the verb *need* is found) the two verbs are similar in meaning. They both indicate that there was no necessity, and hence no action. But *to need* is not in common use.

e.g. You **did not have** to go there.
You **did not need** to go there.

Note. Care should be taken not to use *You needn't have gone there* as an expression of absence of necessity because it means that an action was carried out though it was unnecessary.

FORMS EXPRESSING UNREALITY

§ **122-** As has been said above, owing to certain historical changes. we find a variety of forms expressing unreality in present-day English (see also "Verbs", § 73).

These forms are:

1) the plain stem of the verb for all persons (a survival of the old Subjunctive Mood),

e.g. Ivory insisted that he be present, in the most friendly fashion imaginable.
They proposed that he **borrow** the money from the bank.

2) were for all persons (also a survival of the old Subjunctive Mood),

e.g. I wish I **were** ten years younger.

3) the form of the Past Indefinite,

e.g. He looked as if he knew about it.

4) the form of the Past Perfect,

e.g. He looked as if he **had** seen a ghost.

5) **should** (for the first person, singular and plural) or would (for the other persons) + *infinitive,*

e.g. If I had a garden **I should grow** tulips in it.
If he had a garden he **would grow** tulips in it.

6) **should** (for the first person, singular and plural) or would (for the other persons) + *Perfect infinitive,*

e.g. If it hadn't rained I **should have gone** for a walk.
If it hadn't rained he **would have gone** for a walk.

7) **should** (for all persons) + *infinitive,*

e.g. I insist that he **should meet** us at the station.

8) **would** (for all persons) + *infinitive,*

e.g. I wish he **wouldn't interrupt** me.

9) may (might) + *infinitive,*

e.g. I'm telling you this so that you may write to your parents about it.
I told you **that** so that you **might** write to your parents about it.

10) can (could) + *infinitive,*

e.g. I'm telling you this so that you **can write** to your parents about it.
I told you that so that you **could write** to your parents about it.

11) were to (for all persons) 4- *infinitive,*

e.g. If he were **to** discover the truth he would never speak to us again.

§ **123.** All these forms denoting unreality may be subdivided into two groups according to their meaning.

Some of them are used to represent an action as **hypothetical,** i.e. the speaker does not know whether the action will take place or not, the realization of the action is doubtful, questionable.

e.g. Most of them insisted that the proposal be discussed without delay.
They suggested that Meg **should** stay with them for another week.

Other forms express actions **contradicting reality,** i.e. actions which cannot be realized.

e.g, I wish I **had** seen the procession.
If I were a writer I **should write** detective stories.

§ **124.** The forms described above can be classified in the following way:

1) Of all the forms expressing unreality only one may be found in the same syntactic structures as the Indicative Mood. The choice between the two forms is based on meaning (see also "Verbs", §§154-159).

This form is built up analytically, by means of the auxiliary verbs **should/would** + **infinitive.** Although *should* is generally used for the first person, singular and plural, and *would* for the other Persons, there is a strong tendency in present-day English to use *Would* for all persons. This fluctuation in the use of *should* and *Would* disappears in spoken English where the contracted form 'd + *infinitive* is used.

The form has two tenses: the present tense *should/would + infinitive* which is used with reference to the present or future (a), and the past tense *should/would + Perfect infinitive* which refers the action to the past (b).

e.g. a) I should be glad to see him *(if I had a chance).*
b) I should have been glad to see him *(if I had had a chance).*

The use of *should be glad* in (a) is opposed to the Indicative Mood in / *am glad to see him* or / *shall be glad to see him.* The use of *should have been glad* in (b) is opposed to the Indicative Mood in / *was glad to see him.*

Similarly, *He would go there with pleasure* (if it were possible) is opposed to *He will go there with pleasure; He would have gone there with pleasure* to *He went there with pleasure.*

This form may be called the Conditional Mood. It represents an action as contradicting reality. The action is unreal because it depends on an unreal condition; as the condition cannot be realized, the action that depends on it cannot be fulfilled either.

In accordance with its meaning the Conditional Mood is often used in the principal clause of a complex sentence of unreal condition.

e.g. If he were not ill he would come.
If he had not been ill he would have come.

2) The only forms of the old Subjunctive Mood that have survived in English are:

a) The form of the plain verb stem for all persons. It represents an action as hypothetical. It is used only in certain types of subordinate clauses (see "Verbs", §§ 129, 131, 140).

e.g. He proposed that the plan be adopted.
It is necessary that you say it in his presence.

This form has no tense distinctions. In its use it is interchangeable with *should + infinitive* in definite types of subordinate clauses and is mostly found in American English.

Traditionally this form is called the Subjunctive Mood.

b) The form *were* for all persons. It serves to show that an action contradicts reality and is also used in certain types of subordinate clauses (but not in the same types as the form of the plain verb stem) (see "Verbs", §§ 132, 133, 136, 144, 146).

e.g- If I were you I should not accept his offer.
I wish he were here.

The form *were* refers the action to the present or to the future. In some syntactic structures it is now often replaced by *was.*

3) As the formal difference between the Indicative Mood and the Subjunctive Mood has in many cases disappeared, the forms of the Past Indefinite (a) and the Past Perfect (b) came to express unreality in English.

a) The form of the Past Indefinite is used to express an action contradicting reality with reference to the present or future. This use of the Past Indefinite is found in certain types of subordinate clauses (see "Verbs", §§ 132, 133, 136, 144, 146).

e.g. If I knew it, I should tell you about it.
I wish I knew it.

Thus the Past Indefinite performs two different functions in English: its main function is to represent an action as a fact referring to the past; but it may also represent an action as contradicting reality with reference to the present or future.

Further in describing the use of the forms of unreality the form *were* will be included among the forms of the Past Indefinite, because they are used in the same constructions and with the same meaning. It should be mentioned that *were* with the first and third persons singular is often replaced by *was* in present-day English.

b) Parallel to the use of the form of the Past Indefinite, the form of the Past Perfect came to represent actions contradicting reality in the past. The Past Perfect is used in the same types of subordinate clauses as the Past Indefinite when it expresses unreality.

e.g. If I had known it, I should have told you about it.
I wish I had known it.

Thus actions contradicting reality are expressed in present-day English by means of tense shift. The Past Indefinite is used to express unreality in the present, the Past Perfect has the same function in the past.

4) Other means of expressing unreality in present-day English are combinations of modal verbs with an infinitive. They are Mainly found in definite types of subordinate clauses (see "Verbs", §§129, 131, 132, 135, 138, 140, 143, 149).

e.g. He suggested that we **should join** them.
If he **were to get** the job he would go on with his studies.

It should be noted that the modal phrase *should* (for all persons) + *infinitive* is used in the same sentence patterns as the Subjunctive Mood. The two forms exist side by side.

e.g. I suggest that he ***go*** **(should** go) with us.
It is necessary that he **go (should** go) with us.

In British English the difference between the two forms is stylistic: *should* + *infinitive* is in common use and may be found in any style, whereas the use of the Subjunctive Mood is restricted to the language of official documents and to high prose. In American English the Subjunctive Mood is generally preferred.

§ 125. To sum up all the forms described above, it is possible to say that unreality is expressed in present-day English by the following means:

a) by mood forms;
b) by the tense shift;
c) by modal phrases.

§ **126.** All these means of expressing unreality may have the continuous (a) and passive (b) forms if the lexical meaning of the verb admits of that and when it is required by the situation.

e.g. a) If he **were not reading** now we'd turn on the radio.
If he were in Moscow they **would be showing** him the city.
He looked at me as if he were **wondering** what they had on their minds.
b) They proposed that the meeting **be adjourned (should be adjourned).**
If he had been sent for at once he might have saved us **a** lot of trouble.
He wished he **had been told** about it.

§ **127.** Before describing the use of the various forms of unreality it is necessary to understand the factors which determine their choice.

1) Sometimes the choice between the Indicative Mood and this or that particular form of unreality depends on the structure of the sentence, mainly on the type of the subordinate clause in which this form occurs, and in certain cases even on the lexical character of the predicate verb in the principal clause. This may be termed as **the structurally dependent** use of **forms** expressing unreality.

2) In other cases the choice is independent of the structure of the sentence and is determined by the attitude of the speaker towards the actions expressed in the sentence. This may be termed as the **independent** (or free) use of forms expressing **unreality.**

3) **In** a limited number of cases the use of forms expressing unreality has become a matter of tradition and is to be treated as set phrases, as other sentences cannot be built up on their patterns. This may be termed as **the traditional** use of **forms** expressing unreality.

The following will be a description of forms expressing unreality in accordance with this division.

Structurally Dependent Use of Forms Expressing Unreality

The Use **of** Forms Expressing Unreality **in** Object Clauses

§ 128. In object clauses the use of different forms of the predicate depends on the lexical character of the predicate verb in the principal clause.

As a rule, we find the Indicative Mood in object clauses after most verbs.

e.g. We know (that) he **is doing** very well in his studies.
They thought (that) he **had** given up his idea.
He said that he **would** soon be back.

As is well known, the rules of the sequence of tenses are to be observed here.

Note. Care should be taken to remember that in object clauses after expressions of regret, surprise, sometimes pleasure or displeasure the emotional *should* can be used alongside the Indicative Mood (see "Verbs", § 109, *2a).*

§ 129. However, after certain verbs and expressions we find forms of unreality in object clauses.

Thus *should + infinitive* or the Subjunctive Mood is used after expressions of suggestion, order or decision such as *to decide, to demand, to give instructions, to give orders, to insist, to make up one's mind, to move, to order, to propose, to recommend, to request, to require, to suggest, to urge* and also after *to arrange, to be anxious, to be determined, to prefer* and *to take care.*

e.g. Con demanded that Andrew **should return** to the house with him to tea.
She urged that they go to Europe.
He had given instructions that everything possible **should** be **done.**
He was determined that they **should** see everything.
But if I write about war, self-respect demands that occasionally **I share** the risks.
He requested me as a favour that I **should report** to him any "points of interest" that I might pick up on my visits there.
The situation required that he be courteous.

In all those cases the action of the subordinate clause follows the action of the principal clause. Therefore, this *should* is never combined with the Perfect infinitive.

Object clauses after expressions of order and suggestion are generally introduced by the conjunction *that;* asyndetic connection is less frequent. The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in object clauses of this type.

e.g. They **propose(d)** that the issue **should be discussed** in a week.
They **propose(d)** that the issue **be** discussed in a week.

§ 130. In object clauses subordinated to the principal clause with *it* as a formal subject we find the Indicative Mood after such expressions as *it is wonderful (natural, strange, singular, absurd-terrible, monstrous, queer, odd,* etc.) *it infuriated (outraged-startled, surprised, puzzled) me* and the like. The Indicative Mood is also used after *it is possible (likely, probable)* in affirmative sentences.

e.g. But it's natural that you **come** to get used to things.
It's just possible that .he **left** them alone.
It's wonderful that you carry such petty details in your head.
It's hardly likely that anyone **will bother** to go into it this afternoon.

Clauses of this kind are usually introduced by the conjunction *that;* asyndetic connection is not common.

Care should be taken to observe the rules of the sequence of tenses when the Indicative Mood is used.

e.g. It is strange that he **behaves** like that.
It was strange that he **behaved** like that.
It is strange that he **behaved** like that at the party.
It **was** strange that he **had behaved** like that at the party.

Note. As has been shown in § 109, 2, the emotional *should* may be used in the above cases too. In contrast to the Indicative Mood, it adds emotional colouring to the statements, though in both cases actual facts are referred to. However, after *it is possible (likely, probable)* in affirmative sentences the Indicative Mood is the rule.

§ **131.** Yet, after certain other expressions in the principal clause the modal phrase *should + infinitive* or the Subjunctive Mood is always used in the object clause. They are expressions of necessity or recommendation, such as *it is necessary (important, vital, imperative, essential, urgent, advisable, desirable);* we also find these forms after the Passive Voice of some verbs expressing suggestion, order, decision, such as *it is suggested (proposed, required, demanded, requested, recommended, decided, agreed, determined, arranged).*

e.g. It is necessary at times that certain persons **should be encouraged.**
"**It** is necessary that they **be** careful in the lab," he added.
It is advisable that she **should have** someone to keep an eye on her,
"It's so important that they **should know** the right things from the beginning," Isabel had explained.
It was agreed beforehand that he **should have** the first shot.
He says it's quite essential that you **do** it after supper.
It's been suggested that **I should join** one of the public services.

In all those cases the action of the subordinate clause follows the action of the principal clause. Therefore, *should* is never combined with the Perfect infinitive in such constructions.

As a rule, object clauses after all those predicates are also introduced by the conjunction *that;* asyndetic connection is not common.

Note that the rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed when *should + infinitive* or the Subjunctive Mood is used.

e.g. It is arranged that he have (should have) the lab all to himself.
It was arranged that he have (should have) the lab all to himself.

§ 132. In object clauses after the verb *to wish* we find the form of the Past Indefinite (or the form *were)* or the Past Perfect to express a wish which cannot be fulfilled or a hardly realizable wish.

e.g. I wish I deserved your compliments. I don't.
I wish you had asked me anything but that.
I wish it were true.
I wished that Thomas hadn't brought me there.

Note. For a realizable wish other verbs and constructions are used,

e.g. I want to see him.
I want **him** to come.
I should like to talk to you.
I should like him to call me up.
I wish to see it for myself.
I wish him to do something for me.

Object clauses after the verb *to wish* are usually joined to the principal clause asyndetically, though sometimes the conjunction *that* is found.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in this construction. In object clauses after the verb to *wish* the tense forms indicate the following:

a) The use of the Past Indefinite form shows that the action of the subordinate clause is simultaneous with that of the principal clause,

e.g. I wish(ed) he were with us.

b) If the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the principal clause, the form of the Past Perfect is used.

e.g. I wish(ed) he had stayed at home.

c) When the action of the object clause follows that of the principal clause, we find the modal verbs *would + infintive, might + infinitive* and *could + infinitive* in the subordinate clause.

e.g. I wish(ed) the child would show more affection for me.
I wish(ed) I could drop the whole matter.
I wish(ed) you might stay with us a little longer.

Note 1. However, *could + infinitive* and *might + infinitive* may also be used to express a simultaneous action.

e.g. I wish 1 could understand you.
I wish he might be here.

Note 2. It should be noted that *would + infinitive* is not common with the first person.

As all these forms express an unrealizable wish, they serve as expressions of regret rather than wish. That is why they may be rendered in Russian in two ways. Thus the sentence / *wish I knew it,* where the actions in both clauses are simultaneous, may be translated as *Как бы мне хотелось это знать* or *Как жаль, что я этого не знаю.* When the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the principal clause, there is only one way of rendering such sentences in Russian, namely *Как жаль, что.. .* For example, the sentence / *wish I had told him about it* is translated as *Как жаль, что я не рассказал ему об этом.* Thus, where the verb in the object clause is affirmative in English, it is negative in Russian, and vice versa.

e.g. I wish I had told him the truth. (Как жаль, что я не сказал ему правды.)
I wish I hadn't acted like that. (Как жаль, что я так поступил.)

When the action of the subordinate clause follows that of the principal clause, it is not necessary to translate the modal verbs into Russian; the usual way of rendering such sentences is *Как бы* мне *хотелось... .*

e-g. I wish he would tell me everything. (Как бы мне хотелось, чтобы он все мне рассказал.)
I wish I could (might) go round the world. (Как бы мне хотелось объехать весь мир.)

Note. I wish you would + infinitive has become a set phrase and is an equivalent of the Imperative Mood; it is emotionally coloured.

e.g. I wish you would keep quiet.
I wish you would stop it.

Compare it with the Russian *Да перестань же ты, наконец.*

§ **133.** After the idiomatic phrase *it is time* (also *it is high time, it is about time)* we find the form of the Past Indefinite (or the form *were).*

e.g. "Now let's talk." "Yes," she said quietly, "it's time we **did,** Arnie." (= пора бы)
It's high time we **got rid** of our old furniture. (= давно пора бы)
It's high time you **were** in bed too, my child.
He said: "It's time we **ordered** dinner."

Clauses of this kind are usually joined to the principal clause asyndetically.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in this kind of clauses.

e.g. It's time we **had** lunch.
It **was** time we **had** lunch.

§ **134.** After expressions of fear, such as *to be afraid, to be fearful, to be frightened, to be in terror, to be nervous, to be terrified, to be troubled, to fear, to have apprehension, to tremble* and others, we commonly find the Indicative Mood in the object clause. Care should be taken to observe the rules of the sequence of tenses.

e.g. I am afraid nothing **has been done** yet.
She was afraid that he **had seen** her.
I was afraid you **were going to strike** him.

§ **135.** Occasionally we also find *may + infinitive* in object clauses after expressions of fear. The rules of the sequence of tenses are also observed in this case.

e.g. She's afraid he **may** miss his only chance.
She **was** afraid he **might miss** his only chance.

But in literary style, object clauses are sometimes introduced by the conjunction *lest.* In this case *should + infinitive* (rarely the Subjunctive Mood) is used in the object clause. The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed here.

e.g. They were terrified *lest* someone **should discover** their secret hiding place.
An hour before his train was due he began to have apprehension *lest* he **should miss** it.
He seemed nervous *lest,* in thus announcing his intentions, he **should be setting** his granddaughter a bad example.

§ **136.** In object clauses introduced by the conjunctions *if* and *whether* after expressions of doubt and negative expressions we sometimes find the form *were.*

e.g. He would wonder for a moment, looking into her shining eyes, *if* it were true.
He did not ask himself if she **were** pretty.
When they were back in their seats, Maurice asked Adeline *if* she were still **enjoying** the play.

Generally we find the Indicative Mood in such clauses; the use of the above mentioned form is characteristic of literary style; it is a survival of the old use of the Subjunctive **Mood.**

The Use **of Forms Expressing Unreality in Appositive and Predicative Clauses**

§ **137.** In appositive clauses which are usually introduced by the conjunction *that* the use of different forms of the predicate depends on the lexical character of the noun they modify.

As a rule, the Indicative Mood is found in this kind of clauses. The rules of the sequence of tenses are to be observed in this case.

e-g. The idea that he **thought** himself anything but intelligent was absurd.
He is under the impression that **I am hiding** something from him.

§ 138. But *should + infinitive* (or rarely the Subjunctive Mood) is used in appositive clauses after nouns expressing order, suggestion, wish, agreement and decision, such as *agreement, ambition, decision, demand, desire, order, proposal, recommendation, request, require ment, suggestion, understanding, wish* and some others.

e.g. He told me of his *desire* that all should be happy as long as it involved no inconvenience to himself.
He had supported them for years, but on the *understanding* that they should live in Europe.
I'm afraid you'll have to go to him with the *suggestion* that he dismiss the case.
There was no *likelihood* that anyone should be there.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in this case.

§ 139. The same rules hold good for predicative clauses — generally the Indicative Mood is used in them.

e.g. The *question* is how we are going to find the means to do it.
The *fact* was that I hardly knew what to say.
The *trouble* is that he didn't find him in.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are observed in this case.

§ 140. But when the subject of the principal clause is expressed by one of such nouns as *aim, arrangement, condition, decision, idea, plan, proposal, suggestion, wish* and some others, *should + infinitive* is used in the subordinate clause. The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed,

e.g. My suggestion is that as soon as the rain lets up we should go along there and see what we can do.
His desire was that life should fall in with his own limited but deliberate plans.

The Use of Forms Expressing Unreality in Adverbial Clauses

§ 141. Forms expressing unreality are found in clauses of purpose, comparison, concession and in both the principal and the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence.

Adverbial Clauses of Purpose

§ 142. An adverbial modifier of purpose is usually expressed by an infinitive when the agent of that infinitive is the same as the subject in the sentence.

e.g. He said that he was going out to buy some stationary.
He went up to his room to change.

The infinitive may sometimes {though not often) be preceded by *in order* or *so as.*

e.g. I had to keep drinking coffee in order to stay awake.

You'd better wait outside so as to be at hand if I want you.

So as is more often used to introduce a negative infinitive,

e.g. She sat still so as not to disturb the dog.

§ 143. A subordinate clause of purpose is found when the subject of this clause is not the same as the subject of the principal clause.

Clauses of purpose are introduced by the conjunction *so that* (sometimes *that* or *in order that,* both of which are characteristic of literary style, and so, which is colloquial). The predicate in these clauses is expressed by *may* or *can + infinitive* and the rules of the sequence of tenses are to be observed in this case.

e.g. As you go, leave the door open *so that* the light from the lamp may show you some of the way down.
She dressed quickly for dinner *so that* she might see him the sooner.
You'll have to come into the hospital so *that* we can keep you under observation.
He slid out of bed, felt his way over to the door of the room, and opened it a little so *that* he could hear what the women were saying.

If the verb in the subordinate clause is in the negative form, *should + infinitive* is preferred.

e-g. I stood up, my back turned so *that* he should not see my face.
"Sit down," he said, dropping his voice *so that* the two men in the room should not hear.

In literary style we sometimes find clauses of purpose introduced by the conjunction *lest* (чтобы... не). [1] In this case *should* + *infinitive* (rarely the Subjunctive Mood) is used in the subordinate clause. As the conjunction *lest* is negative in meaning, the verb is in the affirmative form,

e.g. An access of joy made him shut his eyes *lest* tears should flow from them, (...чтобы из них не потекли слезы.)
He withdrew his eyes *lest* she should read them.
Lest he freeze, he wore a ragged sweater over the ensemble.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed here.

Sometimes, though not often, the Indicative Mood (the Future Indefinite) is used in adverbial clauses of purpose instead of modal phrases.

e.g. I, too, want to live in London so that the children will have someone to turn to in case anything should happen to them.
She gave him the key so that he would lock the car.

Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

§ 144. In clauses of comparison introduced by the conjunctions as if or as though we find the form of the Past Indefinite including the form *were* for all the persons or the Past Perfect.

The form of the Past Indefinite (or Continuous) shows that the action of the subordinate clause is simultaneous with the action of the principal clause.

e.g. He asked me the question as *if* the answer were really important to him.
He looks as *though* he had plenty of determination.
They passed her in silence, with their noses in the air, *as though* she did not exist.
Her lips moved soundlessly, *as if* she were rehearsing.

Note. In contemporary English the form *were* is sometimes replaced by *was* in the 1st and 3d persons singular,

e.g. He behaves as if he was the boss here.

[1] This conjunction should not be confused with the homonymous conjunction *lest* which is used to introduce object clauses after expressions of fear. The latter is not negative in meaning.

The form of the Past Perfect (Continuous) shows that the action of the subordinate clause precedes the action of the principal clause.

e.g. Bosinney gazed at him *as though* he had not heard.
The dog rushed at me and licked my hands in a frenzy of delight *as if* I had been away a long time.
He sounded breathless on the telephone *as though* he had been running.

If the action of the subordinate clause follows the action of the principal clause, *would + infinitive* is used.

e.g. She sank back on her chair and leaning her head on her hands began to weep as though her heart would break.
She looked up at me defiantly as if she would turn on me that very moment.

The rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed in such clauses.

Note 1. Compare complex sentences with a clause of comparison in Russian and in English.

e.g. Она смотрела на меня *так, словно* не узнавала меня. — She looked at me as if she did not recognize me.
Он говорил о фильме *так, будто* он сам его видел. — He spoke of the film as if he had seen it.

In Russian it is generally necessary to use the correlative *так* in the principal clause, whereas in English it is not required.

Note 2. Clauses introduced by as *if* and *as though* are treated as predicative clauses when they follow the verbs *to look, to sound, to feel.*

e.g. At first he sounded as though he were trying to avoid a scene.
She was so ill that for days it looked as if she would die.
The man looked as though he had once been a miner.

Complex Sentences with a Subordinate Clause of Condition

§ 145. Complex sentences with a subordinate clause of condition (conditional sentences)[1] may be divided into two groups: sentences of real condition and sentences of unreal condition.

[1] In conditional sentences forms expressing unreality are used in both the principal clause and in the subordinate clause (the if-clause), whereas in all the previously described types of sentences forms expressing unreality are found only in subordinate clauses.

In sentences of **real condition** we find the Indicative Mood. They usually refer to the future, so the Future tense is used in the principal clause and the present tense in the if-clause.

e.g. If you **continue** in this way you'll break your mother's heart.
You **won't be believed** if you **tell** the truth.

Sentences of real condition may also refer to the present or past, though not very often.

e.g. I always **lose** money if I **bet.**
In the evenings we **played** chess or **strolled** about if it was fine.

It should be noted that sentences of the latter kind express regularly occurring actions.

Clauses of condition are usually joined to the principal clause by means of the conjunction *if* and are therefore called if-clauses. There are other conjunctions which serve to introduce clauses of condition, but their use is not so common. They are: *unless, in case, supposing (suppose) that, providing (provided) that, on condi tion that.*

Note. If has the most general meaning of all the conjunctions introducing clauses of condition. Its use is not restricted in any way, whereas all the other conjunctions are limited in their application either for semantic or stylistic reasons. Roughly *unless* means 'if...not'. However, there is a difference between them: *unless* has the more exclusive meaning of 'only if... not' or 'except on condition that'. The most adequate way of rendering this conjunction in Russian is *если только не.*

e.g. We never part with things, you know, unless we want something in their place.
"Does the professor know?" "No. And he won't unless it is absolutely necessary."

While *if ... not* can be used instead of *unless,* though the clause will be deprived of the above mentioned specific shade of meaning, *unless* cannot always serve as a substitute for *if ... not.* For example, *unless* cannot be used in the following sentence:

e.g. If your wife doesn't like the ring, I'll be happy to exchange it any time.

In case also has a specific shade of meaning implying purpose as well as condition. It should be rendered in Russian as *на тот случай, если.*

e.g. I'd like the doctor handy in case she feels worse.
I've made provision in case anything happens to me.

Supposing (that) and *suppose (that)* preserve the meaning of supposition as their origin from the verb *to suppose* is still strongly felt. They are best of all rendered in Russian by means of *предположим* and are found in the following kinds of sentences:

e.g. Suppose he doesn't turn up, what shall we do?
What will his uncle think of him, supposing it's true?

Providing (that) and *provided (that)* are rather narrow in meaning indicating a favourable and desirable condition, which is explained by their connection with the verb *to provide.* Besides, they are rather formal stylistically, being more typical of official documents. The closest Russian equivalents are *если, при наличии, при условии.*

e.g. But so long as a Forsyte got what he was after, he was not too particular about the means, provided appearances were saved.
We are prepared to sign the agreement providing that you guarantee the high quality of the goods.

On condition (that) is also connected with its original meaning (при условии) and at the same time it is restricted stylistically, being more formal than *if.*

e.g. I will agree to this year's budget on condition that we drop this foreign business in future.

All these conjunctions may be used in sentences of both real and unreal condition.

§ **146.** In sentences of unreal condition we find forms expressing unreality: the form of the Past Indefinite or the Past Perfect is used in the if-clause, and the Conditional Mood (Present and Past) is used in the principal clause.

The action of the if-clause is represented by the speaker as contradicting reality; consequently the action of the principal clause, which depends on this unreal condition, cannot be realized either.

When a sentence of unreal condition refers to the present or future, the form of the Past Indefinite is used in the if-clause and the Present Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

e.g. How nice it **would** be for Mother if we **had** a car.
You ought to know your uncle by this time. He's just like a child. He'd be a pauper tomorrow if **I didn't** see to things.
If the hospital were not so overcrowded, he said, he **would recommend** that she should be taken there.

When a sentence of unreal condition refers to the past, we find the form of the Past Perfect in the if-clause and the Past Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

e.g. It would have been too wonderful if he **had said** that. But he didn't.

Of course, all this **wouldn't have happened** if the girl **hadn't been** so excited.

I should have been sorry if **I hadn't spoken.**

§ **147.** Note the following construction which may be used with reference either to the present or to the past.

e.g, "Oh," Maurice went on, "if **it weren't for my mother I should be** unhappy at home."

"Mrs Davidson was saying she didn't know how they'd have **got** through the journey if **it hadn't been for us,"** she said.

If **it were not for his friend Crowdy,** he **would be** in financial difficulties.

§ **148.** The if-clause and the principal clause need not necessarily refer to the same time: the if-clause may refer to the present and future and the principal clause may refer to the past, and vice versa. Sentences of this kind are called **a split condition.**

e.g. If you **were** not so indifferent to him you **would have noticed** that there was something happening to him.

You must remember if Mr Reed **hadn't taken** me out **of** the drawing office, **I should be** there now getting two pounds a week.

§ **149.** Sentences of unreal condition referring to the future may be of four types: [1]

1) The first type has already been described: the Past Indefinite is used in the if-clause and the Present Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

e.g. Half of the people **would distrust** you if you **went** away at such a moment.

If we **allowed** him to go on with his experiments we would never **have** any peace.

[1] Conditional sentences referring to the future, no matter what forms of the verb are used in them, are always hypothetical, because one can never be sure of the actual course of events in the future. But these future actions may be represented differently by the speaker: either as an actual fact (when the Indicative Mood is used) or as actions contradicting reality or problematic actions (see § 149).

The action is represented in such sentences as contradicting reality — the speaker does not believe that it can be realized in the future.

2) As the above type of conditional sentences may refer to both the present and the future, there is a strong tendency in English to use another type which is unambiguous, in order to show that the action refers only to the future and not to the present.

In this type of conditional sentences we find the form *were* of the modal verb *to be to* followed by an infinitive in the if-clause. In the principal clause the Conditional Mood is used.

e.g. Mother **would resist** it bitterly if I **were to ask** for breakfast at this hour.

If we **were to take** this man in hand for three months he **would become** as soft as wax.

If young Adeline **were to occupy** the room it **would look** so different.

If Meg **were to repay** you the fifteen dollars you lent her, what **would** you **do** with the money?

He had lately thought much about what he **would do** if **he were to meet** them.

This second type differs from the first type in that it emphasizes the tentative character of the condition.

3) *Should + infinitive* is used in the if-clause and the Future Indefinite of the Indicative Mood in the principal clause.

e.g. I don't expect any telephone calls tonight. But if anyone **should call,** the butler **will** say I've gone on a visit to some of my relatives.

If the other conclusion **should be** correct the slight loss of time **will make** no difference.

The Imperative Mood may also be used in the principal clause.

e.g. Better **employ** a solicitor. Sir, in case anything **should arise.**

If she **should** leave, keep an eye on her.

This third type of conditional sentences referring to the future differs from the first two types in that it shows that the realization of the action is represented as possible though unlikely (but not contradicting reality as in the first two types). The if-clause

of the third type may be rendered in Russian as *Если кто-нибудь случайно позвонит..., Если так случится, что кто-нибудь слу чайно позвонит... Если вдруг кто-нибудь позвонит...* . We may say that the realization of the action depends on some contingency. In this type of sentences the clause of condition is rather often introduced by the conjunction *in case.*

e.g. **I'll let** you know in case there **should be** some unavoidable delay.
I' ll **be** at the flat all evening in case you **should change** your mind.

The clause of condition introduced by this conjunction acquires the meaning of *на тот случай, если; в случае если.*

4) Sometimes *would + infinitive* is used in the if-clause and the Present Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

e.g. **If** he **would** only **trust** me, we **would** get **on** much better.
I'd love it if you **would call** me Eliza.

Would + infinitive expresses consent or willingness *(=Если бы вы согласились... Если бы вы захотели...).*

A sentence of this type is often a conditional sentence only in form; it is actually a polite request (see the last example above).

§ **150.** The modal verbs *can* and *may* can also be found in conditional sentences. If they occur in if-clauses referring to the present or future, they have the past form.

e.g. If **I could be** a writer **I should write** detective stories.
His bedroom is very cold. If I might **move** him into your study he **would feel** more cheerful there.

In the principal clause we generally use the Conditional Mood. But as *can* and *may* are defective verbs and cannot be used in the Conditional Mood, the past tense of these verbs is used in combination with the simple infinitive to refer the action to the present or future.

e.g. I **could try** to make the place comfortable with more heart if the sun were shining.
If you had any office training it might **be** possible to use you up here.

When reference is made to the past, *could* and *might* are combined with the Perfect infinitive (both in the if-clause and in the principal clause).

e.g. Yet if she **could have seen** me there, she would have been a little puzzled.
If I hadn't been there something very unpleasant **might have happened** to him.

§ **151.** A clause of unreal condition may be joined to the principal clause asyndetically. In that case it always precedes the principal clause and we find inversion in the subordinate clause — the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

e.g. **Had** Irene **been** present, the family circle **would have been** complete.
Should you **want** to do **so** you **can withdraw** your money at any time.

As is seen from the above examples, asyndetic connection is possible only when the predicate of the subordinate clause is an analytical form (or a modal phrase). This construction is emphatic and characteristic only of literary style.

Complex Sentences with Adverbial Clauses of Concession

§ 152. Complex sentences with a clause of concession introduced by the conjunction *even if* or *even though* are built up on the same pattern as sentences of unreal condition — the form of the Past Indefinite or the Past Perfect is used in the subordinate clause and the Conditional Mood, Present or Past, in the principal clause.

e.g. But even if you were right, I **should be prepared** for any contingency.
Even if I **had been** a stranger he **would have talked** of his misfortune.

Note. In complex sentences with a clause of concession introduced by *though, although, whoever, whichever, whatever, whenever, however, wherever, no matter how* the Indicative Mood is used in both clauses.

e.g.. And when we settle down, wherever it is, you'll have a garden, Chris.

In literary style *may {might) + infinitive* is occasionally used in clauses of concession to lay stress on the meaning of supposition.

e.g. Whatever his invitation **may mean,** I'm going to accept it.
He said he would be glad to fulfil the conditions whatever they **might** be.

The Use **of Forms Expressing Unreality in a Special Type of Exclamatory Sentences**

§ **153.** The form of the **Past Indefinite** including the form **were** is used in the following type of exclamatory sentences to express **a wish which cannot be fulfilled.**

e.g. **Oh, if** only Daddy **were** home!
Oh, if only **I knew** what to do!

In the above examples reference is made to the present. With reference to the past the form of the **Past Perfect** is used,

e.g. Oh, if only he **had** given me a chance!

When the sentence refers to the future we find *would + infinitive* or *could + infinitive,*

e.g. **If** it **would** only **stop** raining for a single day!
Oh, if only you **would** see a doctor!
If only their life together **could** always be like this!
Sentences of this kind are very emphatic and restricted to spoken English.

Free Use of Forms Expressing Unreality

§ **154.** The choice of forms expressing unreality which has been described above depends on certain kinds of clauses and sometimes on the lexical character of the verb in the principal clause. However, other forms expressing unreality may be used freely, independent of any particular sentence pattern. They are opposed to the Indicative Mood and their choice is determined by the speaker's attitude towards the action in question.

§ **155.** If an action is represented as an actual fact, the Indicative Mood is used. But if it is dependent on some implied unreal condition (i.e. an unreal condition which is not expressed by an *if-clause* but understood from the sentence or the context), the Conditional Mood is used to represent the action as contradicting reality. This use of the Conditional Mood is often found in simple sentences.

The Present Conditional Mood is used with reference to the present or future.

e.g. "Are you intending to marry her? I think it **would be** very unwise. She **would be** a load on you." *(The implied condition is* "if you married her".)
I wouldn't sell the picture for ten thousand dollars. **It would be** a crime to sell such a picture.
I think it **would be a** very bad precedent to let him cut the end of term.

When the situation refers to the past, the Past Conditional Mood is used.

e.g. Twenty years ago **I would have** strongly **disapproved** of you. *(The implied condition is* "if it had been twenty years ago.")
He would have said a great deal more, but he was tired.
She's a different woman now. I **should** never **have thought** it possible.

§ **156.** The modal verbs *can* and *may* which cannot have analytical forms, are used in the form of the past tense to express unreality. With reference to the present or future, they are followed by the simple infinitive.

e-g. He's never asked me about it though he knows I **could** never **tell** him a lie.
With his office training he **might find** a job with us.

When reference is made to the past, *could* and *might* are combined with the Perfect infinitive.

e-g. There was a wonderful concert at the Victoria Hall we **could have gone** to. But we missed it.
Why on earth didn't he send to say that he was ill? We **might have helped him.**

§ **157.** Sometimes the unreal condition is not merely implied but actually expressed in the sentence by means of a special adverbial modifier of condition.

e.g. *But for you,* **I would** give **up** everything.
I'd never **have got** a job like that off my hands *but for your help.*

But for... is rendered in Russian as *если бы не...*

§ **158.** The Conditional Mood and the forms *could* and *might* are used not only in simple sentences but also in any kind of clauses with implied condition, for example, in attributive clauses, object clauses, adverbial clauses, etc. They are also found in the principal clause of a complex sentence.

e.g. And yet Butler was the last man in the world with whom you **would have associated** romance.
I know he **wouldn't have enjoyed** Le Roy's story.
To his surprise Mrs Garnet was not so much opposed to the notion as he **would have expected.**
In the old days she **would have tried** to make him see why she had **done it.**

§ **159.** Sometimes the Conditional Mood and the forms *could* and *might* are found in sentences without implied condition. Their use in this case differs from the use of the Indicative Mood only stylistically — they serve to lend the sentence a milder and more polite shade of meaning, the Past Conditional expressing the highest degree of politeness,

e.g. "How long did you wait?" **"I would** say a good five minutes."
Ask Miss Thompson when it **would be** convenient to **see** her.
"I suppose I'm prepared to accept their offer." **"I should think** you **are."**
Why, **I should have thought** there could be no two answers to that.
I should have said he is nothing out of the ordinary.
Do you know Walter Gray? **Could** you **write** to him?

Compare it with the similar use of the Subjunctive Mood in Russian: *Я бы сказал... , Я бы считал... , Не могли бы вы...* ■

This function of the Conditional Mood and of the forms *could* and *might* plays an important role in spoken English.

§ **160.** There are a few other modal verbs and set phrases which are the Subjunctive Mood or the Conditional Mood only by origin. How they have ceased to express unreality. They are the modal verbs *should* and *ought to* and the set phrases *had better, would rather, would sooner, should (would) like.*

e.g. Don't you think Sybill **ought** to **have** her tonsils seen to?
"Will you do it?" she asked him in an uneasy tone. "Oh, I'd much **rather** you did it," he said.
She decided that they **had better** stay in town for another week.
"I shouldn't like to have a nature like yours, Alec," his wife

She **should be** pleased with what she has.

Note. Note that in object clauses after *would ('d) rather* the same forms are used as after the verb *wish.*

e.g. He'd rather they left him alone.
I'd rather he hadn't spoken in that abrupt manner.

The above modal verbs and set phrases do not express actions depending on some unreal condition. They merely lend the sentence a milder and more polite shade of meaning.

Traditional Use of Forms Expressing Unreality

§ 161. The Subjunctive Mood and the form *were* may be found in simple sentences. Their use in this case is based on tradition.

The Subjunctive Mood is now only found in a few set phrases which are a survival of the old use of this mood. New sentences cannot be formed on this pattern.

a) The Subjunctive Mood serves to express *wish* in the following kinds of sentences.

e.g. Long **live** the Queen!
Success **attend** you!
Be ours a happy meeting!
God **bless** you.
Heaven **forbid.**

Note. We also find *may + infinitive* in sentences of this kind.

e.g.. May success attend you!
May ours be a happy meeting.

b) The Subjunctive Mood serves to express **concession** in the following sentences which can be treated as set phrases in modern English.

e.g. So **be** it. (Да будет так.)
Come what will. (Будь, что будет.)

Note. Concession may also be expressed by parenthetic phrases with *may* and *let.*

e.g. Happen what may... (Что случится, то случится..., что будет, то будет...)
Be this (that) as it may... (Как бы то ни было...)
Let it be so. {Пусть будет так.)

c) The Subjunctive Mood is found in the expressions *Suffice to say that...* (Достаточно сказать, что...) and *Far be it from me...* (Я далек от того, чтобы...).

e.g. **Far be it from me** to contradict you.

d) The Subjunctive Mood is also used in certain imprecations,

e.g. Manners **be** hanged. (К черту хорошие манеры.)

e) The form *were* is found in the set phrase *as it were* (так сказать, как бы) which is used parenthetically.

e.g. Her portrait had been, **as it were,** stamped on his heart.
They were silent and, **as it were,** oppressed.

f) *Would + infinitive* is found in as *luck would have it* (по счастливому стечению обстоятельств) or as *ill luck would have if* (на беду, как на зло).

e.g. As **luck would have it, I** was invited for that night.

The Tense Forms Expressing Unreality (Summary)

§ 162. As can be seen from the above description, not all the forms of unreality can express tense distinctions. Thus the Subjunctive Mood and the modal phrases *should* (for all persons) 4- *infinitive* and *would* (for all persons) + *infinitive* have no tense distinctions. They are used only in certain types of subordinate clauses and generally show that the action of that clause follows the action of the principal clause, i.e. they express time relatively-

e.g. I suggest(ed) that he **take up** the matter.
It **is** (was) important that he **should accept** the offer.
I wish(ed) he **would agree** to see me.

Since these forms have no tense distinctions the rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed here.

Tense distinctions are expressed only by the forms of the Conditional Mood (which has two tenses — Present and Past) and also by the use of the forms of the Past Indefinite and the Past Perfect.

The Present Conditional Mood and the form of the Past Indefinite (also the form *were* for all persons singular) serve to refer an action to the present or future when they are used in complex sentences with a clause of condition (or a clause of concession introduced by *even if* or *even though).*

e.g. If I **had** time I **should *go*** on a short holiday.
If he **were** younger he **would** go on an expedition again.
Even if he **knew** about it he **wouldn't tell** us.

The Past Conditional Mood and the form of the Past Perfect serve to refer an action to the past in the same kinds of clauses.

e.g. If I **had had** time **I should have gone** on a short holiday.
If he **had been** younger he **would have gone** on an expedition again.
Even if he **had known** it he **wouldn't have told** us.

The Present Conditional Mood is used with reference to the present or future also in simple sentences with implied condition, while the Past Conditional refers an action to the past.

e.g. It **would not be** possible to decide anything without him.
It would not have been possible to decide anything without him.

In all those cases the tenses are used absolutely, i.e. they refer an action directly to the present, past or future

The same is true of the modal verb *were to + infinitive* which is used only in (/"-clauses and refers an action of that clause to the future.

e.g. If everybody **were to be brought up** differently, **would** the world **not** change?

But when all the forms, which in the above described cases ex-Press time relations absolutely, are used in other subordinate

clauses, they become relative tenses, i.e. they express the time with regard to the action of the principal clause. The Present Conditional Mood and the form of the Past Indefinite indicate that the action of the subordinate clause is simultaneous with that of the principal clause or follows it.

e.g. They **say (said)** it **would be** impossible to decide anything without him.

I **wish(ed) I knew** it.

The Past Conditional Mood and the form of the Past Perfect show that the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the principal clause.

e.g. They **say (said)** it **would have been** impossible to decide anything without him.

I wish(ed) I had known it.

It should be remembered that the tenses in sentences of unreal condition are also used relatively in reported speech,

e.g. He says **(said)** that if he **had** time he **would** go on a short holiday.

He says **(said)** that if he **had had** time he **would have gone** on a short holiday.

As is seen from the examples, the rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed with any of the above mentioned forms expressing unreality.

Things are different, however, with the forms *can (may) + infinitive* used to express problematic actions. *Can* is found in clauses of purpose, *may* — in clauses of purpose and in object clauses after expressions of fear in the principal clause.

e.g. On Sundays we always **go** outing so that the children can **(may) spend** the day in the open air.

I **am** afraid that he **may get** angry with me.

The forms *can {may) + infinitive* are in the Indicative Mood here, so the rules of the sequence of tenses should be observed,

e.g. On Sundays we always **went** outing so that the children **could (might) spend** the day in the open air.

I was afraid that he **might get** angry with me.

VERBALS (NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB)

§ **163.** There are three verbals in English: **the infinitive, the ing-form** and the **participle.**

The infinitive is a plain verb stem which is usually preceded by the unstressed particle *to,* e.g. *to take.* In addition to the simple form, the infinitive has the following analytical forms: **continuous —** *to be taking,* **perfect —** *to have taken,* **perfect continuous —** *to have been taking,* **simple passive —** *to be taken,* **perfect passive —** *to have been taken.*

The *ing-form* is built up by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb, e.g. *to take — taking* (for spelling rules see "Verbs", § ll).

The *ing-form* also has analytical forms: **perfect —** *having taken,* **passive —** *being taken,* **perfect passive —** *having been taken.*

The participle of regular verbs is formed by adding the suffix *-ed* to the stem (for spelling rules and the pronunciation of the suffix see "Verbs", § 5). The participle of irregular verbs may be formed in different ways (see "Verbs", § 5 and Appendix).

The participle has only one form — it is invariable.

§ 164. In order to understand the nature of the verbals, it is necessary to compare them with the finite forms of the verb and bring out points of similarity points of difference between them.

As the infinitive and the *ing-form* have many features in common they will be compared with the finite forms together.

The participle, which differs from both these forms considerably, will be compared with the finite forms separately.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form*

§ **165.** The infinitive and the ing-form have the same lexical meaning as the finite forms of the corresponding verb.

But with regard to their grammatical categories the two verbals correspond to the finite forms only partly.

1) The infinitive and the ing-form lack the forms of person and number characteristic of the finite forms.

2) Mood can be expressed only by the finite forms.

It should be pointed out, however, that although the infinitive has no special mood forms and cannot represent an action either

as a real fact or as something unreal, it may in some functions express certain modal meanings — necessity, possibility, purpose:

e.g. a) necessity — I've got something dreadful to tell you.
b) possibility — I had nobody to talk to.
c) purpose — I'm going upstairs to pack my things.

The Perfect infinitive, in combination with some modal verbs, may sometimes show that its action was not realized in the past.

e.g. They should have told him about it.

3) Like the finite forms, the infinitive and the *ing-form* have active and passive forms, e.g. *to take — to be taken, taking — be ing taken.*

Like the finite forms, the infinitive and the ing-form can express time, e.g. *to take — to have taken, taking — having taken.*

Yet, the two verbals differ considerably from finite verbs in this respect. The finite forms generally express time absolutely. i.e. they refer an action to the present, past or future (e.g. *He knows English. He knew English. He will know English).* The verbals express time relatively, i.e. in relation to the action of the predicate verb in the sentence. The action expressed by the verbals may be simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate verb (a), may precede (b) or follow it (c).[1]

e.g. a) He seemed to know all about it.
Roger was at home working on his speech.
b) He seemed to have guessed the truth.
Having looked at his watch he closed the book and put it on the shelf.
c) He was ready to assist them.
One afternoon, about half past five, when Thomas was counting on working for an hour or two more, the telephone rang.

Besides, the simple forms of the verbals themselves are capable of expressing all kinds of time relations. The various time relations they express depend on the lexical character of the verb and on the context.

[1] It is true that the finite forms may also express time relatively, but that occurs only **in** certain sentence patterns.

The infinitive tends to express an action following that of the predicate verb (a), but it may also denote an action simultaneous with it (b). However, the simple form of the infinitive does not often express an action that precedes the action of the predicate verb (c).

e.g. a) He felt a quick impulse to call the boy back.
b) She was admiring his ability to concentrate on any task.
c) Sylvia was glad to run across her old schoolmate.

The *ing-form* tends to express actions simultaneous with that of the predicate verb (a). But it is also extensively used to express priority (b) and, sometimes, an action following that of the predicate verb (c).

e.g. a) This Saturday afternoon Henry, home from his office, sat at his study table, drawing cats on the blotter, waiting for his wife to come back from a lunch.
b) I remembered hearing my aunt telling me in my childhood that great men never cared for flattery. [1]
c) She insisted on coming with me but I finally managed to talk her out of it.

The time relations expressed by the passive forms are the same as those of the corresponding active forms.

On the whole it should be noted that it is the simple form of the verbals that is in extensive use in English. The analytical *ing-forms* are infrequent, but they are commonly used with modal verbs (in some of their meanings),

e.g. He must be happy now.
He must be sleeping.
He must have misunderstood you.
He must have been waiting for you.
The experiment must be finished already.
The experiment must have been carried out by now.

In other cases the continuous infinitive is generally used only to emphasize the idea of duration, of process and to make the statement more vivid and expressive. A simple infinitive is often possible in the same sentence.

1 Here the action of hearing precedes the action of the predicate verb *remembered,* the use of the perfect ***Ing-form*** is an exception.

e.g. It was pleasant to **be** driving the car again.
I'm not a man **to be talking** of what does not concern me.

It would be possible to use the simple forms *to drive* and *to talk* in the above examples.

The perfect infinitive is more or less frequent after verbs of mental perception, the verbs to *seem, to happen, to appear* and a few others. It shows that the action took place before the action of the predicate verb.

e.g. Their marriage was supposed **to have been** a very happy one.
A sense of timing is one of the things I seem **to have** learned from Jimmy.

The Perfect Continuous infinitive is mainly found after the same verbs as the Perfect infinitive. It shows that the action of the infinitive began before the time indicated by the finite verb and is still going on.

e.g. She was believed to **have been feeling** unwell for some time.
They seemed to have **been** getting on a bit better.

The forms of the two verbals are summed up in the following tables:

The Infinitive

	Active	*Passive*
Simple	to take	to be taken
Perfect	to have taken	to have been taken
Continuous	to be taking	—
Perfect Continuous	to have been taking	—

The ing-form

	Active	*Passive*
Simple	taking	being taken
Perfect	having taken	having been taken

§ **166.** The infinitive and the *ing-iorm,* like the finite forms, are always associated with a subject but the way their subject is expressed differs greatly from that of the finite forms.

Since the finite forms have the function of the predicate in the sentence, their subject is always the grammatical subject of the sentence. But the subject of the verbals may be expressed differently.

In a number of functions the subject of the verbals is the same as the subject of the sentence and, consequently, of the finite verb.

e.g. He struggled **to find** the first words of his story.
She wasn't used to **being** miserable without **doing** something about it.

But in certain other functions the subject of the verbal is frequently expressed by some secondary parts of the sentence.

e.g. He gave **her** permission **to leave.**
Seeing you there, by the door, made me remember what I had to do.
For the most part she was silent, the effort of speaking was too much for her.

Moreover, the subject of the infinitive and the *ing-form* may be found in a neighbouring clause or even in a different sentence.

e.g. She told **him** what a wonderful place it was **to take** her to.
There was a vast useless stretch of time **to fill. I** occupied my mind with the memories of my childhood.
Starting this relationship seems to me one of the better things you've ever done, however it ends.
"You won't do the same thing again, will you?" "I can't explain, but having done it just once is enough."

In all the above cases the relation between the action of the verbal and its subject becomes clear from the context as the subject is not expressed by any grammatical means.

Occasionally the subject of the verbal is not indicated at all — it is not found either in the sentence itself or in a wider context. In this case it is understood as any or every person or as an indefinite number of unidentified persons.

e.g. Knowledge is not something **to** boast about.
Writing good prose is not easy.

Finally, a verbal may have a subject of its own, specially expressed in the sentence. The way the subject is expressed is different in this case for the infinitive and for the ing-form.

The subject of the infinitive is expressed by a noun or an indefinite pronoun in the common case or by a personal pronoun in the objective case. It precedes the infinitive and the whole construction is introduced by the preposition *for.*

e.g. I'm not going to make a spectacle of myself **for people to talk about.**
For a bachelor to have such well-trained servants was a provocation to the women of the district.
It was rare **for him to** go **out** to dinner.
He was too embarrassed **for** us **to ask** him about anything.

This kind of construction is called the f**or-phrase.**

The subject of the ing-form may be expressed in four different ways: by means of a possessive pronoun (a), a personal pronoun in the objective case (b), a noun in the genitive case (c) and a noun or an indefinite pronoun in the common case (d).

e.g. a) I appreciate **your coming** to my defense.
b) I just couldn't complain about him and be the cause of **him losing** the job.
c) **Do** you recall **Richard's doing** that?
d) She was worried by **a** stranger staring at her from a dark corner.

The ing-form with its subject is called the **ing-complex.**

But the four complexes differ with regard to the frequency of their occurrence and their stylistic colouring.

Possessive pronouns are in current use, whereas the use of personal pronouns in the objective case is less frequent and distinctly colloquial. Conversely, we generally find nouns in the common case while nouns in the genitive case are by far less common and mainly typical of literary style.

Note. Note the pattern in which the subject of the ing-form is introduced by *there.*

e.g. We spoke about there being no one at the moment for him to turn to for help'

Verbals, like the finite forms, can be used in the active and in the passive. Accordingly, their subject may be either the doer (agent) of the action expressed by the verbal or may undergo this action, be acted upon.

e.g. I have not come here **to be insulted** but **to talk** to you as a friend.
I watched her for a little while without **being** seen.
He left us without saying good-bye.

The two different kinds of subject may be called the **active subject** and the passive **subject** of the infinitive or of the *ing-iorm.*

§ **167.** With regard to their meaning and function, the infinitive and the ing-form, like the finite forms, can be classed into two groups:

1) They can serve as notional verbs.

e.g. It amused him to tease the girl.
He went downstairs, **holding** on the banister.

2) They may also serve as structural words. Some of them, mainly the verb *to be,* may be used as link-verbs.

e.g. He is said **to** be a good chap.

Tom said something about it being pretty late.

The verb *to have* may be used as a modal verb.

e.g. Well, I'm sorry to **have** to tell you that.
He looked at his wrist-watch and talked about having to make a few calls before the visitor arrived.

The infinitive and the ing-form may also be used as auxiliary verbs to build up analytical forms, e.g. *to be taking, to have taken, to have been taking,* etc., *having taken, being taken,* etc.

Both verbals are widely used as second (or third) components of analytical finite forms.

e-g. She will be there.
She is working.
She has been reading.

§ **168.** The syntactic functions of the verbals and those of the finite forms do not coincide and therein lies the main difference between them.

The finite forms, as has been said, have one function in the sentence — that of the predicate. The verbals may perform a variety of functions. The most striking feature of the infinitive and the ing-form is that they have functions typical of different parts of speech. Sometimes they have noun functions (e.g. the function of the subject or the object).

e.g. **To know all** about English is one thing; **to know** English is quite another.
Everything you've planned **to do** is sensible.
Reading with us is the thing that we cannot do without.
If this is what you intend **asking** me, stop **wasting** your time.

The infinitive and the *ing-form* may also have adjective functions (e.g. the function of an attribute).

e.g. He was not a man **to do** rash things.
Singing people, arm in arm, filled the street.

The two verbals can also perform adverbial functions (e.g. the function of an adverbial modifier of purpose, consequence, time, manner).

e.g. I came here **to** discuss matters with you.
I had only to hear her voice **to know** what she felt.
After **hesitating** a moment or two, Jim knocked on the door.
You begin learning a language by **listening** to the new sounds.

The infinitive and the *ing-form* may also have purely verbal functions. This occurs in two different cases:

a) In certain sentence patterns they may serve as the predicate of the sentence.

e.g. Why not **go** with me?
What about **having** a look at my new house?

b) As is well known, in the absolute majority of English sentences the predicate is expressed by a finite verb. But the infinitive and the ing-form may serve to express a second action, accompanying the action expressed by the predicate verb.

e.g. I woke **to find** Maud cooking a meal (=and found).
He took a seat next to mine, **watching** my face with close attention (=and watched).

The infinitive and the ing-form may also serve as parenthesis, i.e. have the function performed by attitudinal adverbs.

e.g. **To tell** the truth, I'm beginning to find her a bore.
Frankly speaking, I'm at a loss.

§ **169.** In some of their functions the infinitive and the *ing-form* are lexically dependent. That means that their use is required by definite verbs, nouns and adjectives. For example, the verb *to want* requires an infinitive as object (e.g. *He wanted* **to see** *them at once.)* while *to avoid* requires an ing-form in this function (e.g. *For some time she avoided even* **mentioning** ***their*** *names.).* The same is true of the adjectives *ready* and *busy* that require an infinitive and an ing-form respectively. (Cf. *He was ready* **to do** *anything for her. She was busy* **packing** *her things.)*

Besides, the infinitive and the *ing-form* are in some functions also structurally dependent, i.e. they occur in quite definite sentence patterns. For example, the infinitive or the ing-form are found after a number of definite verbs, nouns and adjectives only in sentences with *it* as a formal subject.

e.g. It was a relief **to be** in the car again.
"It's no use going **on** like that," he said in an angry tone.

§ **170.** Although the syntactic functions of the infinitive and the ing-form differ from those of the finite forms, the two verbals can be modified by the same secondary parts of the sentence as the predicate verb.

e-g. He **told me about it himself.**
He wanted **to tell me about it himself.**
He insisted **on telling me about it himself.**
He saw her there alone yesterday.
He wanted **to see her there** alone yesterday.
He told me about seeing **her there alone** yesterday.

If a verb requires a prepositional object, the preposition is retained by the verbal when the object happens to be separated from it.

e.g. We've got a lot to talk about.
I'm not accustomed to being spoken to in that way.

Yet there is a difference between the two verbals and the finite forms. With finite forms, the secondary parts of the sentence usually follow the predicate, but they may also have front position.

e.g. *That year* winter set in early.
To relieve my feeling, I wrote a letter to Robert.

With the infinitive and the ing-form, the secondary parts are always found in post-position. The verbals may be preceded only by certain adverbs. Yet even instances of this are infrequent,

e.g. Critically to examine newcomers was one of the amusements at the boarding house.

My father was the coach of our swimming team, though his poor health prevented him from ever going into the water.

With finite forms, the negatives *not* and *never* normally either follow them or are placed within analytical forms of various kinds of compound predicates.

e.g. He *was* not there.
He *has* not *done* it.
He *should* not *do* it.
He *did* not *seem* tired.

With verbals, the negatives *not* and *never* always precede them, even if they are analytical forms.

e.g. I had learned a long time ago not *to show* what I felt.
He went on drinking his coffee, not *saying* anything more.
She knew that he had gone never *to return.*
I have kept him out of your life: keep him now out of mine by never *mentioning* him again.

§ 171. In addition to the above described features which the infinitive and the ing-form have in common, each of the two verbals possesses peculiarities of its own.

The infinitive is generally preceded by the particle *to,* but. in certain functions it is used without it, and in still other functions the use of the particle is optional. The use or the absence of the particle will be considered in connection with each of the functions of the infinitive.

Note. The infinitive and the particle *to* may be separated from each other by the insertion of an adverb between them, such as *never, ever, fully, really, even.* This is called a split infinitive.

e.g. She was the first person to ever understand me, Frank.
I'm sorry, I made a mistake. It was a mistake to even try to help you.

However, split infinitives are very rarely found in English.

If there are two or more infinitives in the same function following each other, the particle *to* is usually used before the first one and need not be repeated before the others.

e.g. Amy admired Lilian because she could do a lot of things — she was said, for instance, to dance and skate very well.

Sometimes, however, the particle *to* is repeated for emphasis, to make the action of each infinitive more prominent.

e.g. The hero, when the heroine hurts his feelings, is said to feel for a moment a wild desire of the caveman, the longing to seize her, to drag her with him, to give her a good beating.

The infinitive may sometimes be represented by the particle *to* alone. This happens when the infinitive is easily supplied from the previous context.

e.g. Joe said, "I don't think we are going to catch any fish."
"I never expect to," said Lizzy.
She would have listened if I had called her attention to it but I had already decided not to.

Another peculiarity of the infinitive is that it may be used as part of a phrase introduced by the conjunctive pronouns or adverbs *what, who, whom, which, when, where, whether, how* and *how long.* As most of them begin with *wh-,* this kind of infinitive group may be called the *wh-phrase* ['dablju *eic* freiz].

e.g- I didn't know what to say.
I couldn't decide whether to speak or not.

§ 172. The ing-form, in its turn, has peculiarities of its own. unlike the infinitive, it may, in certain functions, be preceded by a preposition.

e.g. For anybody as clever as you are, you're not really good **at deciding** things.

He told me that we were about to be turned out of our flat **for not paying** the rent.

The *ing-form* has another peculiarity: it may lose its verbal character and become adjectivized. In this case the ing-form becomes devoid of the idea of action and sometimes its lexical meaning is changed as compared with the meaning of the corresponding verb.

e.g. They found his ideas very **upsetting.**

His erect, rather **forbidding** figure made him look old-fashioned.

In the second example *forbidding* means 'суровый, неприступный'; it differs from the meaning of the verb *to forbid* ('запрещать').

Adjectivized ing-forms, like real adjectives, may be preceded by adverbs of degree, such as *very, rather, most, quite., how,* so, so ... as, etc.

e.g. She is always **so amusing.**

The results which he obtained proved to be **moat striking.**

Note 1. There are a number of ing-forms of this kind that are used only as adjectives in present-day English,

e.g. *interesting, charming, dashing,* etc.

Note 2. In English there are a considerable number of nouns in *-ing.* They may denote concrete things (e.g. *landing* 'лестничная площадка') or abstract notions, including actions (e.g. *beginning* 'начало', *singing* 'пение, *reading* 'чтение'). These nouns lack the above described properties of the ing-form and, like any other noun, may be associated with the article, definite or indefinite, with pronouns, such as some, *any, a lot of,* etc, or may be modified by adjectives.

e.g. The drums were silent: the singing stopped.

"My wife had once a vegetarian bulldog," said Mr Smith with pride. "Of course. it took some training."

I admired the dancer and asked if she ever did any real Indian dancing.

"I do a lot of travelling," he said.

She had an attack of violent sobbing.

Nouns in *-ing* denoting actions are called verbal nouns. They should not be confused with the *ing* form proper even when they denote actions (e.g. *reading writing, walking,* etc.).

The Participle

§ **173.** Although the participle has the same lexical meaning as the corresponding verb, it differs considerably from the finite forms as well as from the infinitive and the ing-form.

As the participle has only one form (see "Verbs", § 5 and Appendix), it does not possess any of the grammatical categories of the infinitive and the ing-form. Nevertheless, this form has its own grammatical meaning.

The grammatical meaning of the participle is closely connected with the lexical character of the verb.

The participle is, in the main, formed from transitive verbs and has passive meaning.

e.g. He had suits, and coats, and shirts **made** to order.

It was a question **put down** by one of the correspondents.

When the participle is formed from transitive terminative verbs, it denotes a state resulting from a previously accomplished action. This resultant state is simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate verb.

e.g. On arriving at the small building on the top of the mountain, she **found it locked.**

Alfred, **left** alone, **stood** motionless for some minutes.

A participle formed from a transitive durative verb denotes an action; it is simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate verb.

e.g. Tom was the happy husband, adoring and **adored,**

At last the Colonel, **accompanied** by his two daughters, **made** his appearance in the park.

The number of participles formed from intransitive verbs is very limited. They have active meaning and usually denote an action preceding that of the predicate verb.

e-g. She sat **down** on a **fallen** tree to have a short rest.

The house was **made** of unpainted plank, gone grey now.

Sometimes the participle is formed from an intransitive meaning of a polysemantic verb.

e.g.. His face was like a withered apple.

She looked at the faded photograph.

§ **174.** Like the finite forms and the other two verbals, the participle is always associated with a subject. But the means of expressing its subject are more limited than those of expressing the subject of the infinitive and the ing form.

The subject of the participle may be the person or thing denoted by the subject (a) or the object (b) of the sentence. It may also be expressed by the noun the participle modifies (c).

e.g. a) Suddenly **touched, she** came over to the side of **her** father's chair and kissed him.
b) He heard his **name called.**
c) A large fat man with a **face shaved** as smooth as marble stood in the doorway.

As the participle is, as a rule, formed from transitive verbs and has passive meaning, it mostly has a passive subject. But its active subject, the doer of the action, may also be indicated in the sentence with the help of a *by-phrase*.

e.g. I looked at the ceiling, **painted by some 18th century artist** now forgotten.

§ **175.** The participle can be used only as a notional verb (see the examples above and below); it never serves as a structural word. In this respect it also differs from the finite forms and the two other verbals.

But, like the infinitive and **the** ing-form, the participle is widely used as second (or third) component of analytical forms (e.g. The letter is **written. He** has **done** it. The matter has been **investigated.)**

§ **176.** The syntactic functions of the participle in the sentence are more restricted than those of the other two verbals. It mainly performs the functions of the adjective.

e.g. One day he landed in Santa Domingo in **torn** and dusty clothes.
He stood **amazed** at the door of the shop.

§ **177.** The participle, like the other two verbals, is, in some of its functions, lexically and structurally dependent. For example its use is required by the verb *to have* in the following pattern.

e.g. You'll never guess where I had the suit **made.**

The functions of the participle will be dealt with in detail below.

§ **178.** The participle, like the finite forms and the two other verbals, can be modified by secondary parts of the sentence. But the number of those modifiers is restricted and the participle phrase is never very extended. The secondary parts that modify the participle usually denote the place (a), or the time (b), or the doer of the action (c). They always follow the participle.

e.g. a) I had my suitcase **put in the corner of** a **third-class carriage.**
b) She told me of the parcel **delivered in the morning.**
c) They let him know of the decision **taken by the committee.**

The negative *not* is always placed before the participle.

e.g. Margaret, **not** convinced, was still arguing about it.

If the verb requires a prepositional object, the preposition is retained by the participle when the object happens to be separated from it.

e.g. He never uttered a word unless spoken to.
The blood in his cut seemed very dark. "You ought to have it **looked at," I** said.

§179. The participle often becomes adjectivized. (Adjectivization is even more typical of the participle than of the *ing-form.)* It becomes devoid of the idea of action and sometimes its lexical meaning is changed as compared with the meaning of the corresponding verb (see the second and third examples below)-

e.g. On the surface my life was **varied** and exciting; but beneath it was narrow.
He was an elegant gentleman though given to talking in a gruff voice (= склонный, имеющий обыкновение).
The streets, deserted now, looked frightening (= пустые, безлюдные).

The adjectivized participle may be preceded, like a real adjective, by adverbs of degree.

e.g. Is Mrs White really **very excited?**
Suddenly, looking **rather alarmed,** she rushed out of the room.
The road was **as deserted** as ever.

Note *1.* Some participles are used only as adjectives in present-day English, e.g. *tired, interested, accustomed* and others.

Note 2. There are a number of adjectives ending in *-ed* which are homonymous to participles. They are actually adjectives formed from nouns, e.g. *stockinged legs, propertied classes, a bearded face, a gifted person, a talented musician,* etc.

Adjectives built up on this pattern mean 'having stockings, having property, having a beard', etc.

§ **180.** The use of all the three verbals is characterized by one more peculiarity: the frequency of their occurrence varies greatly in different functions. In some functions their use is extensive, in other functions it is infrequent. At the same time, some of their functions are found only in literary style.

In describing the various functions of the verbals, special mention will be made of their frequency of occurrence and stylistic restrictions.

The Use of the Infinitive

The Infinitive as Subject

§ **181. In** this function the infinitive is always used with the particle *to* and usually expresses an action following the action denoted by the predicate verb.

e.g. **To fulfil** this condition was hopelessly out of my power.
To visit her was all that I desired.

The infinitive as subject may also express actions which are simultaneous with the action of the predicate verb,

e.g. **To visit** her **is** always a pleasure.

The infinitive often acquires the additional modal meaning of condition in this function. This meaning is generally supported by the use of the Conditional Mood in the sentence,

e.g. **To take** money from him *would be* like robbing a child (=if you took money from him...).

To take him seriously *would be* absurd (= if you took him seriously...)-

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § **166.**

Sentences with the infinitive as subject have certain structural peculiarities:

a) The infinitive as subject may be used only in declarative sentences; it is never used in interrogative sentences.

b) The infinitive is always placed at the head of the sentence; it is never preceded by any secondary parts.

c) We generally find the nominal predicate in sentences of this kind. The predicative is usually expressed by a noun or an adjective, qualifying the action denoted by the infinitive.

e.g. **To** go with him to picture galleries was **a rare treat.**
To do it seemed **a proper and natural thing.**
Not to go back was **awful.**

Sometimes another infinitive is used as predicative,

e.g. To influence a person is *to give* him one's thoughts.

The use of the infinitive as subject is mainly found in literary English but even there it is infrequent.

(For comparison with the ing-form see §§ 209 and 235.)

The Infinitive as Predicative

§ **182.** The infinitive is generally preceded by the particle *to* in this function and in most cases expresses an action which follows that of the link-verb.

The link-verb in sentences with the infinitive as predicative is always *to be.*

e.g. His highest ambition was **to write** a monumental work on art.
The job of a reporter is **to** expose and record.
His greatest wish was **to tell** her everything.
The only sensible thing is for you **to** go away.

The infinitive in this function always has appositive meaning, i.e- it explains the meaning of the subject of the sentence. Hence, sentences of this kind have the following structural peculiarity — the subject of the sentence can be expressed only by a limited number of nouns. They are nouns denoting abstract notions which

admit of and sometimes even require an explanation of their meaning. The most commonly occurring of these nouns are: *act, action, advice, aim, ambition, answer, business, consequence, custom, desire, difficulty, duty, function, habit, hope, idea, instruction, intention, job, method, need, object* (=aim), *order, plan, policy, problem, purpose, reason, requirement, role, rule, task, thing* (usually with an attribute), *thought, way, wish, work* and some others (see the examples above).

The subject of the sentence may also be expressed by *all* (and occasionally by *the least* and *the most)* modified by an attributive clause which usually contains the verb *to do.*

e.g. *All I want to do* is **to help** you.

The least we can do is **to try** and **understand** their idea.

The most he could do at the moment was **to give** me a cigarette.

After this type of subject the infinitive may be used without *to.*

e.g. *All I wanted to do* was **run** away.

All we can do is **stick** to our decision.

Sentences with the subject expressed by *all, the least* and *the most* cannot be used in the interrogative form.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

The infinitive as predicative, unlike the infinitive as subject, is found not only in literary style but also in spoken English.

(For comparison with the ***ing-form*** see **§§ 210** and **236.)**

The Infinitive as Predicate

§ **183.** The use of the infinitive as predicate is restricted to the following sentence patterns:

1) Interrogative (affirmative and negative) sentences begin' ning with *why* and implying a suggestion. We always find an **infinitive** without *to* here.

In interrogative-affirmative sentences the implication is that there is no need to perform the action,

e.g. Why **lose** your temper over a little thing like that?

Why waste your time on this kind of work?

In interrogative-negative sentences the implication is that there is nothing to prevent one from performing the action.

e.g. Why **not go** there right away?

Why **not apologize** if you know you're wrong?

The subject of the infinitive in this kind of sentences is always the person (or the persons) engaged in the conversation.

2) Exclamatory sentences showing that the person denoted by the subject is unlikely to perform the action of the infinitive — the speaker rejects the idea as impossible. The infinitive may be used with or without *to.*

e.g. You — a man-of-the-world — **to suggest** this! You know it's impossible.

"Try to write," she said, "you're expressive, you can say what you want; why not try to be a writer?" I couldn't keep from laughing at that. It was so absurd. Me — **write!** "No," **I** said with a laugh.

Such sentences are emotionally coloured and found only in spoken English, but they are infrequent.

(For comparison with the ing-form see § 211.)

The Infinitive as Part of a Compound Verbal Predicate

§ **184.** The infinitive is lexically dependent in this function — it is used only after certain verbs: a) after modal verbs (this use has been described in detail in "Verbs", § 76-120) and b) after the following intransitive verbs: *to seem, to appear, to turn out, to Prove, to happen, to chance.*

e-g- He seemed **to know** all about it.

I'm quite aware how improbable that sounds but it happens **to be** the truth.

He turned out **to have** no feeling whatsoever for his nephew.

These verbs may be followed by different analytical forms of the infinitive with *to.*

e.g. For a moment she appeared **to be hesitating.**

He seemed **to have gained** all he wanted.

The letter seems to have been mislaid.
In that same week I happened to have been enquiring whether all the invitations had been sent out.

As is seen from the above examples, the Perfect infinitive expresses an action which precedes the action indicated by the finite verb, while the Continuous infinitive expresses an action simultaneous with it.

The subject of the infinitive in this function is the same as the subject of the sentence (see the examples above). (For comparison with the ing-form see § 212.)

The Infinitive as a Second Action Accompanying the Action of the Predicate Verb

§ 185. The infinitive may express a second action in the sentence, accompanying the action of the predicate verb. The subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the predicate verb. This second action follows the action expressed by the predicate verb and may be called a subsequent action. Hence the term the infinitive of subsequent action.

The infinitive of subsequent action always follows the predicate and is used with the particle to.

The most commonly occurring verbs followed by this kind of infinitive are those of motion such as *to come, to hurry, to reach, to return, to run, to rush, to turn, to walk* and their synonyms as well as the verbs *to look* or *to glance* (followed by *up, down, across, about, round, toward,* etc.), *to wake up, to awake, to be awakened.*

The infinitive of subsequent action itself may also be expressed by a wide range of verbs of different lexical character, but by far the most frequently occurring verbs are *to discover, to find, to hear, to see* and their synonyms.

e.g. He turned to find her sad, calm eyes upon him. (= and found)
He returned ten minutes later to find Bridget ready for departure. (= and found)
I looked across to see Mr Jesmond smiling at me. (= and saw}
One night he awakened to hear a light rain whispering in the garden. (= and heard)
Then the sun came out again to brighten the last spatter of rain. (=and brightened)

As a rule, the action of the infinitive instantly follows that of the predicate verb, as in all the examples above. Sometimes, however, this immediate succession of actions is expressed in the sentence by means of special indications, such as *in time,* or *just in time, the next moment* and the like.

e.g. Alice arrived *in time* to hear Tom's remark.
Etta then shot out of the room *just in time* to shut the door behind her before she exploded into incontrollable shrieks of laughter.

If the action of the infinitive does not follow that of the predicate verb directly, there are usually special indications of time in he sentence.

e.g. I know of quite a few people who always start a new life on the 1st of January only to slip back to the old one *on the 15th.*
He walked out one morning without a word to anyone, to be heard of *some time afterwards* in Australia.

The infinitive of subsequent action is sometimes preceded by *only.* In this case the combination of the predicate verb and the infinitive usually acquires the following meaning: the action of the predicate verb becomes pointless and its effect is, as it were, brought to naught by the action expressed by the infinitive.

e.g. The motor started again, only to stop again in a moment.
He took off the receiver only to replace it.

The infinitive of subsequent action may be preceded by *never* to show that the action of the infinitive is not destined to take place.

e-g. She knew that he had gone *never* to return.
Young Hardcastle, when he attained the age of fifteen, had disappeared from his home *never* to be heard of again.

The infinitive of subsequent action is not in common use in English; it is mainly restricted to literary style.
(For comparison with the ing-form see § 213.)

The Infinitive as Object

§ **186.** The infinitive may be used as an object of a verb. It is lexically dependent in this function. We find it after the following verbs: *to agree, to arrange, to ask* (=to request), *to attempt, to begin, to care* (=to like), *to cease, to choose* (=to prefer), *to claim, to come* (=to begin), *to consent, to continue, to decide, to deserve, to determine, to expect, to fail, to fear, to forget, to go on, to hate, to help, to hesitate, to hope, to intend, to learn, to like, to long, to love, to manage, to mean, to need, to neglect, to offer, to omit, to plan, to prefer, to pretend, to promise, to propose* (=to intend), *to refuse, to regret, to remember, to start, to swear, to tend, to threaten, to try, to want, to wish* and some others.

e.g. They had arranged **to visit** the laboratory the next day.
Margaret continued to visit Jack in hospital.
I came **to know** him well towards the end of the war.
Do you mean to **say** he actually approves of it?
He did not propose **to forgive** this time.
He did not want **to be left** alone.
I pretended **not to be listening.**
She claims **to have read** his diary.

In addition to the verbs mentioned above, the infinitive as an object is used after the modal phrases *can afford* and *can bear* in their negative and interrogative forms,

e.g. Some say we cannot afford to **do** it. I say, we cannot afford **not** to **do** it.
Can you afford to **go** on such an expensive trip?
I couldn't bear **to damage** him.

The infinitive is also used after the set phrases *to make up one's mind, to take care, to take the trouble, to make sure,* and some others.

e.g. I took care to **ask** Strickland nothing about his own doings.
The next day he made sure to **buy** a copy of the newspaper.

With all the verbs mentioned above the infinitive is used with the particle *to* (see the examples above). The only exception is the verb *to help* which may be followed by an infinitive with or with out *to.*

e.g. Helen will help to make tea.
I'm sure you will help **talk** her out of it.

The subject of the infinitive in this function is the same as that of the predicate verb (see the examples above).

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 214 and 237.)

§ **187.** The infinitive may also be used as an object of an adjective. It is lexically dependent in this case. It is used after various kinds of adjectives: adjectives proper, predicative adjectives and adjectivized participles. The most commonly occurring of them are: *(un)able, afraid, aghast, amused, annoyed, anxious, apt, ashamed, astonished, bound, careful, certain, content, crazy, curious, delighted, determined, difficult, disposed, distressed, due, eager, easy, entitled, fit, fortunate, free, frightened, furious, glad, grateful, good, happy, hard, helpless, horrified, impatient, inclined, interested, keen, liable, (un)likely, lucky, moved, obliged, pleased, (im)possible, powerless, prepared, proud, puzzled, quick, ready, relieved, reluctant, resolved, right, safe, scared, set {=* determined), *slow, sorry, sufficient, sure, surprised, thankful, touched, useless, (un)willing, (un)wise, wonderful, worthy, wrong,* etc.

e.g. He's still very *anxious* to see you.
I am *curious* to **know** the news.
He would be *crazy* **not** to **do** so.
I felt *reluctant* to go **out.**
His next book is *sure* to be worthless.
Dinner was *ready* to be served.
The subject is now not *likely* to be raised during the talks.
I am *sorry* to have **done** you harm.

The infinitive is always preceded by *to* in this function.

Adjectives having infinitives as objects are generally used in the function of a predicative after the link-verb *to be* (see the examples above). Other link-verbs are also possible, though they are infrequent.

e.g.- He seemed glad to have me there.
I found them getting ready to go out.

In a vast majority of cases the subject of the infinitive is the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence (see the ex-

amples above). However, when the infinitive follows the adjectives *difficult, easy, good, hard, wonderful,* the subject of the sentence becomes the object of the action expressed by the infinitive.

e.g. Their language was not difficult **to understand.**
She was not easy **to discourage.**
I was angry because he was so hard **to persuade.**
The apples were good **to eat.**

Occasionally a for-phrase is used to indicate the subject of the infinitive,

e.g. He was impatient **for me to meet** them.
He was eager **for me to start** on my new job.
I am prepared **for everyone to** accuse me of being foolish.

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 215, **217** and 238.)

§ **188.** The infinitive as object may be part of a phrase introduced by the conjunction *whether* or one of the following conjunctive pronouns or adverbs: *what, who, whom, which, when, where, how* and *how long.*

e.g. I did not at all know **what to** say.
I don't know **who** else **to ask.**
Neither of us knew **when to begin.**
He had come away, not knowing **where to turn** or **what to do.**

As most of the conjunctive words begin with *wh-*, this kind of infinitive group may be called the wh-**phrase.** The infinitive in the phrase is always preceded by *to.*

As is seen from the above examples, the wh-phrase serves as an object of a verb. It usually occurs after the verb *to know* (see the examples above). Yet it may also follow some other verbs and set phrases, e.g. *to advise, to decide, to make up one's mind,* to *wonder* and some others.

e.g. He could not decide **whether to speak or not.**
I couldn't make up my mind **whether to accept** the **offer.**
I stood wondering **how to stop** the fight.
I'll ask my travel agent. He advises me **what to buy** and **where to** go.

As is known, infinitives generally do not serve as prepositional objects. However, the *wh-phrase* is occasionally found as a prepositional object of a verb or a set phrase.

e.g. As we talked **of where to meet, I** noticed something unusual in his tone.
Whether he had changed his mind **about what to say I** did not know.
She gave us orders **about how long to stay** there.

In most cases the subject of the infinitive in this function is the same as that of the predicate verb; occasionally it is expressed by some secondary part of the sentence (see the examples above).

Although the *wh-phrase* is not in frequent use, it is not restricted stylistically.

Note. The wh-phrase may, in theory, have all the functions of the infinitive in the sentence. But actually it mainly occurs as an object to the verb to *know.* Here, however, are some examples of the wh-phrase in other functions:

e.g. a) as an object to an adjective: No one seemed sure **how to act.**
b) as a predicative: The main problem is, of course, **where to go.**
c) as an attribute: I don't remember that I ever received any instruction on **how to put** sentences together.

§ **189.** The infinitive may serve as object in a special sentence pattern with a formal *it* as subject. It is lexically dependent here as it follows quite definite verbs.

The most commonly occurring verbs after which the infinitive is used in this function are: *to amaze, to annoy, to cause, to comfort, to delight, to distress, to enrage, to excite, to frighten, to hurt, to interest, to irritate, to mean, to occur, to please, to puzzle, to shock, to soothe, to startle, to stir, to surprise, to trouble, to upset, to worry* and some others.

The verbs in this sentence pattern are usually followed by some other objects (direct, indirect or prepositional) which precede the infinitive.

e-g. In those days my experience of life at first hand was small, and it excited me **to come** upon an incident.
It did not annoy him **to live** always in the same shabby room.
It pleased her particularly **to** see how often the other children asked her son how they should play.

It never occurred to him **to pretend** that he had no influence on events.

Besides, there are a number of set phrases which are in common use and are treated as verb equivalents. They are all different in structure and in meaning. But since they have the function of the predicate in the sentence they are best to be classed as verb equivalents and treated here.

e.g. It does me good to **watch** her playing with the other children.
It couldn't do any harm **to take** her out of town.
It will take a long time **to talk** over the whole of it with you.
It took several days for her **to** fully **realize** it.
A porter's voice informed them that it was time **to board** the train.
One morning it was his turn **to cook** breakfast.
Mr Brooke said it was up to the girl **to decide** whether or not **to** accept the invitation.

The infinitive is always preceded by *to* in this function.
The subject of the infinitive in most cases is the person denoted by the noun (or pronoun) object following the verb.

e.g. It would interest *him* **to hear** about it.
It didn't occur to *me* **to ask** him about it.

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 218 and 239.)

§ **190.** In a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal subject, the infinitive (with the particle *to)* as object is also found after a considerable number of adjectives, adjectivized participles and *ing*-forms. The most commonly occurring of them are: *absurd, advisable. amazing, astonishing, awful, awkward, bad, careless, characteristic, charming, complicated, convenient, correct, cruel, curious, customary, dangerous, decent, delightful, desirable, difficult, dull, easy, embarrassing, enough, essential, fair, fine, foolish, funny, futile good, hard, helpful, (dis)honourable, horrid, important, insulting interesting, intolerable, jolly, (un)just, kind, late, marvellous-monstrous, naive, (un)natural, (un)necessary, nice, normal, odd-pleasant, (im)possible, preposterous, proper, queer, (un)reasonable remarkable, ridiculous, right, sad, safe, satisfying, sensible, shocking, silly, splendid, strange, stupid, sufficient, suitable, surprising, sweet, terrible, typical, unbearable, useful, useless, vital, wicked, (un)wise, wonderful, wrong,* etc.

e.g. It's a little *late* **to admit** it, **I** know.
It was *surprising* **to hear** how strong his voice sounded.
It's *stupid* **to fall** asleep like this, it gives you a headache.
It's *wrong* **to hurt** people.
It was *unwise* **to be** rude to David.
It's *unusual* **to meet** a shy girl nowadays.
It's *important* **to remember** the figures.

Note. It should be mentioned that *it is worth while* is normally followed by an infinitive object whereas *it is worth* is modified by an *ing-form* object (see "Verbs", §219).

e.g. It might be worth while **to mention** that there is a train soon after 5.
Do you think it would be worth while to open a shop somewhere else in the neighbourhood?

The subject of the infinitive in this sentence pattern is usually associated with every or any person or an indefinite number of unidentified persons (see the examples above). Yet it is not unusual for the infinitive object in this sentence pattern to have a subject of its own. In this case the infinitive far-phrase is used.

e.g. It was rare *for him* **to** go **out** to dinner.
It's very good *for them* **to** have an older man with plenty of experience to come to for advice.
"Of course," said Mont, "it's natural *for young men* **to be** interested in politics."
It was necessary *for her* **to earn** her living as quickly as she could.

The peculiar feature of this sentence pattern is that the **infinitive** and its subject can be introduced by the preposition *of.*

e.g. "It's kind **of** you **to come,"** she said.
It was inconsiderate **of her to ask** that.
He thought it was wrong **of him to** go **off** forever and leave his mother all on her own.

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 219 and 239.)

§ **191.** The infinitive as object of an adjective is sometimes found in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal object of some verbs. They are commonly the verbs *to feel, to find, to make* and ***to think.***

e.g. I find it difficult **to believe** that anyone can be that lazy.
Yet I found it necessary **to tell** him that I had been in touch with Mont.
I had thought it impolite **to smoke** a cigar in her presence.
He felt it natural **to accept** hospitality.
His anger made it impossible for us **to continue** the conversation.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166. (For comparison with the *ing* form see §§219 and 220.)

The Infinitive as Subjective Predicative

§ **192.** The infinitive as subjective predicative is always preced ed by *to.* It is lexically dependent — it follows a number of transitive verbs used in the passive. The most frequently occurring of these verbs are: *to advise, to allow, to ask, to authorize, to be lieve, to command, to compel, to consider, to direct, to expect, to feel, to find, to force, to hear, to impel, to instruct, to intend, to invite, to know, to leave, to let, to make, to mean, to order, to permit, to persuade, to presume, to report, to request, to re quire, to rumour, to say, to schedule, to see, to sentence, to show, to suppose, to teach, to tell, to tempt, to think, to trust, to under stand, to watch* and some others.

e.g. I have been advised **to rest.**
He had been heard **to** discuss the possibility.
I believe they have been instructed **to report** to you by October.
Douglas was invited **to have** a drink with a Cabinet Minister.
No doubt no one could be persuaded **to give** her a job.
The public are requested **not to walk** on the grass.
He is said **to** be a good chap.

Note. When the verb *to know* is used in the Passive and is followed by an in finitive it may have two meanings — '**to** be aware' and 'to experience'. In the former case the verb *to know* is found only in the Present or Past Indefinite and is followed by the infinitive *to be.*

e.g. You **are known to be** a preposterously unselfish friend.
Mr Dinis, who **was known to be** interested in the case, made it clear that he would proceed with it.

In the latter case the verb *to know* is found only in the Present and Past Perfect and can be followed by other infinitives as well.

e.g. He **has** been **known to drop** a hint.
He's **been known to take part** in the work of different committees.

In the function of subjective predicative the infinitive is often used in its different analytical forms.

e.g. He was believed **to be preparing** a report on the incident.
Some professors are known **to have** disagreed with the authorities on students' demands.
The new system is intended **to be applied** in a month.
The victim is believed **to have been poisoned.**

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 221 and 240.)

The Infinitive as Objective Predicative

§ **193.** The infinitive as objective predicative is lexically dependent — it is used after a number of transitive verbs in the active followed by an object which is expressed by a noun or a pronoun. Most of these verbs require an infinitive with *to.* The most frequently occurring of them are: *to advise, to allow, to ask, to assume, to authorize, to beg, to believe, to cause, to challenge, to command, to compel, to consider, to enable, to encourage, to ex pect, to find, to forbid, to force, to get, to guess, to hate, to imagine, to impel, to implore, to induce, to inspire, to instruct, to intend, to invite, to know, to lead, to like, to love, to mean, to observe, to order, to permit, to persuade, to prefer, to press, to realize, to recommend, to request, to require, to suppose, to suspect, to take* (= to understand), *to teach, to tell, to tempt, to think, to trust, to understand, to urge, to want, to warn, to wish* and some others.

e-g. Why did he advise me to **visit** Westminster Abbey?
I must ask you **to ring** him **up** tonight.
You've encouraged people **to** believe that.
We can't force you **to stay** here.

Why don't you get my wife **to explain** it to you?
He ordered the door **to be thrown** open.
Did he urge you **to reconsider** your decision?

Note that after verbs expressing opinion or perception by far the most common infinitive is the verb *to be* which is a link-verb in this case.

e.g. No one could expect her **to** be happy.
I hope you'll find the new method **to** be of considerable interest.
I never took him **to** be a Norwegian.
I always believed him **to** be a brute.
He didn't mean this **to** be a long meeting.

There are a few verbs in English after which the infinitive as objective predicative is used without the particle *to*. They are: *to feel, to have* (=to get, to make), *to hear, to know* (=to experience), to *let, to make, to notice, to see, to watch.*

e.g. I felt Margaret's hand **tighten** in mine.
I had not heard him **speak** before, and now I realized that he was a good speaker.
What makes you **think** you have any talent?
In the library I noticed Diana **talk** for a moment with her sister alone.
She struggled for self-control, and I saw her hands **clench** and **unclench** spasmodically.
I've watched you grow for many years, from when you were a little baby.
She was not quite so naive as she would have had me **think.**

Note. The verb *to know* in the meaning 'to be aware' is generally used in the Present or Past Indefinite and followed only by the infinitive *to be* with the particle *to.*

e.g. We all **know** it **to be** impossible.
I **knew** that **to** be true.

In the meaning to experience', the verb *to know* is generally used in the Present or Past Perfect and may be followed by the **infinitive** of any verb. The infinitive is used without *to* in this case.

e.g. She is worried; **I've** never **known** her **lose** her nerve before.
1 had never **known** Hector behave like this.

The infinitive after the verb *to help* may be used with or without the particle *to.*

e.g. He said he would have helped me **move in.**
I was helping him **to win** as thoroughly as if my happiness were at stake.

Note. *To let somebody know* is a set phrase,

e.g. Why didn't you **let me know** you were coining?

The subject of the infinitive in the function of objective predicative is the noun or pronoun which serves as the object to the predicate verb (see the examples above). There are instances when the object of the predicate verb is a reflexive pronoun. Then it indicates that the subject of the infinitive is the same person or thing as denoted by the subject of the sentence.

e.g. Roger had made **himself seem** friendly again.

Note. Note the set phrases *can't bring oneself to do something* and to *set oneself to do something* which always require reflexive pronouns as objects.

e.g. But I still **can't bring myself to feel** the way he does about things.
I had set **myself to tell** the absolute truth.

§ 194. The infinitive as objective predicative is also used after **a** few verbs taking a prepositional object. The most regularly occurring of them are: *to appeal to, to call upon, to listen to, to long for, to look for, to nod to, to rely on, to wait for, to watch for.* After these verbs the infinitive is used with *to* except for the verb *to listen to* which takes an infinitive without *to.*

e.g. He was looking for someone **to help** him.
But later, I'd lie awake, watching for the light **to come** through the little window.
Her whole life had been spent *listening* to other people **talk.**
He nodded to the mechanics **to remove** the block.
They appealed to him **to** give **up** the idea.
They were waiting for dinner **to be announced.**

Occasionally, the infinitive as objective predicative may be found after a few verbs which do not regularly require prepositional objects. Here belong, for example, such verbs as *to arrange, to*

ask, to beckon, to cry, to manage, to plan, to provide, to shout, to sign, to telegraph, to wire and some others. The most commonly used preposition is *for*, but occasionally we may also find *with* or *to.*

e.g. Then she looked at me and beckoned for me to come over.
By the way, I must arrange for you to meet the old man some time.
I arranged with the concierge to make my coffee in the morning and keep the place clean.
I know that she telegraphed to Julia to come and bring me with her.
They drove up to the verandah steps and shouted to me to come down.

The subject of the infinitive is always the person or thing denoted by the prepositional object (see the examples above).
(For comparison with the *ing-form* see §§ 222 and 241.)

The Infinitive as Adverbial Modifier

§ 195. The infinitive may serve as an adverbial modifier of a verb. In this function it is used to express purpose, consequence, comparison, condition and exception.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

§ 196. The infinitive as adverbial modifier of purpose is always used with the particle *to.*

The number of verbs followed by an infinitive of purpose is not restricted and their lexical character may be quite different. But they are all alike in one respect — they all express actions deliberately carried out with a definite aim in view. In other words, these actions are aimed at the realization of the action denoted by the infinitive. The action of the infinitive follows that of the predicate verb and is unaccomplished as yet.

e.g. I dressed and went out to buy the morning paper.
I came in to see if I could help you pack, Alison.
I did my best to stop her.
He put his head out of the window to get some fresh air.

The infinitive of purpose may occasionally be preceded by the modifiers *in order* and *so as* which emphasize the idea of purpose.

e.g. I was silent for a moment in order to give greater force to my next remark.
Next we slid into the river and had a swim, so as to freshen up and cool off.

So *as* is quite common with a negative infinitive of purpose, however.

e.g. We had gone into the middle of Hyde Park so as not to be overheard.
She hurried so as not to give him time for reflexion.

The infinitive may also be preceded by other modifiers. Unlike *in order* and *so as,* which only make the idea of purpose more prominent, the other modifiers serve to add their own specific shades of meaning.

e.g. He opened his mouth wide as if to speak.
Christine smiled mockingly and turned away, as though to go out of the room.
He gave me a little smile as much as to say, "You see, I don't mean any harm."
"He had never cared for that room, hardly going into it from one year's end to another except to take cigars.
They were waiting in there just to see him.
He told his joke merely to gain time.

The infinitive of purpose generally follows the predicate verb (see the examples above). But if special stress is laid on the infinitive of purpose, it may be placed at the head of the sentence. However, it is not often found in this position,

e.g. To relieve my feelings I wrote a letter to Robert.
I forgive you. To prove it I'll drop in at your lab some time.

Occasionally the infinitive of purpose is placed between the subject and the predicate.

e.g. Ann, to pass the time, had left her kitchen to see whether Mr Faber was all right.

§ **197-** The infinitive as adverbial modifier of consequence is used with the particle *to*. It is structurally dependent — we find it in a peculiar sentence pattern the first part of which is *(he) had only to...* or *(he) had but to...* .

e.g. I had only to look at Mother **to know** the answer.
He had only to open the door **to find** them anxiously waiting for him.
Here was romance and it seemed that you had but to stretch out your hand **to touch** it.

In this sentence pattern the action of the infinitive is the consequence of the action expressed by the predicate verb — it is sufficient to perform the first action for the second action to follow. A similar pattern in Russian usually begins with *стоило только...* ,
The use of the infinitive of consequence is infrequent.

§ **198.** The infinitive as **adverbial modifier of comparison** is also structurally dependent. It is preceded by *than* and modifies a predicate group containing the comparative degree of an adjective or adverb. The infinitive is generally used with the particle *to*, though sometimes it may be found without it.

e.g. She seemed more anxious to listen to the troubles of others **than to discuss** her own.
I should have known better **than to expect** to find it.
Damn it, I've got more important things to do **than look** at the sea.
This function is not of frequent occurrence.

§ **199.** The infinitive (with *to)* may serve as an **adverbial modifier of condition.** In this case it expresses a condition under which the action of the predicate verb can be realized. The predicate verb is, as a rule, used in the form of the Conditional Mood.

e.g. **To hear** him talk, you would think he was a celebrity.
"He is a popular singer," Monica said. "You wouldn't believe it, **to look** at him," remarked Teddy.
The infinitive in this function is not frequent either.

§ **200.** The infinitive as **adverbial modifier of exception** denotes the only possible action that can be performed under the circumstances. The use of this infinitive is structurally dependent — it is preceded by *except* or *but* and is generally used in negative or interrogative sentences (after *nothing could be done..., he could do nothing..., what could he do..., he could not help...* and the like). The infinitive is, as a rule, used without *to.*

e.g. We care for each other and there is nothing to be done about **it, except tell** you the truth.
There was nothing to do **but escape.**
At nineteen minutes **to six —** I could not help **but watch** the clock — the telephone buzzed.
What could he do **but smile?**

The use of the particle *to* is an exception.

e.g. Daniel held out his arm to her. She had no choice **but to obey.**

The infinitive of exception is infrequent.

§ **201.** The infinitive may also serve as adverbial modifier of an adjective. In this case it is always an **adverbial modifier of consequence.** The infinitive here has the particle *to.*
The infinitive of consequence is not lexically dependent — it can modify any adjective. But it is dependent structurally as it can be used only in the following cases:
1) With adjectives modified by *enough,* which are, as a rule, predicatives in the sentence.

e.g. He was old *enough* **to be** her father.
I can't think who'd be stupid *enough* **to** side with you.
I hope he's sensible *enough* **to agree** to their proposal.
I had known him as a doctor, but was not old *enough* **to have known** him as a friend.
I was young *enough* for the children **not to feel** shy and they chattered merrily about one thing and another.

As is seen from the above examples, the action of the infinitive is made possible owing to the sufficient degree of the Quality expressed by the adjective.

Note. The infinitive can also serve as an adverbial modifier of consequence of an adverb modified by *enough.*

e.g. I wish I knew him well enough **to judge.**

2) With adjectives in the sentence pattern containing the correlative conjunction *so ... as.*

e.g. He was *so* fortunate as to escape.
If you are so stupid as to lend him your car you must expect it to be damaged.

It should be noted that sentences of the following kind have become polite formulas to express requests:

e.g. Would you be *so* good *as* to answer the telephone if it rings?
Would you be *so* kind *as* to send us your catalogues?

The infinitive in the sentence pattern with the correlative conjunction *so ... as* is not of frequent occurrence.

3) With adjectives preceded by *too.* The adjectives are generally predicatives in the sentence,

e.g. Everyone seemed to be talking, but I was *too* shy to take part in the conversation.
You're *too* young to start giving up your plans.
She told me she was *too* tired to go out.
He was *too* embarrassed for us to ask him about anything.

The action of the infinitive is made impossible owing to the excessive degree of the quality expressed by the adjective.

Note. The infinitive can also serve as an adverbial modifier of consequence of an adverb preceded by *too.*

e.g. He liked her too much to cause her any trouble.

(For comparison with the ing-form see §§ 223-225.)

§ 202. The subject of the infinitive in all the above described adverbial functions is the same person or thing as denoted by the subject of the sentence (see the examples above). But the infinitive may also have a subject of its own with which it forms the so-called absolute construction.

The absolute construction with the infinitive is introduced by the preposition *with.* The infinitive is used with the particle to.

The absolute construction has the function of adverbial modifier of attending circumstances in the sentence.

e.g. It was a quiet house now, with only his secretary to see to his meals and to take care of his business affairs.
Miss Heythorp is below, Sir, with a carriage to take you home.

As is seen from the above examples, there are two parallel actions in this sentence pattern: one of them is expressed by the predicate verb, the other by the infinitive. Each action has its own subject.

The infinitive absolute construction is infrequent and found only in literary style.

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see § 226.)

The Infinitive as Attribute

§ 203. The infinitive in the function of attribute immediately follows its head-noun and is used with the particle *to.*

e.g. There is only one way to do it.
You are just the man to do it.
He gave her permission to leave.
Have you any complaint to make against her?
He was touched by the man's desire to help him.
Whether you want to do that or not is a matter for you to decide.

Note 1. The infinitive *to come* undergoes change of meaning — it means 'будущий, предстоящий'.

e.g. He looked happy, as if he were dreaming of pleasures to come.
She did not realize it for months to come.

Note 2. If the infinitive is placed before a noun, it is part of a combination w**hich** tends to become a set phrase. The number of such phrases is limited, e.g. w*hat-to-do advice, this never-to-be-forgotten day, a much-to-be-longed-for place, an ever-to-be remembered occasion* and the like.

Although the infinitive mainly serves as an attribute of nouns proper, it is also freely used with certain noun equivalents. Thus it is typical of the infinitive to modify the indefinite pronouns *somebody, nobody, anybody, everybody, someone, no one, anyone, everyone, something, nothing, anything, everything* as well as the interrogative pronouns *what* and *who.*

e.g. "Have you got anything **to eat?**" Katherine asked-
The sergeant said they had nothing **to do** there.
It's been wonderful having someone **to help.**
"I haven't finished yet." "What is there **to finish?**"

The infinitive is also freely combined with ordinal numerals (mainly with *the first)* and the substantivized adjective *the last* which always have the function of the predicative in the sentence,

e.g. He was always *the first* **to enter** the dining-room and *the last* **to leave.**
Andrew was *the third* **to be interviewed.**

The infinitive also serves as an attribute to nouns which are preceded by ordinal numerals or the adjective *last.*

e.g. He was *the first man ever* **to** discuss the philosophy of science with Erik.
The film star Ann Wilson is *the 34th actress* **to play** this part on the London stage.
Dear Steve, *your last letter* **to reach** me was two months old.

The infinitive may also serve as an attribute of pronouns and pronominal expressions of quantity such as *much, little, enough, no more, little more, a great deal, a lot, plenty,* etc.

e.g. I've got *a lot* **to** be thankful for.
I thought you had *quite enough* **to do** looking after the house and so forth.
You are leaving me *very little* **to** say.
You've got so *much* **to learn.**

Occasionally the infinitive is used to modify the prop-word *one.*

e.g. If you, boys, want to go on **I'm** not *the one* **to spoil** the game.
He wasn't *an easy one* **to make** friends with.

§ **204.** The infinitive in the function of attribute is characterized by specific meanings. They are determined by the relation between the head-word and the infinitive. These relations may be of two kinds:

1) The head-word may be either **the subject or the object** of the action expressed by the infinitive. When the head-word serves as the subject of the infinitive it may be either active or passive, depending on the active (a) or passive (b) form of the infinitive.

e.g. a) He was not the man **to draw back** when his dignity was concerned.
She pitied the poor young man for having no one **to look** after him.
b) Remember, Roger is a man to **be** watched.
There is nothing **to be gained** by pretending.

The head-word of an active infinitive may also be an object of the action expressed by this infinitive.

e.g. Love? It's a funny word **to** use.
Except in little things, he was the hardest man **to influence.**
There was really nothing **to** fear.

In all the above examples we find the infinitive of verbs requiring a direct object. If a verb requires a prepositional object, the preposition follows the verb.

e.g. I'm not a very easy man **to get on with.**
I had nothing **to worry about.**
He realized that he didn't know anyone here **to talk to** except Max.

If the infinitive is a link-verb followed by an adjective which requires a prepositional object, the preposition is placed after the adjective.

e.g. We have, all of us here, a good deal **to be thankful for,**
I'm sure you have nothing **to be** afraid of.
I'm afraid I haven't much **to be proud of.**

If the head-word is the subject, active or passive, or the object of the action denoted by the infinitive, the latter acquires modal meaning. Depending on the context, it may denote either possibility (a) or necessity (b).

e-g. a) Marion was not the type **to put on** weight.
He was not the man to **do** rash things.
There was nothing **to be** seen **or heard,** not even a barking dog.

I had nobody **to talk to.**
Is there a place to get something **to eat** near here?

b) Whenever there is any packing **to be done,** my wife doesn't feel well.
I've got something dreadful **to tell** you.
There was a quarter of an hour **to kill,** so we walked down the river.
There is always a question or two **to be considered.**
I've got enough **to do** without bothering about you.

Note that the infinitive is not lexically dependent here. It can modify practically any noun, concrete or abstract, as well as noun equivalents (see the examples above).

Note. There is, however, one exception to the rule — the ordinal numerals and *the last* (or nouns modified by them) always serve as the subject of the infinitive but the infinitive does not acquire the additional modal meanings of possibility or necessity in this case.

e.g. He was *the first* to speak.

2) The head-noun may be neither the subject nor the object of the action expressed by the infinitive as attribute. In this case it acquires **appositive meaning,** i.e. **it** serves to explain the meaning of its head-noun. That is why it can modify only those abstract nouns that admit of or sometimes even require an explanation of their meaning. So the use of the infinitive with appositive meaning is lexically dependent.

The number of nouns with which it is used is quite considerable. The most commonly occurring of them are: *ability, advice, attempt, authority* (= right), *capacity, chance, command, compulsion, decision, demand, desire, determination, duty, eagerness, effort, excuse, failure, freedom, impulse, inclination, instruction, intention, invitation, keenness, license, longing, matter, motion* (= proposal), *necessity, need, obligation, occasion, offer, opportunity, option, order, patience, permission, possibility, power* (= right), *precaution, promise, proposal, readiness, recommendation, refusal, reluctance, resistance, resolution, right, sign, suggestion, temptation, tendency, urge, way, will, willingness, wish* and some others.

e.g. He had a keen desire **to learn.**
He had an impulse **to run away.**
He made an effort **to collect** himself.
He accepted willingly my invitation **to remain** for a few days in my apartment.
He's given me permission **to talk** to you myself.
You've no right to **ask** those questions.
Her eyes had a tendency **to shift** from point to point about the room.
He bit back the urge **to tell** a lie.
Ralph was glad of a chance **to change** the subject.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166. (For comparison with the *ing-iorm* see §§ 227-230, 242.)

§ 205. When the head-noun is neither the subject nor the object of the action expressed by the infinitive in the attributive function, the latter may acquire **the meaning of consequence.** This is found in certain sentence patterns or when the head-noun has special modifiers.

1) In the sentence pattern *"have (get, possess, lack) + the +* noun +■ infinitive".

e.g. He **had the courage to tell** them what he thought of them.
She **had the** nerve **to tell** me a lie!

The action of the infinitive is made possible owing to the quality expressed by the head-noun.

The infinitive is lexically dependent in this sentence pattern — it modifies a number of nouns that denote mental or moral qualities. The most commonly occurring of them are: *assurance, audacity, authority, cheek, courage, cruelty, decency, energy, experience, foolishness, good (bad) taste, guts, heart* (= courage), *humility, ignorance, imagination, impertinence, ingenuity, intelligence, knowledge, nerve, patience, power, presence of mind, sense, spirit, strength, stupidity, tolerance, vanity, willingness, will power, wit(s)* and some others.

e.g. They had the cheek **to run** away.
Why haven't you got the wit **to invent** something?
She lacks the knowledge **to do** it the way it should be done.
I can't think how you can have the impertinence **to remain** here.
She possessed the will power **to achieve** her aim.

The subject of the infinitive in this function is the same as that of the predicate verb.

2) When the infinitive serves as an attribute of a noun modified by *enough*. The noun can have different functions in the sentence. The infinitive is not lexically dependent here.

e.g. There wasn't *enough* air to stir the leaves of the lime trees.
He isn't fool *enough* to believe that sort of thing.
We need every man who has got *enough* spirit to say what he really thinks.
I noticed her curious trick of throwing questions at me when I could not have *enough* knowledge to answer.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

3) When the inifinitive serves as an attribute of a noun predicative modified by an adjective that is preceded by *too*. The infinitive is not lexically dependent here. (For the place of the article see "Articles", § 66.)

e.g. He was too clever a man to be bluffed.
This is too serious a business to be trifled with.

The action of the infinitive is made impossible owing to the excessive degree of the quality expressed by the adjective that modifies the head-noun.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

4) In a sentence pattern where we find the correlative conjunction *such* ... as.

e.g. He can't have been such a fool as to give them a definite answer right away.

The use of the infinitive of consequence in the last three sentence patterns is not of frequent occurrence.

§ 206. The infinitive may be used as attribute in a special sentence pattern with a formal *it* as subject. The infinitive is lexically dependent here — it can modify a more or less limited number of nouns. Among them we find such se-mantically "pale" nouns as *action, business, experience, idea, matter, problem, question, stuff task, thing, way.* As a rule, these nouns are modified by adjectives which are semantically more important than the nouns themselves. The most frequently occurring other nouns are: *achievement, (dis)advantage, comfort, consolation, cruelty, custom, de light, desire, dream, duty, embarrassment, encouragement, error, folly, frustration, fun, habit, hell, honour, intention, job, joy, luxury, madness, miracle, misfortune, mistake, nonsense, outrage, pity, plan, pleasure, privilege, relief, rule, shame, surprise, torture, treat, triumph, trouble, wonder* and some others. The infinitive has appositive meaning in this sentence pattern.

e.g. It's a good idea to use both methods.
It's our job to worry about that, isn't it?
It was a mistake to deny it.
But it was a surprise to hear him insisting on it.
It was utter nonsense to suggest that he was lying.
It was my intention to show her how greatly she had underestimated me.
"It must be a terrible thing to have received a classical education," she said soberly.
It's a great disadvantage to be held back by middle-class morality.
It was a bitter experience for Philip to learn that his best friend had let him down.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

(For comparison with the ing-form see §§ 231 and 243.)

§ 207. The infinitive is also used as attribute in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal object of a verb. It is mainly found after the verbs *to find, to make* and *to think.*

e.g. I think Helena finds it rather a lot of work to clean the place.
Everyone now called him Reggie, but he still found it an effort to get used to it.
He thought it great fun to be out boating.
He made it a point to call her by her first name.
He had made it a rule to get up at sunrise.
He found it a good idea to send them a telegram.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the infinitive see "Verbs", § 166.

The construction is not of frequent use in English though it is not restricted to any style.

(For comparison with the *ing-form* see § 232.)

The Infinitive as **Parenthesis**

§ **208.** The infinitive as parenthesis is used with *to.* It is generally a set phrase, such as so *to speak, strange (needless) to say, to be quite frank, to make matters worse, to put it mildly (crudely), to say the least, to tell the truth* and some others.

The infinitive phrase as parenthesis serves either to show the speaker's attitude towards the situation described in the sentence or to attract attention to some fact or to sum up an idea, and, last but not least, it may serve as some sort of reservation on the part of the speaker.

e.g. **To tell the truth,** I'm sick and tired of this nonsense.
To put it mildly, she is just a bit inquisitive.
To make matters worse, it began to rain and soon we got wet to the skin.
When they found out I was not one of them, **so to speak,** they politely turned from me and ignored me.

The place of the parenthetic phrase in the sentence is not fixed though it is actually often found at the head of the sentence. In writing it is marked off by a comma.

The Use of the ing-form

The ing-form as Subject

§ **209.** The *ing-form* in the function of subject usually expresses permanent or recurrent actions simultaneous with the action expressed by the predicate **verb,**

e.g. **Looking** after one man is really enough, but two is rather an undertaking.
Passing a law about equal rights doesn't necessarily mean that women get them.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the ing-form see "Verbs", § **166.**

Sentences with the ***ing-form*** as subject have certain structural peculiarities:

1) We find the *ing-form* as subject only in declarative sentences. It is never used in interrogative sentences.

2) The *ing-form* as subject is always placed at the head of the sentence. It is never preceded by any secondary parts.

3) The *ing-form* as subject is occasionally found in sentences
beginning with *there is,* but its use is restricted to negative sentences where it is usually preceded by *no.* This pattern is common in spoken English.

e.g. There was **no arguing** with her about it when she had made up her mind.
Well, there is **no avoiding** him now.
Of course, I am scared to hell. There's **no denying** that.

On the whole, however, the use of the ing-form as subject is mainly found in literary English but even here it is not of frequent occurrence.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 181 and 235.)

The *ing-form* as **Predicative**

§ **210.** The *ing-form* as predicative is usually used after the link-verbs *to be, to mean* and *to look* and has appositive meaning.

e.g. The important part is **helping** people so that they can live normal lives.
I can't ask him for help. That would mean **telling** him everything about you and myself.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the *ing-form* see "Verbs", § 166.

The *ing-form* as predicative is often preceded by *like.* It also has appositive meaning here, but the explanation is made by way of comparison.

e.g. To read his novels was **like swimming** in a lake so clear that you could see the bottom.

At the time their quarrel looked **like going** on for ever.
Andrew looked **like a small boy being teased.**

Instances of the *ing-form* as predicative are scarce.

Note. The ing-form as predicative is sometimes adjectivized.

e.g. That must be enormously exciting.
The journey was slow, rough and tiring and took us eleven days.
Hugh's tone got more and more insulting.

If the *ing-form,* were not adjectivized it would be taken for a continuous form.

e.g. The quarrel ought to be stopped. They are insulting each other.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 182 and 236.)

The *ing-form* as **Predicate**

§ **211.** The *ing-iorm,* as predicate is restricted to two sentence patterns:

1) interrogative sentences beginning with *what about* and *how about* and implying suggestion,

e.g. What about going to London?
How about seeing what they are doing now?

2) exclamatory sentences expressing indignation,

e.g. But **letting** him do it!

Sentences of both kinds are quite common in spoken English.
(For comparison with the infinitive see § 183.)

The ***ing-form*** as **Part of a Compound Verbal Predicate**

§ **212.** The *ing* form is lexically dependent in this function — it is used after a number of verbs denoting motion or position. They are: *to come, to disappear, to go, to go out (round, around, about), to lie, to sit, to sit around (round), to stand, to stand around (round).*

e.g. They came **rushing** in, laughing.
They had often gone **fishing** in those days.
Are we going out **dancing** tonight?
He went about sniffing the air but there was no trace of gas.
They all sat around feeling very proud.
"I'm ready," he said to Maurice and stood **waiting.**
Next morning I woke early and lay **listening** to the clatter of dishes in the kitchen.
He disappeared **walking,** there was no noise, nothing.

The two verbs of the combination form a close sense-unit. The first component has a weakened meaning and mainly serves as a finite verb, while the meaning of the ***ing-form*** is quite prominent and determines the meaning of the whole combination.

e.g. In that mood I entered the bedroom, where Sheila was lying reading, her book near the bedside lamp.
Sometimes she fell into despondency and sat **doing** nothing at all, neither reading nor sewing for half an hour at a time.

Note. Note the following set phrases:

e.g. I burst out laughing, and the others followed.
All at once she burst out crying.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § 184.)

The ing-form as a Second Action Accompanying the astion of the predicate verb. the Action of the Predicate Verb

§ 213. The *ing-form* may express a second action accompanying the action expressed by the predicate verb. The subject of the *ing-form* is the same as the subject of the sentence.
The *ing-form* in this function refers not to the predicate verb alone but to the whole predicate group. It does not form any close sense-unit with the predicate verb and can be found with verbal as well as with nominal predicates.
The ***ing-form*** is not lexically dependent in this function.

e.g. They ran up the stairs brimming with excitement.
ou can't just sit there being **talked** about.
I felt uneasy **being** alone with him in that large house.
Martha was upstairs getting ready.
When I looked up he was still there waiting for me.
She was sitting in the doorway of the tent reading.

As a rule, the *ing-form* follows the predicate group (see the examples above). But it may also be placed at the head of the sentence or between the subject and the predicate,

e.g. **Coming** into my office one evening in the autumn, he said shyly: "Doing anything tonight?"

Watching them with bold, excited eyes, Simon discussed their characters.

I made to go out, but Roger, **frowning,** shook his head.

In the taxi going home, Margaret, **holding** my hand against her cheek, said: "You made a mistake, you know."

Note 1. When the ing-form is used to denote a second action, it is often separated by a comma from the rest of the sentence.

Note 2. The ing-forms of certain verbs have come to be used as prepositions or conjunctions. Care should be taken to distinguish them from the real *ing* forms.

e.g. Several officials, **including** me, had been invited.

He says he **will** be at the meeting place for three nights running next week **beginning** on Monday.

Well, considering that Hector's a politician, you can't say that he's altogether a fool.

Presuming the old man gets better and comes back to the job, then what?

Supposing you sold the land, what could you get for it?

"That will be all right, **barring** accidents" I told him at once.

Note 3. Note that *taking all things into consideration (account)* has become a set phrase,

e.g. **Taking all things into consideration,** I decided to tear my letter up.

In the vast majority of sentences we find a simple *ing-iorm* which expresses an action simultaneous with that of the predicate verb (see the examples above). Yet if both the predicate verb and the ing-form are expressed by terminative verbs, the action of the ing-form precedes that of the predicate verb. The ing-form in this case is placed before the predicate,

e.g. **Turning** to his hostess, he remarked: "It's been a nice day."

(=He first turned to his hostess and then remarked.)

Recovering from his excitement, he became practical again.

Smith, **turning** to him, gave a serious contented smile.

The use of the perfect **ing-form,** though quite possible, is not of frequent occurrence. It shows that the action of the ***ing-form*** precedes that of the predicate verb. The Perfect ing-form is often placed before the predicate **verb.**

e.g. **Having** duly **arrived** in Scotland, he took a train the next day to Manchester.

Having cut her dirty bandage, John started tying her hand.

Having gradually **wasted** his small fortune, he preferred to live on the generosity of others rather than work.

Francis was there before me, **having** come by the morning train.

Norman, **having looked** at his watch, slapped the play-script shut and put it on his chair.

As has been said, the subject of the ing form is usually the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence (see the examples above). Occasionally, however, we come across instances of the ing form whose subject is expressed elsewhere, for instance, by one of the secondary parts of the sentence.

e.g. **Walking** beside his friend, it seemed to **Norman** that life was not so bad after all.

But back in his office, **looking** down at his desk, **his** sense of well-being left him.

I love you like hell, Bridget. And, **loving** you like hell, you can't expect **me** to enjoy seeing you get married to a pot-bellied, pompous little peer who loses his temper when he doesn't win at tennis.

But **searching** for i's not dotted, t's uncrossed in his letter, it came to **him** that all he had written were lies, big lies poured over the paper like a thick syrup.

The above use of the ing-form is not common. Since usually the subject of the ing-form is the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence, it is not easy to identify the subject of the ing-form in sentences of the above kind. Hence, the term **dangling or unattached** is applied to this ing-form in grammar.

The ing-form denoting a second action in the kind of sentences illustrated above is typical of literary style where its use is quite extensive, but it is hardly ever used in spoken English.

However, the ing-form denoting a second action is quite common in spoken English after certain predicate groups. Here belong

the verbs to *spend* and *to waste* when they are followed by the noun *time* or some other expressions of time, and also after to *have a good (hard, jolly,* etc.,) *time, to have difficulty, to have trouble* and some others,

e.g. She did little typing herself, but spent her time correcting the work of the four girls she employed.
Are you going to spend your life saying "ought", like the rest of our moralists?
She told me that she would often spend a whole morning working upon a single page.
Well, I'm sure I don't know why I waste time cooking a big meal for this family if no one wants to eat it.
He had a good time dancing at the club.
They had difficulty finding his address.

In spoken English there is another sentence pattern in which the *ing-form* denoting a second action is also quite common. The sentence pattern includes the verb *to be* followed by an indication of place: *to be here (there), to be in, to be in the room (kitchen, garden, office,* etc.,), to *be out, to be upstairs (downstairs)* and the like.

e.g. Mother is out shopping.
Pat is downstairs talking to Father.
Miss Smith was in her office typing.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § 185.)

The ing-form as Object

§ 214. The *ing-form* may be used as a direct object of a verb. It is lexically dependent in this function and found after the following verbs: *to admit, to avoid, to begin, to cease, to consider, to continue, to delay, to deny, to endure, to enjoy, to escape, to finish, to forget, to give up, to go on, to hate, to intend, to keep, to keep on, to leave off, to like, to love, to mention, to mind* (in negative and interrogative sentences), *to neglect, to postpone, to prefer, to propose* (= to suggest), *to put off, to quit, to recall, to recollect, to regret, to remember, to resent, to resume, to risk, to start, to stop, to suggest, to try* and some others.

e.g. English grammar is very difficult and few writers have avoided making mistakes in it.
The rest of us had finished eating, but Cave had cut himself another slice of cheese.
Roger went on speaking with energy, calculation and warmth.
He kept on smiling at her and speaking.
He drank his beer and resumed reading his paper.
I was in low spirits and even considered going away.
David Rubin did not much like being" called Professor.

In addition to the verbs mentioned in the list above, the *ing-iorm* as object is used after certain modal phrases in the negative form: *can't bear, can't face, can't fancy, can't imagine, can't resist, can't stand* and *can't help.*

e.g. They can't bear being humiliated.
He could not face being talked about.
Later in the day she couldn't resist calling Mrs Spark to find out the details of the tragedy.
He couldn't help asking me: "Isn't there anything else you can do for Roger?"

Besides, the *ing-form* is also used after the set phrase *to feel like.*

e.g. He felt like giving up the whole affair.
I didn't feel like talking to him after what had happened.

The subject of the *ing-form* in this function is the same as that of the predicate verb.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 186 and 237.)

§ 215. The *ing-form* may also serve as a direct object of an adjective. It is lexically dependent in this case and found only after two adjectives — *busy* and *worth.*

e.g. The foreman was *busy* shouting orders and instructions.
The children were *busy* doing all the things they had been told not to do.
He thought my idea was *worth* trying.
It was not a witticism *worth* repeating.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 187 and 238.)

§ **216.** As a prepositional object of a verb, the ing-form is also lexically dependent. It is found after verbs that take a prepositional object. These verbs may be divided into three groups:

1) verbs followed by one prepositional object,

2) verbs followed by a non-prepositional object and a prepositional object,

3) verbs followed by two prepositional objects.

I. The verbs of the first group are closely connected with a preposition whose meaning is often weakened. The following is the list of the most commonly used verbs: to *admit to, to agree to, to aim at, to apologize for, to approve of, to believe in, to bother about, to care for, to come of, to come round to, to complain of, to confess to, to consist of/in, to count on, to despair of, to dream of, to end in, to forget about, to feel up to, to get to, to get down to,* to *go back to, to grumble about, to hesitate about, to insist on, to lead to, to long for, to mean by, to persist in, to plan on, to reckon on, to refrain from, to return to, to result in/from, to save from, to succeed in, to take to, to talk of, to tell of, to think of/about, to threaten with, to worry about* and some others.

e.g. What did she mean **by boasting** like that?
I didn't think twice **about telling** her: we had no secrets.
It does not seem impossible that the biologist will in the future succeed **in creating** life in his laboratory.
The readers of a book insist **on knowing** the reasons of action.
Let's get down **to signing** the papers.
Towards the end of the summer, they visited me together several times, and then Norman took **to coming** alone.
I had never been on an aeroplane and worried **about** being **strapped** down.
I must apologize **for having interrupted** a conference.

Here also belong certain set phrases, such as: to *find excuses for, to have no doubt about, to look forward to, to lose time in, to make a point of, to plead guilty to, to take pride in* and some others.

e.g. I took pride **in making** my lodgings pretty and comfortable.
He was taking risks **in speaking** in that tone to them.
I expect you are looking forward **to seeing** your fiance again-

Special attention should be given to set phrases with the verb to *be* which are treated as verb equivalents.

e.g. Would you be up **to playing** with us this afternoon?
She was just on the point **of going** away when Betty Vane came in.
"Would you be in favour **of investigating** the matter?" Monty asked.

The subject of the action expressed by the ing-form is generally the person denoted by the subject of the sentence (see the examples above). But occasionally we find an ing-complex (see "Verbs", §66).

e.g. I don't in the least object **to your playing** practical jokes on other people.
She complained **about the porridge being** lumpy.

The use of an ing-complex seems to be generally required by the verbs *to approve of, to disapprove of, to grumble about* and some others. (We usually approve of or grumble about some other people's actions — hence the agent of the ing-form is expected to be a person or thing other than the one denoted by the subject of **the** sentence.)

e.g. He could not approve **of Guy's hiding** himself away.
We can't grumble **about things being** dull, can we?

II. Verbs requiring a non-prepositional and prepositional object are in general less numerous. Besides, not all of them take an ing-form as their prepositional object (e.g. *to explain something to somebody, to dictate something to somebody,* etc.).

Of the verbs taking a non-prepositional and prepositional object expressed by an *ing* form, the most commonly occurring are: *to accuse somebody of, to amuse somebody with, to ask somebody about,* to *charge somebody with, to coax somebody into, to give something to, to give something for, to invite somebody into, to keep somebody from, to mutter something about, to persuade somebody into, to remind somebody of, to restrict oneself to, to save somebody from, to say something about, to stop somebody from, to suspect somebody of, to talk somebody into/out of, to tell something about an*d some others.

e.g- I am prepared for anyone to accuse me **of being** cowardly.
It had been easy to coax Margaret **into inviting** the Morgans to stay with us for a week.

Did she suspect them of trying to cheat her?
I hope you won't let Peg talk you out of joining me?
It is lack of imagination that prevents people from seeing things from any point of view but their own.
Will you be able to keep those fellows from making any more fuss?

Of all the prepositions there is one that acquires particular importance in this construction as it may be found with a considerable number of verbs and is, consequently, of frequent occurrence. It is the preposition *for*. It generally serves to indicate the cause of the action denoted by the predicate verb.

For is found after the following verbs: *to blame somebody, to excuse somebody, to forgive somebody, to hate somebody, to like somebody, to love somebody, to pay somebody, to reprimand some body, to reproach somebody, to scold somebody, to thank somebody* and some others.

e.g. I thought you had just been blaming me for being neutral.
I'm not going to reproach you for interrupting the rehearsal.
I was going to thank you for looking after him till I came.
The major reprimanded him for being late.
He scolded me for not having let him know.
The subject of the *ing-form* in this sentence pattern is the person denoted by the direct object, as in *She tried to talk* him *into* doing *it* (see also the examples above).

After verbs of speaking we often find an ing-complex.

e.g. I told them about Gustav's wanting to come with me.
I said something about Jane being in love with him, but he would not talk about her.
I muttered something about its being a pity.

III. The number of verbs requiring two prepositional objects of which the second is an *ing-form* is limited. The *ing-form* is also introduced by the preposition *for*, as with some verbs above,

e.g. I entered the classroom and apologized to the teacher for being late.
I should have been vexed with you for thinking me such a fool.

§ 217. The *ing-form* as a prepositional object is also found after various kinds of adjectives — adjectives proper, predicative adjectives and adjectivized participles. The most commonly occurring of them are: *absorbed in, (un)accustomed to, afraid of, amused at, angry with, annoyed at, ashamed of, aware of, (in)capable of, careful about/in, careless of, certain of, clever at, (un)conscious of, content with, delighted at, different from, embarrassed at, ex cited about, far from, fond of, fortunate in, frightened of, furious at, given to, good (better) at, grateful for, happy in/at, interested in, irritated at, keen on, miserable at, nice about, pleased at, proud* of, *responsible for, right in, scared at/of, set against, set on, sick of, skilled in/at, slow in, sorry for, successful in/at, sure of, surprised at, thankful for, tired of, touched at, upset at, (un)used to, worried about, wrong in,* etc.

e.g. If only I were capable of doing that!
We were never very careful about taking precautions.
"You look for trouble, don't you?" "Only because I'm pretty certain of finding it.
" I was fairly content with letting things go as they were.
Somehow I wasn't too interested in trying to get back into that work.
I was tired of doing much the same thing every day.
"I'm sorry for giving you so much trouble," she said.
I felt that he was excited about showing me his new car.
He was unconscious of Anna standing beside him.

For means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the ing-form see "Verbs", § 166.
(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 187 and 238.)

§ 218. The ing-form may serve as object of a verb in a special sentence pattern with *it* as a formal subject. The use of the *ing*-form in this sentence pattern is found after a very limited number of verbs and set phrases (which are verb equivalents) but it is typical of spoken English.

e.g- He said to his wife: "It doesn't matter much being liked, for this kind of life."
When it comes down to getting a job with a living wage attached to it, he's prepared to put his theories in his pocket.

She was, as her colleagues said, "good on paper", but when it came to speaking in committees she was so apprehensive that she spent sleepless hours the night before.
For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the ing-form see § 166.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 189 and 239.)

§ **219.** The ing-form may be used as a direct object of an adjective in a sentence pattern with if as a formal subject. This kind of object is also lexically dependent — it regularly occurs after *it is worth.*

e.g. It is worth **remembering** that he has once been a boxer.
It is worth **finding** it out.

Sometimes the ing-form is found after a number of other adjectives such as *amusing, banal, comfortable, difficult, dreary, easy, great, hopeless, lovely, nice, odd, pleasant, strange, tough, useless, wonderful,* etc.

e.g. It was difficult getting him to do it.
It won't be easy **finding** our way back. There's not much moon.
It will be rather nice **seeing** him again.
It was useless **arguing** with Jane.

But the ing-form occurs after these adjectives only in spoken English, and such sentences are often emotionally coloured. As a general rule, we find an infinitive here (see "Verbs", § 190).

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the ing-form see § 166.

§ **220.** The ing-form is sometimes found in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal object of the verbs *to find, to make* and *to think.* The formal *it* in this case is followed by an adjective.

e.g. He found it worth **reminding** her of her promise.
He thought it very odd my **leaving** when I did.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denote by the ing-form see § 166.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § **191.)**

The *ing-form* as Subjective Predicative

§ **221.** The ing-form as subjective predicative is lexically dependent. It is found after a limited number of verbs in the passive. These verbs are: *to catch, to find, to hear, to leave, to notice, to report, to see, to set, to show, to watch.*

e.g. I felt I had been caught **boasting.**
The baby was found **sitting** on the floor.
The old woman was heard **shrieking** in short bursts like a ship in the fog.
When the door closed, Monty and I were left **looking** at each other.
About that time a hurricane was reported **moving** out of the Caribbean in our direction.

Here also belong a few verbs after which the ing-form is introduced by *as.* They are: *to accept, to consider, to explain, to guarantee, to mention, to regard, to take, to treat, to understand,* Here also belong the verbs *to speak of* and *to think of* which retain their prepositions in this sentence pattern.

e.g. The Browns did not entertain and were spoken of in the district as **being** "poor as church mice".
Janet and I became very friendly, and at school we were considered as **going** together.

The use of the ing-form as subjective predicative is not of frequent occurrence.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 192 and 240.)

The *ing-form* as Objective Predicative

§ **222.** The ing-form as objective predicative is lexically dependent — it is used after a number of transitive verbs in the active followed by an object which is expressed by a noun or a pronoun. The following are the most frequently used verbs taking a direct object: *to call, to catch, to discover, to feel, to find, to hear, to get, to imagine, to keep, to leave, to (dis)like, to notice, to picture, to see to send, to set, to stop, to watch, to want.*

e.g. I felt him **looking** at me now and again.
When he arrived he found me reading *Tom Jones.*

Just as I got to the end of the corridor, I heard my telephone ringing again.
Ellen had noticed me talking with the landlady.
He saw me watching him.
One afternoon in August I saw something that surprised me and set me thinking.

This construction is also found after two verbs taking a prepositional object — *to listen to* and *to look at.*

e.g. We opened the door for a moment and looked out at the windy night and listened to the trees groaning.
He looked at Jane wiping her tear-wet face.

Here also belong a few verbs after which the ing-form is introduced by *as: to accept, to consider, to explain, to guarantee, to mention, to regard, to speak of, to take, to think of, to treat, to understand.*

e.g. You took his statement as being quite in order.
He has spoken of your relatives as though he would never accept them as being his.
We always thought of him as being "promising."

With all the above verbs, the object that precedes the *ing-iorm* is expressed by a noun in the common case or by a personal pronoun in the objective case, and serves as subject of the action denoted by the ing form. But there are a number of other verbs after which the object may be expressed either in the above described way or by a noun in the genitive case or a possessive pronoun. These verbs are: *to appreciate, to dread, to excuse, to fancy, to forget, to forgive, to hate, to have, to imagine, to mind, to miss, to pardon, to prevent, to recall, to remember, to resent, to (mis)understand* and also *can't bear, can't help* and *to catch sight of.*

e.g. Forgive my (me) interrupting you, Mr Passant, but with a school record like yours I'm puzzled why you don't try for a university scholarship?
I appreciate your (you) coming to my defense.
Do you recall Bayard's (Bayard) doing that?

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 193 and 241.)

The ing-form as Adverbial Modifier

§ 223. The ing-form can serve as an adverbial modifier of a verb. In this case it is preceded by a conjunction or a preposition which lend it adverbial meanings, such as time, concession, condition, attending circumstances, manner, cause and some others. The adverbial meaning of the *ing-form* is determined by the meaning of the preceding conjunction or preposition. The *ing-form* is not lexically dependent here — it may be used after any verb. For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the *ing-form* see "Verbs", § 166.

§224. The *ing-form* may be preceded by the conjunctions *while, when, once, if, as though, as if, though, than, as well as* and the correlative conjunctions *as...as* and *not so...as.*

While and *when* lend the *ing-form* the adverbial meaning of time, emphasizing the idea of simultaneousness of its action with that of the predicate verb. *While* shows that both actions are taking place at a given moment or period of time (a); *when* usually serves to express recurrent actions simultaneous with the action of the predicate verb (b).

e.g. a) He continued to speak while walking down the path.
The photograph showed himself, shielding his eyes against the sun while sitting on a swing.
b) She picked up Butler's heavy spectacles which she employed always when reading and put them on.
Often, when boasting of his deceits, he sounded childlike and innocent.

The conjunctions *as though* and *as if* serve to show that the person denoted by the subject of the sentence appears to be performing the action indicated by the *ing-iorm:* there is something in the manner or in the behaviour of the person that gives the impression that the action is being performed by him/her.

e.g. Lena gave me a very long look indeed as though seeing me for the first time.
Much of the afternoon I looked out of the window, as though thinking, but not really thinking.
He listened as though brooding.
She stopped speaking as if waiting for him to speak.

The use of the other conjunctions is infrequent.

e.g. Himself a man of little or no education, **though** possessing remarkable shrewdness, he placed little value on what he called book knowledge.
He always dropped in if passing by their house on a wet night.
I've got a comfortable home to take you to, and you'll be your own mistress, which is much better **than being** in service.
Mary brought in the coffee and when she had gone he inhaled the steam of it. It was as good as **drinking it.**
Nothing is so dangerous as being too modern.

The use of the ***ing-form*** in this function is found mainly in literary style and even there it is not frequent.

Note. The *ing-form* may acquire adverbial meaning even when it is not preceded by a conjunction. But this use of the *ing-form* is still less frequent. For example, in the sentences below the *ing-form* has the following meanings:

cause — Seeing their uneasiness Mrs Norris softened and smiled.
Knowing he could not go to Alice he tried to telephone her.
time — I know we shall break our necks one night **walking** across the field,
manner — They walked by the lake **holding** hands.
concession — But why did he marry her, **feeling** as he did about everything?
condition — Oh, do go upstairs, Lizzy! You'll only catch a cold, **hanging** around the passage.

§ 225. The *ing-form* may be preceded by the prepositions *after, before, besides, by, except for, for fear of, for the sake of, from, in, instead of, on, on the verge of, through, without* and some others The most frequently used of them is *without* showing that an action which may be logically expected to accompany the action of the predicate verb does not take place.

e.g. The bus passed us **without stopping.**
In a mutter he thanked her **without raising** his eyes.
I watched her for a little while **without being seen.**
Then he left us **without saying** good-bye.

As is seen from the above examples, the **ing-form** is placed after the predicate verb. Its position at the beginning of the sentence or between the subject and predicate, though possible, is unusual.

e.g. Slowly, **without turning** his head, he pulled himself to a half-sitting position.
Roger, **without turning** to me, said in a curt, flat and even tone, "There may possibly be trouble."

A synonymous construction with *not* preceding an ***ing-iorm*** does not imply the idea that the action is logically expected. Like any other *ing-iorm,* it simply denotes a second action. Only in this case it is in the negative form (see "Verbs", § 213).

e.g. I returned to the drawing-room, and stood preoccupied, **not** noticing acquaintances about the room, with my back to the fire.
We had both sat for a long time, **not speaking;** in the quiet I
knew she was not reading.

The *ing-form* preceded by *not* is typical of literary style, whereas the *ing-form* preceded by *without* is in common use in literary as well as in spoken English.

Another frequently occurring preposition which may precede the *ing-form* is *by.* In this case the action denoted by the *ing-iorm* expresses a means or a method of performing the action of the predicate verb. It may also indicate the manner in which the action of the predicate verb is carried out.

e.g. You begin learning a language **by listening** to the new sounds.
He greeted me noisily, but I cut him short by giving him the telegram.
I don't want to distress her **by telling** her that you have behaved like a cad.
"I have my dignity to think of." "One often preserves that best **by putting** it in one's pocket."

This ***ing-form*** is generally placed after the predicate verb,
though its front position is occasionally possible.

e.g. By keeping quiet, she might save herself a lot of trouble.

The *ing-form* introduced by *instead of* is also in common use.
It is characterized by a clear-cut meaning, owing to the preposition itself. Its position with regard to the predicate verb is not fixed.

e.g. Why do you tuck your umbrella under your left arm **instead** of carrying it in your hand like anything else?
You positively help them **instead of hindering** them.

He bought pictures instead of buying me the things I wanted.
I persuaded my uncle that it would be very good for my lungs if instead of staying at school I spent the following winter on the Riviera.

The use of the ing-form with other prepositions is less common.

The ing-forms following the prepositions *before, after* and *on* express time relations between the action of the predicate verb and that of the *ing-form.*

Before shows that the action expressed by the *ing-form* follows that of the predicate verb. It is usually placed in post-position to the predicate verb.

e.g. He waited a long while before answering.
He had given her two pots of geraniums before leaving for London last week.
They were sitting there now before going out to dinner.

After indicates that the action expressed by the *ing-form* precedes the action expressed by the predicate verb.

e.g. After glancing at his watch he said, in a businesslike tone: "You've made me a bit late."
After staying away eighteen years he can hardly expect us to be very anxious to see him.
But after hesitating a moment or two, Jiggs knocked on the door.

On expresses the same relations as *after*. But *on* emphasizes the idea of an immediate succession of the two actions — the action of the predicate verb begins at the moment the action of the ing-form is accomplished. It is noteworthy that we find only the ing-forms of terminative verbs here.

e.g. On arriving at the cottage she found it locked.
On getting up in the morning I found a letter on my doorstep
Mr Doyle came in as a man at home there, but on seeing the stranger he shrank at once.

As is seen from the above examples, the *ing-form,* introduced by *after* and *on* is usually placed before the predicate verb.

The meaning of the ing-form introduced by *in* is not so clear-cut. It may be defined as limiting the sphere of application for the action denoted by the predicate verb or as indicating a process during which the action of the predicate verb is performed.

e.g. I've done something rather foolish in coming here tonight, I regret it.
In defending myself against this lady, I have a right to use any weapon I can find.
I daresay you have noticed that in speaking to you I have been putting a very strong constraint on myself.

The place of the ing-form preceded by *in* is not fixed.

The use of ing-forms introduced by other prepositions is still less frequent. We find various prepositions here.

e.g. It was a lesson he had learned from having seen so many accidents.
I found that besides being a philosopher he was an uncommonly good writer.
We talked in whispers for fear of disturbing the Smiths.
It was very quiet in the wood except for our feet breaking twigs.
They were political link-men who added to their incomes through leaking secret information to the press.
As for staying with your uncle for a while, I'm convinced you'll enjoy every minute of it.

It should be noted that the use of the *ing-form* described above is stylistically neutral — it is found in literary as well as in spoken English. However, care should be taken to remember that ing-forms preceded by *after, before* and *on* are not in common use. Adverbial clauses of time are much more frequent.

Note. Note that in the following sentences we are dealing with set phrases:

e.g. He said in passing that money didn't matter much, since his wife was so rich.
They were to do nothing for the time being.
It goes without saying that healthy men are happier than sick men.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § 195-201.)

§226. The subject of the ing-form in the adverbial functions described above is the same person or thing as denoted by the subject of the sentence. But the ing-form may have a subject of its own with which it forms the so-called absolute construction.

e.g. He gave an intimate smile, **some of the freshness returning** to his face.
His study was a nice room **with books lining** the walls.

There are two parallel actions in this sentence pattern — one of them is expressed by the predicate verb, the other by the *ing-iorm.* Each action has its own subject.

Absolute constructions may be of two kinds: non-prepositional and prepositional, introduced by the preposition *with.* They are both lexically independent.

The non-prepositional construction and the prepositional construction are synonymous.

Absolute constructions, while serving to denote a second action parallel to that of the predicate verb, acquire at the same time adverbial meanings and thereby stand in specific relations to the main part of the sentence.

The most commonly occurring meaning of the absolute construction is to describe the appearance, the behaviour or inner state characterizing the person denoted by the subject of the sentence. Non-prepositional (a) as well as prepositional (b) constructions serve this purpose. This meaning of the absolute construction may be called **descriptive circumstances.**

e.g. a) Finally she stood back and looked at him, **her** face **radiantly smiling.**
"**But** it's so ridiculous that we don't know what to do," William told them, **his voice rising** in indignation.
She kept on running, **her heart thumping** furiously, **her steps quickening in** pace with her heartbeats,
b) The man was leaning forward in his seat, **with his head resting** in his hands.
He struggled on, panting for breath, and **with his heart beating** wildly.
He went into the house, **with a curious sadness** pressing upon him.

Another meaning of the absolute construction is to describe the circumstances attending the action of the predicate verb, serving as its background, as it were. It may also be expressed by non-prepositional (a) and prepositional (b) constructions.

e.g. a) When we entered the sitting-room she was sitting with her
sister before an open fire-place, **the** glow of a lamp with a red-flowered shade warmly **illuminating** the room.
Then they were out in the cold night, fresh **snow crunching** noisily underfoot.
b) The night was clean, **with a new** moon **silvering** the trees
along the road and **an energetic wind tidying away** the clouds.
With a hurricane approaching, we prepared to stand a seige.

Absolute constructions may acquire the adverbial meaning of cause, when the action denoted by the absolute construction indicates the cause of the action denoted by the predicate verb. This meaning is also expressed by non-prepositional constructions (a) and prepositional constructions (b).

e.g. a) **Death** being contrary to their principles, the Forsytes took precautions against it.
A room lit up on the third storey, **someone working** late,
b) I can't write **with you standing** there.
By twelve o'clock, **with the sun pouring** into the room, the heat became oppressive.

Finally, absolute constructions can serve as some kind of additional explanation of the statement made in the main part of the sentence. In this case the absolute construction acquires more semantic independence — it seems to be on a par with the predicate verb. This meaning is mainly expressed by the non-prepositional construction.

e.g. Everyone in the house was busy: **Nessie frowning** over her lessons, Mumma deeply engaged in her novel, **Grandma sleeping** in her armchair.
There were two serious accidents in the West Country, **one involving** a coach and a car.
English words can be classed as variable and invariable, **the latter being** much more numerous than in the other European languages.

Absolute constructions are generally characteristic of literary style where their use is quite extensive. In spoken English **we** mainly find the prepositional absolute construction.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § 202.)

The *ing-form* as Attribute

§ 227. The ***ing-form*** in the function of attribute is found in different constructions.

The *ing-form* may immediately precede its head-noun. In this case it expresses an action which is performed by the person or thing denoted by the head-noun (i.e. the head-noun is the subject of the action expressed by the *ing-iorm).* The ing-form is always a single word in this case, not an extended phrase. This attribute is not lexically dependent — it may modify any noun.

e.g. There was nothing to be seen or heard, not even a **barking** dog.
Passing the Comedy Theatre I happened to look up and saw the clouds lit by the **setting** sun.
I reached for a cigarette with trembling hands, and lit it.
Singing people, arm in arm, filled the streets.

This kind of attribute is not of frequent occurrence in English. However, ing-forms appear to be quite common as attributes when they are used metaphorically.

e.g. They delivered their views on the **burning** questions of the day.
Arthur gave a **creaking** laugh.
"Hungry," said Mrs Nenneker, in a **trumpeting** voice.
Carbury cocked an **inquiring** eye at him.
He watched it with **despairing** incredulity.

It is characteristic of the ing-form in this function to become adjectivized — the ing-form is devoid of the idea of action in this case and its lexical meaning is often changed as compared with the meaning of the corresponding verb, e.g. *a charming girl* means 'a very nice girl,' *an amusing story* is 'an interesting, funny story,' *a promising writer* is 'a talented writer' (For adjectivization see also "Verbs", §172).

e.g. We had a very good view of all the **surrounding** scenery.
A desolate loneliness settled on me — almost a **frightening** loneliness.
In her **ringing** voice, she turned to the man on her right: "Reggie, what do you think I ought to do?"
They were preoccupied with the **coming** debate.

Such adjectivized ing-forms are in common use in English. Another peculiar feature of the ing-form in this function is its tendency to form, in combination with its head-noun, a set phrase, e.g. *the reading public, the presiding magistrate, a racing man, working people, a fighting officer, a leading politician, revolving doors, running water, a booking office, a publishing house, closing time, walking shoes,* etc.

§ 228. The ing-form as attribute may closely follow its head-noun. It also expresses an action performed by the person or thing denoted by the head-noun (i.e. the head-noun is the subject of the *ing-iorm).* But unlike the ing-form in pre-position to the noun, it I is a more or less extended group, not a single word. This kind of attribute is not lexically dependent — it may modify any noun. Yet its use is structurally dependent when it serves to modify a noun after *there is (are).*

e.g. There are some people **coming** in here now.
There is a lot of work **waiting** for me to do.
"Aren't you coming to the music room?" "Not if *there is* any music going on."
"There was a man **hurrying** down the street in front of me.

We find the structurally dependent use of the ing-form in *coming on (in, up)* when it modifies a noun which is an object of the verb *to have (to have got).*

e.g. I saw at once he had an attack of malaria coming **on.**
Sam thinks that he ought to return home by the next boat. He has got his exams coming on.
You've got too many things coming **up** to get involved in such an affair.

This kind of attribute is used in literary as well as in spoken English.

Note. It is noteworthy that *running* in post-position to a plural noun is used in the meaning of 'one after another', 'in succession'.

e.g. He says he has received three telegrams **running** from them.

§ 229. In all other instances the use of the ing-form as attribute in post-position is free. It is a loose attribute in this case and, hence, may be separated from its head-noun by a pause. In all other respects this attribute is similar to the structurally depen-

dent one: the head-noun is also the subject of the *ing-form* and
the ing-form is generally part of a more or less extended group.

This kind of attribute is neither lexically nor structurally dependent — it can modify any noun and the noun can have different syntactic functions in the sentence.

e.g. I could hear the voices of the kids **waiting** for the school bell to ring.
They stumbled on the snow **turning** to icy water.
Then I picked up a booklet **depicting** various scenes of Navy life.

The loose character of the ing-form in this function is always marked off by intonation, and it may also sometimes be indicated by the use of a comma.

e.g. The wardrobe was empty, except for one dress, **swinging** on a hanger.
The door was opened by one of the man-servants, **bearing** an envelope, addressed to me in Collingwood's bold hand.

This loose attribute is frequently used in literary style but is not typical of spoken English.

§ 230. The *ing-form* in the function of attribute may be preceded by a preposition. In this case it always follows its head-noun and is generally part of an extended phrase. The *ing-form* is lexically dependent here.

In most cases the ing form is preceded by the preposition *of* and the attribute acquires appositive meaning, i.e. serves to explain the meaning of its head-noun. That is why it can modify only certain abstract nouns that admit of and sometimes even require an explanation of their meaning. The number of nouns thus used is quite considerable. The most commonly occurring of them are: *action, (dis)advantage, adventure, aim, appearance, art, attitude, business, capacity, case, chance, charge, choice, (dis)comfort, com plication, conception, consequence, consideration, consolation, (in)convenience, cost, custom, danger, delight, difficulty, disap pointment, disgrace, effect, emotion, enterprise, evidence, expendi ture, expense, experience, fact, fascination, favour, fear, feeling-gesture, gift, grief, guilt, habit, honour, hope, horror, humiliation. idea, ignorance, illusion, impertinence, importance, impression, incident, initiative, instant, intention, interest, issue, job, joke, joy, labour, lightness, limit, love, luck, luxury, madness, magnificence, manner, means, medium, memory, merit, method, misery, misfortune, mistake, moment, motion, movement, necessity, notion, object, opinion, opportunity, pain, pity, pleasure, point, policy, possibility, power, precaution, pretence, pride, privilege, process, proof, prospect, purpose, question, relief, reputation, result, risk, role, routine, rule, satisfaction, sensation, sense, shame, shock, sign, signal,* sin, *sorrow, sort, speciality, stage* (=level), *standard, state, success, support, surprise, symptom, talent, task, terror, thought, trick, trouble, use, way, week, wisdom, work* and some others.

e.g. He said that he had no chance **of learning** the truth.
I don't want her to make a habit **of being** late.
I have no hope of discussing it, Mr Birling.
There was no possibility **of taking** a walk that day.
I had the privilege **of meeting** your mother and dad some weeks ago.
The prospect **of travelling** with two elderly very dull people made me regret my hasty decision yesterday.
He admired his way **of doing** things very much.
After a while I began to have a feeling **of being watched.**
Miss Moss gave no sign **of having heard** his words.
She experienced an unreasonable feeling **of having been cheated.**
Her parents are terribly upset at the thought **of her giving** evidence.

The ing-form may also be preceded by the prepositions *for, in, at, about* and *to.* But they are by far less common than *of.* These prepositions are found after a limited number of nouns which regularly require their use:

for *— cause, excuse, genius, gift, grounds, motive, passion, pretext, reason, reputation, talent;*
in — advantage, belief, believer, difficulty, experience, harm, hesitation, ingenuity, meaning, object, participation, pleasure, point, purpose, sense, skill, use;
at — amazement, astonishment, attempt, delight, dismay, irritation, pleasure, satisfaction, shyness, surprise;
about — fantasy, obsession, scruples;
to — objection, preparation.

e.g. She had a real passion for reading detective stories.
Did he have any special reason for doing that?
There was no point in going further.
I saw no harm in asking a few questions.
He felt irritation at being disturbed.
I was making up my mind to another attempt at persuading him to do it.
After three months I got an obsession about having a place of my own.
Certainly I should have no objection to working with the man.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted by the *ing-form* see "Verbs", § 166.

This ing-form is not restricted to any particular style and is widely used in English.

(For comparison with the infinitive see §§ 203-204, 242.)

§ 231. The *ing-form* may be used as an attribute in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal subject. The *ing-form* is lexically dependent here — it is regularly used only after *it is no good* and *it is no use* with appositive meaning.

e.g. It's no use lamenting over things that are past and done with.
"It's no use going on like this," he said.
It's no good trying to fool yourself about love.
It's no good my saying I'm sorry for what I've done. That would be hypocritical.
If she had made up her mind to anything it was no good our opposing her.

Note. We also find a synonymous construction *there is no use* followed by an ***ing-form.***

e.g. There was no use pretending that they were different from the others.
There was no use complaining.

This construction is less common than the one with the formal if, still less common is the pattern in which the ***ing-form*** is preceded by the preposition in.

e.g. You can see now there's no use in **trying** to make him understand.

Sometimes the ing-form occurs after a number of other nouns which are, as a rule, semantically pale, such as *thing, business, chance, idea, problem* and some others. The nouns are usually modified by an adjective which is semantically more important than the noun.

e.g. In this filthy weather it's the hardest thing in the world getting things dry.
I'd like to give it to him myself. It's not the same thing sending it in a letter.
It's been a great chance my meeting you like this.
It'll be such a surprise to her seeing you.

It should be mentioned, however, that the ing-form is not common after these nouns. We normally find an infinitive here (see "Verbs", § 206). The use of this ing-form is mainly restricted to spoken English.

For the means of expressing the subject of the action denoted I by the ing-form see "Verbs", § 166.

§ 232. The ing-form may also be used as an attribute in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal object of the verbs *to find, to think* and *to make*. The formal *it*, in its turn, is followed by a noun. It is to this noun that the ing-form serves as an attribute.

e.g. Won't you find it rather a bore having me at home for so long?

It should be noted that this construction is of rare occurrence.

(For comparison with the infinitive see § 207.)

The *ing-form* as Parenthesis

§ 233. The ing-form as parenthesis tends to become a set phrase. We mainly find here the verbs *to talk* and *to speak*. The ing-form as parenthesis serves to denote some sort of reservation on the part of the speaker or else it is used as an introductory phrase, meaning 'incidentally' (compare with the Russian *кстати).*

e.g. Secrets, generally speaking, are not very well kept nowadays, with reporters and television cameras all around us.
Roughly speaking, it might have been said that youth and hope in women touched him.
Talking about crime, I can lend you rather a good book, as you are interested in the subject.
Of course, strictly speaking, the excuse was not necessary.

The *ing* form as parenthesis is in most cases placed at the head of the sentence and, in writing, marked off by a comma.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* Compared

§ 234. The infinitive and the *ing-form* sometimes have similar functions in the sentence and it is therefore necessary to define the spheres of their application.

The distinction between the two verbals partly lies in their different tense and aspect characteristics. The infinitive tends to express a single action following that of the predicate verb, while the ing-form generally serves to denote permanent actions, simultaneous with that of the predicate verb. (These characteristics refer to the simple forms of the infinitive and the ing-form. Their Perfect forms are infrequent and do not play an important part in distinguishing between the two verbals). But it should be noted that we are dealing here only with tendencies, not with hard and fast rules. For that reason the difference between the infinitive and the ing-form sometimes becomes obliterated.

In most cases, however, the differentiation between the two verbals rests on linguistic tradition which finds its expression in the following:

1) the infinitive and the ing-form have a different frequency of occurrence in certain functions (and the preference of one form to the other cannot be accounted for by any tangible reasons, grammatical or semantic);

2) the infinitive and the ing-form are in certain functions lexically dependent, which means that their choice is determined by their head-word, but not by any grammatical properties inherent in them;

3) the infinitive and the ing-form are sometimes structurally dependent, i.e. their use is determined by definite sentence patterns;

4) the infinitive and the ing-form may become part of a set phrase.

Besides, in some of the functions there are a few additional factors which affect the choice between the two verbals. The infinitive, for instance, may acquire modal meaning which is never expressed by the ing-form. The ing-form, in its turn, when preceded by prepositions (or conjunctions), can express different meanings not typical of the infinitive. In certain functions the infinitive of terminative verbs serves to express accomplished actions, while the *ing* form shows the action in its progress.

The Perfect infinitive may, as well as the Perfect ing-form, denote actions preceding that of the predicate verb. But the Perfect infinitive can also, in certain positions, express unreality.

On the whole, the differentiation between the infinitive and the ing-form is well defined, and the choice between them does not present much difficulty as in most functions there is no overlap. To prevent possible mistakes in the cases where they do overlap, it is necessary to compare the two verbals where they are used in a parallel way.

The Infinitive **and the** ing-form as **Subject**

§ 235. Neither the infinitive nor the ing-form as subject is common in English, so the distinction between them is not very important for practical purposes.

The differentiation between the infinitive and the ing-form as subject is, on the one hand, determined by their respective tense and aspect characteristics — the infinitive tends to denote an action following that of the predicate verb (a), while the ing-form mainly serves to express an action simultaneous with that of the predicate verb (b).

e.g. a) To **win** the world's greatest cycling event became the ambition of his life.

b) Beatrice and I don't correspond unless there is a major event in the family. **Writing** letters is a waste of time.

On the other hand, the choice between the infinitive and the ing-form is to a certain extent determined by the usage. According to tradition, the ing-form is preferred in this function and the infinitive is by far less frequent. Sometimes, however, the use of the infinitive is required by an additional factor, namely the ability of the infinitive to express the modal meaning of condition.

e.g. To go to them with an accusation would be absurd.

The Infinitive and the ing-form as Predicative

§ **236.** As predicative, the infinitive and the ing-form may both have the same appositive meaning. The difference between them is mainly determined by tradition — the infinitive (a) is in common use in English whereas instances of the ing-form (b) are scarce.

e.g. a) The job of a reporter is **to expose and to record.**
All one could do was **try** to make the future less hard,
b) The important part is **helping** people so that they can live normal lives.

Yet the infinitive is used only after the link-verb *to be,* **while** the ***ing-form.*** is found after other link-verbs, particularly *to mean.*

e.g. That would mean **telling** him everything.

Still another point of difference is that only an *ing-form* is used after *to be like.* The *ing-form* has appositive meaning here but the explanation is made by way of comparison.

e.g. Philip tries to direct his mind to the question but it is **like trying** to press the like poles of two magnets together. They push away.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* as Object

§ **237.** As an object of a verb, the infinitive and the *ing* -form are lexically dependent.

According to a well-established tradition, a number of verbs are followed by the infinitive (for the list see "Verbs', § 186), while certain other verbs require the use of the *ing-form* (for the list see "Verbs", § 214). Yet after a few verbs it is possible to use either of the two verbals.

The overlap in the use of the infinitive and the ing form is, however, caused by several reasons:

1) The head-verb is sometimes polysemantic and requires the use of the infinitive in one of its meanings while in another it must be followed by an *ing-iorm.* Here belong the verbs *to try, to propose* and *to go on.*

To try in the meaning of 'to make an effort or attempt[1] is used with an infinitive (a), while in the meaning of 'to test', 'to make an experiment' it is followed by an *ing-form* (b).

e.g. a) I'll try **to** do what I can.
Someone said, "We mustn't try **to run** before we can walk."
b) The young writer, dissatisfied with the result of his work, tried **altering** words or the order in which they were set.
As we couldn't understand his English he tried speaking French to us.

It should be noted, however, that *to try* is much more common in the meaning of 'to make an effort' and hence it is usually followed by the infinitive.

To propose in the meaning of 'to intend' is used with the infinitive (a), while in the meaning of 'to put forward for consideration' it is followed by the *ing-form* (b),

e.g. a) Tell me more about how you propose **to start** your business.
He did not propose **to** forgive them this time,
b) What do you propose doing?

To go on in the meaning of 'to do next or afterwards' requires an infinitive (a), whereas in the meaning of 'to continue' it is followed by an *ing-form* (b).

e.g. a) She went on **to** say that he was a man one could trust completely.
The shopkeeper went on **to explain** that these little wooden figures were by no means comparable to the mass-produced figures.
b) Tom went on **talking.**
But you can't go on **living** in this way any longer.

Note. The verb *to mean* in the meaning of 'to intend' is followed by an infinitive (a). But when *to mean* is followed by an *ing-form,* it is a link-verb denoting 'to signify', 'to have as a consequence'. The *ing-form* is not an object in this case; it is used in the function of a predicative (b).

e.g. a) Do you mean to say he actually approves of it?
b) "To love a woman means giving up everything else," he said.

2) With certain other verbs the overlap in the use of the infinitive and the ing-form is accounted for by their tense and aspect characteristics. This is found after the verbs *to remember, to forget* and *to regret.* The infinitive expresses an action following that of the predicate verb (a), while the *ing-form* denotes a preceding action (b).

e.g. a) Bart *remembered* **to count** five before answering his father,
b) I *remember* saying to him: "Look here, if anyone acted like you, the world couldn't go on."

a) I *forgot* **to tell** John about the party.
b) I shall never *forget* testifying in that trial twelve years ago.

a) I *regret* to say it but you shouldn't believe everything he tells you.

b) He *regretted* hurting her feelings.

It should be noted that owing to their lexical meaning the verbs *to remember* and to *regret* are in most cases followed by an ing-form. Conversely, with the verb *to forget* the situation generally calls for an infinitive.

3) With some other verbs the infinitive and the *ing-form* seem to be interchangeable. These verbs are *to begin, to cease, to continue, to dread, to hate, to intend, to like, to love, to neglect, to prefer* and to *start*.

However, after *to begin, to cease* and *to continue* the infinitive is commonly found, while *to start, to like* and *to hate* are more often followed by an ing-form.

Note 1. Care should be taken to remember that there are other verbs in English denoting the beginning, the continuation or the end of an action which are associated with only one of the two verbals. Thus, *to commence* and *to set out* are used with an infinitive. Yet *to finish, to keep, to keep on, to leave off,* and *to set about* take an ing-form.

Note 2. After the verb *to stop* the object is always expressed by an ing-form,

e.g. She stopped speaking, as though waiting for him to speak.

The infinitive after *to stop* can serve only as an adverbial modifier of purpose. It is usually separated from the verb *to stop* by an object or an adverbial modifier.

e.g. As I stopped at the bar to have a drink I saw them talking it over.

If the infinitive happens to follow the head-verb immediately it is to be regarded as accidental. Examples of this kind are of rare occurrence.

e.g. I stopped to ask if you were better. They told me you were on duty.

Note 3. The infinitive and the ing-form may serve as object to verbs generally requiring a prepositional object. Normally the *ing-form* is used in this case. (For the list of verbs see "Verbs", §216.) However, after some verbs the *ing-form* is interchangeable with the infinitive. These verbs are: *to agree, to aim, to care, to hesitate, to long, to plan* and *to threaten.*

e.g. "I may as well plan on living in London for the rest of my life," said George.
Everything you've planned to do is sensible.
He was still hesitating about joining the expedition.
They didn't hesitate to make free use of his purse.

Note 4. There have been a great many attempts to explain the difference in the use of the infinitive and the ing-form after the verbs given in this section. The infinitive has been described as referring to special, particular and concrete occasions or circumstances, as being more definite and lively in character and perfective in aspect. Conversely, the ing-form has been described as stating a general fact, representing an action as permanent or more abstract, expressing a deliberate act and being imperfective in its aspect. However, none of the above explanations are borne out by living English usage. Moreover, some of the authors believe that it is unnecessary to make formal distinctions between the two constructions.

§ 238. As an object of an adjective, the infinitive and the *ing-iorm* are lexically dependent. (For the lists see "Verbs", §§ 187 and 217.) Both verbals may be found after the following adjectives and adjectivized participles: *afraid, amazed, annoyed, ashamed, astonished, careful, certain, content, fortunate, frightened, furious, happy, keen, proud, right, scared, set, slow, sorry, sure, surprised, touched* and *wrong.* The ing form is always used as a prepositional object after them.

On the whole the choice between the infinitive and the *ing-iorm* after the above adjectives appears to be free.

Cf. I was *touched* to find my own name on the invitation list.
She couldn't allow herself to tell him how *touched* she was at finding him there.
Her coat was pulled tightly round her as if she were *afraid* to take it off.
Are you wanted by the police? You needn't be *afraid* of telling me.
She is *certain* to get the names wrong. She is so careless.
"You look for trouble, don't you?" "Only because I'm *certain* of finding it."
I was just *scared* to leave it there.
I was *scared* to death at going there to speak.
She told me sternly how *fortunate* I was to be there in time.
I am very *fortunate* in having a wife who likes being a woman.
I was *content* to let things drift along just as they were.
I was fairly *content* with letting things go as they were.
She looked wonderfully and vividly alive, and I was *proud* to be with her.
But when I went to Germany I discovered that the Germans were just as *proud* of being Germans as I was *proud* of being English.

The men were *careful* not to slip on the ice.
We were never very *careful* about taking precautions.

After certain of the above adjectives, however, the infinitive tends to express a single action following that of the predicate verb (a), while the ing-form is preferred when simultaneous or preceding actions are expressed (b).

e.g. a) In fact, I haven't the faintest idea what's been going on, and I'm *afraid* to ask.
b) I'm always *afraid* of getting caught.

a) I walked up and down the hall. I was *afraid* to go in.
b) Were you ever *afraid* of losing your mind?

a) Well, I'm *sorry* to disappoint you, but I won't be able to use my car.
b) I'm *sorry* for coming like this, without being invited.

a) I thought that perhaps I should be *wiser* not to go.
b) I thought she wasn't very *wise* in telling us that.

Yet it should be pointed out that on the whole the infinitive is more common after all the above listed adjectives; the ing-form is somewhat literary in style.

The use of the infinitive and the ing-form with certain other adjectives is associated with a change of meaning of the adjective. Here belong, for example, *grateful, good, interested* and some others.

e.g. a) The apples are *good* to eat (=the apples are good for eating),
b) I'm not very *good* at driving (=I don't very well know how to drive).

a) At first he was *grateful* to have the play to read (=he was pleased / happy to have...).
b) No one is *grateful* for being looked after (=no one feels gratitude for being looked after).

a) I was *interested* to learn that it was the same cafe where they had met (=it was interesting for me to learn...)
b) Somehow I was *interested* in getting back into that work (=I was anxious to get...).

The Infinitive and the ing-form as Object in a Sentence Pattern with *it* as a Formal Subject

§ 239. We usually find the infinitive as an object of a verb or adjective in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal subject.

e.g. It annoyed me to hear him tell a lie.
It's not easy to live with someone you've injured.
It wouldn't be tactful to bring up the subject in his presence.

The ing-form can also be found as an object of an adjective in a sentence pattern with *it* as a formal subject in spoken English where it adds emotional colouring to the sentence.

e.g. Well, it isn't easy telling you all this.
It will be great having them at the party.

However, only the ing-form is used after the expressions *to be worth* and *to come to.*

e.g. If it came to losing him, would she suffer?
It wasn't worth talking to him about it.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* as Subjective Predicative

§ 240. As subjective predicative, the infinitive and the ing-form are lexically dependent (for the lists see "Verbs", §§ 192 and 221). Both verbals are found after the following verbs in the passive: *to find, to hear, to leave, to report, to see, to show* and *to watch.*

After *to hear, to see* and to *watch* the differentiation between the two verbals is based on their lexical character. Both verbals serve to express simultaneous actions. But with terminative verbs, the infinitive shows that the action is accomplished (a), whereas the ing-form denotes an unaccomplished action in its Progress (b).

e.g. a) The front door downstairs *was heard* to slam.
He *was seen* to take the money.

b) The door *was heard* shutting.
He *was* last *seen* turning round the corner.

With durative verbs, the difference between the two verbals disappears and the choice of the form is free.

e.g. He had been heard to **discuss** the possibility.
He went out and was heard **laughing** in the hall.

After the verbs *to find, to report* and *to show* the difference between the two verbals is of a peculiar character — with the verb *to be* the subjective predicative is always expressed by a simple infinitive (a); with all other verbs, it is expressed by an *ing-form* (b).

e.g. a) A week later he was found **to be** out of danger.
The Senator was reported **to be** badly injured in the accident,
b) The man was found **crawling** about.
About that time a hurricane was reported **moving** out of the Caribbean in our direction.

However, analytical forms of the infinitive may also be found with verbs other than to *be*.

e.g. She was found **to have stolen** the ring.
The building is reported **to have been damaged** in the air raid.
He was reported to **be preparing** an account of the incident.

After the verb *to leave* the infinitive shows that the action follows that of the predicate verb (a) while the *ing-form* expresses a simultaneous action (b).

e.g. a) The matter *will be left* **to lie.**
If things *are left* **to run** their usual course, everything will shape out by itself,
b) Cliff and Helena *were left* **looking** at each other.
Some writers claim that in life stories are not finished, situations are not rounded off, and loose ends *are left* **hanging.**

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* as Objective Predicative

§ **241.** As objective predicatives the infinitive and the ing-form are lexically dependent (for the lists see "Verbs", §§ 193 and 222). Both verbals are found after the following verbs: *to fancy, to feel, to find, to get, to hate, to have, to hear, to imagine, to (dis)like, to listen to, to notice, to see, to understand, to want* and *to watch.*

After the verbs denoting physical perception, such as *to feel, to hear, to listen to, to notice, to see* and *to watch,* the choice between the infinitive and the ing-form is determined by their lexical character With terminative verbs, the infinitive expresses an accomplished action (a) and the ing-form an unaccomplished action in its progress (b)-

e.g. a) Nobody *had noticed* him come in. Nobody *had seen* him go upstairs.
b) He *heard* footsteps **coming** from the direction of the library.

a) Bridget *heard* Luke **drive up.** She came out on the steps to meet him.
b) As I looked out at the garden I *heard* a motor-truck **starting** on the road.

a) One night in late November I *heard* him **make** a remark about his coming marriage.
b) I *heard* him saying the other day he could do with a few more pounds a week.

With durative verbs, the difference in meaning between the two verbals disappears and the choice of the form is free.

e.g. a) I thought also that it would do him no harm *to hear* us **talk** about his progress,
b) *I've* never *heard* you **talking** like this about him.

a) I *was watching* the doctor **work.**
b) **I** *noticed* him **working** in the garden.

a) They *listened* to him **talk** about the picture.
b) I *listened* to them **discussing** it.

On the whole it should be pointed out that the ing-form is more common in this case. The infinitive, for example, would not be used in the following sentences:

e.g. I held her close against me and could feel her heart **beating.**
We saw the troops **marching** along the road.
I looked in the door of the big room and saw the major **sitting** at his desk.

With the verbs *to fancy, to find, to imagine* and *to understand,* the difference lies in the lexical character of the objective predicative. With the verb *to be,* the objective predicative is always an infinitive (a); with all other verbs, it is an ing-form (b).

e.g. a) They *found* him to **be** a bore.
b) When he arrived he *found* me reading *Tom Jones.*
a) I *imagined* him to **be** a bigger man.
b) I *imagined* her **sitting** by the fire-place, alone and in tears.

After the verbs *to get, to hate, to have, to like* and *to want* the choice between the infinitive and the ing-form is free. Yet, the infinitive is much more common with *to get* and *to want,* whereas the *ing-form* is more common with *to (dis)like* and *to hate.*

e.g. a) He wanted us to go with him, but Jimmy refused.
b) I didn't want any outsiders coming to the rehearsal.

a) I couldn't get him to leave.
b) She got all her guests going the moment she felt sleepy.

a) I like my oatmeal to have a salty taste.
b) I don't like anybody getting ideas where my wife is concerned.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* as Attribute

§ 242. As attributes the infinitive and the *ing-form* overlap only when they have appositive meaning. They are both placed in post-position to their head-noun and are lexically dependent. (For the lists of nouns see "Verbs", §§ 204, *2* and 230.) Besides, the ing-form is always preceded by a preposition, usually *of.*

We may find either an infinitive or an ing-form after the following nouns: *action, attempt, capacity, chance, excuse, intention, motion, necessity, opportunity, possibility, power, precaution, right, sign* and *way.* On the whole the choice between the two verbals after these nouns is free.

e.g. a) I haven't had *a chance* to see my dog this morning.
b) The Careys had had *a chance* of welcoming their nephew.

a) He was trying to find *a way* to earn fifty pounds.
b) They were trying to find *a way* of talking directly to their opponents.

a) I had no *opportunity* to speak to her.
b) I had no *opportunity* of doing so.

a) She only laughed and made no *attempt* to withdraw.
b) I made another *attempt* at going.

It should be mentioned that some of the nouns quoted above, for example, such an *attempt, necessity, right,* tend to be associated will an infinitive, whereas other nouns, for example, such as *chance, intention, possibility, way,* tend to be followed by an ing-form. The noun *opportunity* appears to be equally common with both forms.

The Infinitive and the *ing-form* as Attribute in a Sentence Pattern with *it* as a Formal Subject

§ 243. In this function the infinitive and the *ing-form* are lexically dependent. (For the lists of the nouns see §§ 206, 231.) The infinitive is the norm, the ing-form being a rare exception.

e.g. It was a pleasure to see him among us again.
It is a hard job to clean the kitchen.
It is no use deceiving ourselves.

§ 244. The use of the infinitive and the ing-form in all the other functions is not parallel and so they need not be compared.

The Use of the Participle

§ 245. The functions of the participle in the sentence are more restricted as compared with those of the infinitive and the *ing-iorm.* Besides, it tends to become adjectivized even in the functions that it can perform in the sentence. (For the adjectivization of the participle see "Verbs", § 179.)

The participle cannot be used either as the subject or as the predicate of the sentence. When it is used as predicative, it is always adjectivized and may be preceded, like a real adjective, by adverbs of degree, such as *extremely, greatly, so, too, very* and the correlative conjunctions *as ... as* and *not so ... as.*

e.g. Three of the girls were given to giggling.
Roger was set on getting the job himself.
Strickland was distinguished from most Englishmen by his perfect indifference to comfort.
We lived in the same neighbourhood and we felt friendly disposed to one another.
"I was cold but too excited to mind it.
I've never been so deceived in a man as I was in George.
If anyone lived there he would be as scared as we were.
I am naturally very disappointed.

It should be mentioned that if participles were not adjectivized in this case, they would form, with the verb *to be*, the Passive Voice.

Note. Some adjectivized participles, however, can be modified, like verbs, by *(very) much.* This may be accounted for by their verbal origin.

e.g. If Tony expected her to rush into his arms he was very much mistaken.
In a day or two the answer came back that he was very much opposed to the whole scheme.

It follows from what has been said that the participle proper (i.e. the participle which is not adjectivized) cannot be used as predicative.

The Participle as Part of a Compound Verbal Predicate

§ **246.** One of the functions in which the participle proper is used, is part of a compound verbal predicate. The participle is lexically dependent in this function — it is found after the intransitive verbs to *lie, to sit* and *to stand* which denote position.

e.g. He stood **surprised** in front of his house.
The smoke drifted away and the camp lay **revealed.**
He was lying back **relaxed** in his chair.
Joe sat **hunched** in a corner of the seat.

Examples of this kind are of rare occurrence, and the participle may be adjectivized here too.

The Participle as a Second Action Accompanying the Action of the Predicate Verb

§ **247.** The participle may express a second action accompanying the action of the predicate verb. The second action is passive in meaning and, hence, it shows that the person indicated by the grammatical subject of the sentence undergoes the action denoted by the participle.

With terminative verbs, the participle in this function indicates an action that precedes the action of the predicate verb,

e.g. **Asked** when they could expect an answer, the clerk said it would take them about a week.
Shocked by the poverty of my own vocabulary, I went to the British Museum library.

with durative verbs, the participle expresses an action simultaneous with that of the predicate verb,

e.g. He stood there, drinking tomato juice, **surrounded** by people absorbing the radiation of his power.
Then I saw my mother. She sat by the window, **lighted** up by the setting sun.

The participle in this function may be found in different positions in the sentence,

e.g. Suddenly **touched,** the girl came over to the side of his chair and kissed his cheek.
I went out of the court **determined** to show them a good play.

This participle is characteristic of literary English.

The Participle as Subjective Predicative

§ **248.** The participle may be used as subjective predicative. It is lexically dependent in this function and is used after the passive of the verbs *to find, to hear, to see* and to *make.*

e.g. Then he was found **barricaded** in a little hut.
A minute ago he was seen **engaged** in a lively conversation with a charming girl.

Note. To be made known is treated as a set phrase.

e.g. I'm afraid this information will have **to** be **made known.**

Examples of this kind are of rare occurrence and the participle is often adjectivized.

The Participle as Objective Predicative

§ **249.** The participle is also used as objective predicative. It is lexically dependent in this function and found after a number of transitive verbs followed by a direct object which is expressed by [a] noun or a pronoun. These verbs are: *to believe, to consider, to feel, to find, to get, to have, to hear, to keep, to leave, to like, to make, to see, to think, to want, to watch* and the set phrases *won't like, won't have* and *should/would like.*

e.g. On arriving at the cottage she found it **locked.**
Despite himself, Maurice felt his attention **caught.**
You'll never guess where I had the suit **made.**
But even if you work hard it takes a long time to write a novel. And you have to get it **published.**
I said I had not heard the matter **mentioned.**
"I want it **proved,"** he roared.
I would like it **done** right away.

The (passive) subject of the participle in this function is the object of the sentence (see also "Verbs", § 174).

The Participle as Adverbial Modifier

§ **250.** The participle may serve as adverbial modifier of a verb. In this function it denotes a second action accompanying the action of the predicate verb. In this case it is preceded by **a** conjunction which lends it adverbial meaning such as time, concession, condition and comparison. The most commonly occurring of the conjunctions are: *when, till, until, once, as, if, unless, though, as though, even if* and *even when.*

The participle is not lexically dependent in this function — it can be used after any verb.

e.g. She's a terror **when roused.**
Once arrived at the quay alongside which lay the big transatlantic liner, the detective became brisk and alert.
Soames, privately, and as a businessman, had always so conducted himself that **if cornered,** he need never tell a direct untruth.
He did not usually utter a word **unless spoken to.**
He had till Sunday evening to think it over; for **even if posted** now the letter could not reach John till Monday.
Here the tram lines ended, so that men returning home could doze in their seats **until roused** by their journey's end.
"Does he know it?" said David Rubin, as **though surprised.**

The subject of the action expressed by the participle in the above function is the same person or thing as denoted by the subject of the sentence.

Note 1. Notice the set phrase *come to that* ('кстати', 'уж если об этом зашла речь').

e.g. "But who is to be the judge of a man's fitness or **unfitness?"** "You'd have to have a scientific man as judge. **Come to that, I** think you'd be a pretty good judge yourself."

Note 2. Some participles have actually come to be used as conjunctions.

e.g. Roger could be re-elected **provided** he received the 290 votes from his own side.

§ **251.** The participle may be part of an absolute construction. In this case it has a subject of its own. The participle serves to indicate **a** resultant state which is parallel to the action of the predicate verb.

Absolute constructions may be non-prepositional and prepositional. In the latter case they are introduced by the preposition *with.*

The main function of the absolute construction with the participle is to describe the appearance, behaviour or inner state of the person denoted by the subject of the sentence. In other words, it serves as **an adverbial modifier of descriptive circumstances.** This function can be performed by absolute constructions, non-prepositional (a) and prepositional (b).

e.g. a) In the library Diana, **her** face **flushed,** talked to a young dramatist.
We sat silent, her eyes still fixed on mine.
She got up, **the clothes folded** over her arm.
b) She stood **with her arms folded,** smoking, staring thoughtfully.
He sat **with his knees parted** turning his wrists vaguely.
I lay idly in a big chair, talking now and then, listening; listening sometimes **with** my eyes closed.

A peculiar feature of non-prepositional absolute constructions with the participle is that sometimes the nouns in them are used without any article.

e.g. She advanced two more strides and waited, **head half turned.**
The President listened to her, standing at the fire-place, **head bowed,** motionless.
Joel sat scrunched in a corner of the seat, **elbow propped** on window frame, **chin cupped** in hand, trying hard to keep awake.

Absolute constructions with the participle are usually found in literary style.

Note. Notice the set phrase *all things considered.*

e.g. All things considered, there is little hope of their withdrawal.

The Participle as Attribute

§ 252. There are two types of attributes expressed by the participle:

1) the participle may immediately precede its head-noun,

2) the participle may follow its head-noun and be separated from the noun by a pause, i.e. the participle is a loose attribute here.[1]

Attributes expressed by participles are not lexically dependent, they can modify any noun.

§ 253. When the participle immediately precedes its head-noun it is always a single word, not an extended phrase.

With transitive verbs, the participle has passive meaning — it serves to show that the person or thing denoted by the head-noun undergoes the action expressed by the participle. The head-noun is the passive subject of the participle here.

e.g. A man in torn and dusty clothes was making his way towards the boat.
This forlorn creature with the **dyed** hair and haggard, **painted** face would have to know the truth, he decided. I made my way forward the **parked** car.
"Why don't you stop torturing yourself and put an end to all this wasted effort on your part?" she would tell me.
In the building, **lighted** windows were shining here and there.

In the examples above we are dealing with real participles which preserve their verbal character and denote actions. However, participles in this function are often adjectivized, which is clearly seen from their changed meaning.

e.g. She had an **affected,** absent way of talking.
After a moment she opened the door and got in with a grieved expression.
When I was eighteen I had very **decided** views of my own about my future.

With intransitive verbs, [1] the participle has active meaning — it serves to show that the person or thing denoted by the head-noun is the doer of the action expressed by the participle. The head-noun is the active subject of the participle here.

e.g. They sat on a **fallen** tree that made a convenient seat.
Jenkinson was a **retired** colonel who lived in Dorset and whose chief occupation was gardening.

Other examples of this kind are *the risen sun, the departed guest, the assembled company, his deceased partner.*

Participles as attributes preceding their head-nouns are in common use in English; they are not restricted stylistically.

Note 1. It should be noted that the participles *involved, added, obtained* and *combined* are placed in post-position to their head-words.

e.g. I did not want to go to a club for lunch, in case I met Douglas or anyone **involved.**
We could not resist all of these people combined.

Note 2. The participle *left* in post-position undergoes a change of meaning and its use becomes structurally restricted. It is found in two constructions: it modifies nouns (or pronouns) in sentences with *there is (are)* and in sentences with the verb *to have. Left* in such sentences is rendered in Russian with the help of *осталось*.

e.g. *There was* no evidence **left.**
He's the only friend I seem *to have* **left** now.
It's just all we seem *to have* **left.**

§ **254.** The participle as a loose attribute is usually part of an extended phrase. As a general rule, it follows its head-noun. The noun may perform any function in the sentence. The participle in this case is formed from a transitive verb and has passive meaning.

e.g. Mr Johnson, I have sent for you to tell you of a serious complaint sent in to me from the court.
He carried the crate out to the Ford truck **parked** in the narrow alley behind the store.

[1] *Loose* corresponds to the Russian *обособленное.*

As has been said (see "Verbs", § 173), there are not many participles formed from "transitive verbs.

The (passive) subject of the participle in this function is its head-noun (see also "Verbs", §174).

e.g. Lennox sat down on a chair lately vacated by Lady Westholme.
I rode about the countryside on a horse **lent** me by a friend.

In a considerable number of instances the participle is adjectivized in this case,

e.g. The men ran out of the house, like schoolboys frightened of being late.
Police are looking for a boy known to work at Turtle's.
They elected a man **called** G. S. Clark.

The participle as a loose attribute is typical of literary style. It is not found in spoken English.

NOUNS

§ 1. Nouns are names of objects, i.e. things, human beings, animals, materials and abstract notions (e.g. *table, house, man, girl, dog, lion, snow, sugar, love, beauty).*

Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups: proper names (e.g. *John, London, the Thames)* and common nouns.

Common nouns, in their turn, are subdivided into countable nouns and uncountable nouns. Countable nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may be either concrete (e.g. *book, student, cat)* or abstract (e.g. *idea, word, effort).* Uncountable nouns are names of objects that cannot be counted. They may also be concrete (e.g. *water, grass, wood)* and abstract (e.g. *information, amazement, time).*

Nouns have the grammatical categories of number and case (see "Nouns", §§ 3-19).

They are also characterized by the functions they perform in the sentence (see "Nouns", § 20).

The Gender of Nouns

§ 2. In accordance with their meaning nouns my be classed as belonging to the masculine, feminine and neuter gender. Names of male beings are masculine *(e.g. man, husband, boy, son, ox, cock),* and names of female beings are feminine (e.g. *woman, wife, girl, daughter, cow, hen).* All other nouns are said to be neuter (e.g. *pen, flower, family, rain, opinion, bird, horse, pride).* Gender finds its formal expression in the replacement of nouns by the pronouns he *she* or *it.*

However, there are nouns in English which may be treated as either males or females (e.g. *cousin, friend).* They are said to be of common gender. When there is no need to make a distinction of sex, the masculine pronoun is used for these nouns.

Sometimes a separate form for a female is built up by means of the suffix *-ess* (e.g. *host — hostess, actor — actress, waiter — waitress, prince — princess, heir — heiress, tiger — tigress, lion — lioness).*

It is also possible to indicate the gender of a noun by forming different kinds of compounds (e.g. *a man servant — a maid servant, a man driver — a woman driver, a boy-friend — a girl-friend, a tom-cat — a tabby-cat, a he-wolf — a she-wolf).*

Nouns denoting various kinds of vessels (e.g. *ship, boat,* etc.), the noun *car* as well as the names of countries may be referred to as *she.*

e.g. Sam joined the famous whaler "Globe". **She** was a ship on which any young man would be proud to sail.

Getting out of the car he said to the man in the overalls, "Fill **her** up, please."

He said, "England is decadent. She's finished because **she** is living in the past."

The Number of Nouns

§ 3. Number is the form of the noun which shows whether one or more than one object is meant. Some nouns in English may have the singular and the plural forms (e.g. *room — rooms, worker — workers, lesson — lessons).* Other nouns are used either only in the singular (e.g. *freedom, progress, machinery, steel, milk)* or only in the plural (e.g. *spectacles, goods, billiards).*

§ 4. The plural of most nouns is built up by means of the suffix *-s* or *-es.* It is pronounced **[z]** after vowels and voiced consonants (e.g. *days, dogs, birds),* **[s]** after voiceless consonants (e.g. *books, coats)* and [iz] after sibilants (e.g. *horses, roses, judges, brushes).*

It should be noted that some nouns in the plural change the pronunciation of their final consonants: [s] -> [ziz] (e.g. *house — houses)* and ***[в] -» [Sz]*** (e.g. *bath — baths, mouth — mouths, path — paths, truth — truths, youth — youths).*

§ 5. In writing, the following spelling rules should be observed:

The suffix es is added to nouns ending in *s, sh, ch, x* and *z* (e.g- *glass — glasses, brush — brushes, watch — watches, box — boxes).*

It is also added to nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant (e.g. *tomato — tomatoes, potato — potatoes, hero — heroes).* But if a noun ends in o preceded by a vowel or it happens to be a noun of ' foreign origin, only *-s* is added (e.g. *cuckoo — cuckoos, radio — radios, piano — pianos, kilo — kilos, photo — photos).*

Nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant change the *-y* into *-ies* (e.g. *story — stories, fly — flies, country — countries).*

But if a noun ends in *-y* preceded by a vowel, only *-s* is added (e.g. *key — keys, boy ~ boys, day — days).*

The following nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe* have the ending *-ves* in the plural: *wife — wives, life — lives, knife — knives, wolf — wolves, calf — calves, shelf — shelves, leaf — leaves, thief — thieves, half — halves.*

But other nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe* take only -s in the plural (e.g. *roof — roofs, cliff — cliffs, gulf — gulfs, proof — proofs, safe — safes, grief — griefs, cuff — cuffs, belief — beliefs).*

The following nouns have both forms in the plural: *scarf — scarfs/scarves, wharf — wharfs/wharves, hoof — hoofs/hooves, handkerchief — handkerchiefs/handkerchieves.*

§ 6. There are a number of nouns in English which form their plural in an irregular way.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel. They are: *man — men, woman — women, tooth — teeth, foot ~ feet, mouse — mice, goose — geese, louse — lice.*

Note also the peculiar plural form in the nouns: *ox — oxen, child — children, brother — brethren* (=not blood relations, but members of the same society).

A few nouns have the same form for the singular and the plural: *a sheep — sheep, a swine — swine, a deer — deer, a fish — fish, a craft — craft, a counsel — counsel* (=legal adviser, barrister).

The following nouns ending in s in the singular remain unchanged in the plural: *a means — means, a (gas) works — (gas) works, a barracks — barracks, a headquarters — headquarters, a series — series, a species — species.*

Note. Note that the noun *penny* has two plural forms: *pennies* (when referring to individual coins) and *pence* (when the amount only is meant).

e.g. She dropped three pennies in the slot-machine.

The fare cost him eight pence.

§ 7. Some nouns borrowed from other languages especially from Greek and Latin, keep their foreign plural forms. These nouns are mostly found in scientific prose. They are: *agendum — agenda, analysis — analyses, bacterium — bacteria, basis —* bases, *crisis — crises, criterion — criteria, datum — data, hy pothesis — hypotheses, phenomenon — phenomena, stratum — strata, thesis — theses.*

Some other nouns have the new English plural alongside of the original foreign one: *curriculum — curriculums/curricula, formula — formulas /formulae, memorandum — memorandums/memoranda.*

§ 8. With compound nouns it is usually the final component that is made plural (e.g. *bookcase — bookcases, writing table — writing tables, tooth brush — tooth brushes, handful — handfuls, drawback — drawbacks, forget-me-not — forget-me-nots, post man — postmen, Englishman — Englishmen).*

In. a few nouns the first component is made plural (e.g. *father-in-law — fathers-in-law, commander-in-chief — commanders-in-chief, passer-by — passers by).*

When the first component is *man* or *woman,* the plural is expressed twice (e.g. *man servant — men servants, woman doctor — women doctors).*

§ 9. A considerable number of nouns are used only in the singular in English. (The Latin term *singularia tantum* is applied to them.) Here belong all names of materials (e.g. *iron, copper, sand, coal, bread, cheese, oil, wine, tea, chalk)* and also a great number of nouns denoting abstract notions [1] (e.g. *generosity, curiosity, anger, foolishness, excitement, poetry, fun, sculpture, progress).*

Special mention should be made of a few nouns which end in -s but are used only in the singular. They are: *news, gallows, summons.*

Here also belong nouns ending in *-ics: physics, mathematics, phonetics, optics, ethics, politics.*

Note. Nouns of the latter group are occasionally treated as plurals.

e.g- **Politics has (have)** always interested him.
Mathematics is (are) well taught at that school.

[1] Note, however, that many other abstract nouns may have both the singular and the plural forms (e.g. *idea — ideas, change — changes, suggestion — suggestions).*

§ 10. There are a few nouns in English which are used only in the plural. (The Latin term *pluralia tantum* is applied to them.) Here belong nouns indicating articles of dress consisting of two parts (e.g. *trousers, pants, shorts, trunks, pyjamas, drawers, braces),* tools and instruments consisting of two parts (e.g. *scissors, spectacles, glasses, tongs, pincers, scales, fetters),* names of some games (e.g. *billiards, cards, dominoes, draughts)* and also miscellaneous other nouns (e.g. *riches, contents, dregs, oats, thanks, clothes, credentials, soap-suds, troops, goods, whereabouts, bowels, surroundings, savings, belongings, goings on, winnings, home-comings, proceedings, hangings).*

e.g. The **whereabouts** of the tomb **have** long been an historic mystery.
There **were clothes** scattered about the room.

§ **ll.** There are a few other nouns in English which have only the plural form and lack the singular, i.e. *pluralia tantum* nouns. But they happen to be homonyms of nouns which are used in both forms, the singular and the plural. These nouns are:

a colour — colours (=hues)	colours (=regimental flags)
a force — forces (=powers)	forces (=an army)
a custom — customs (=habits)	customs (=taxes on imported goods)
a draught — draughts (=currents of air)	draughts (=a game)
a glass — glasses (=vessels for drinking from)	glasses (=spectacles)
a manner — manners (=ways)	manners (=behaviour)
a moral — morals (=lessons of a story)	morals (=standards of behaviour)
a minute — minutes (=spaces of time)	minutes (=secretary's record of proceedings)
a quarter — quarters (=fourth parts)	quarters (=lodgings)

§ 12. Some nouns which belong to the *singularia tantum* group are occasionally used in the plural form for stylistic reasons suggesting a great quantity or extent, e.g. *the sands of the Sahara, the snows and frosts of the Arctic, the waters of the Atlantic, the blue skies of Italy,* etc.

§ 13. A noun used as subject of the sentence agrees in number with its predicate verb: a singular noun takes a singular verb; a plural noun takes a plural verb. This rule may be called grammatical concord.

e.g. If we ever thought nature was simple, now we know for sure it isn't.
If there are any universal laws for the cosmos, they must be very difficult.

Difficulties arise, however, with collective nouns, i.e. nouns denoting groups of people and sometimes animals. Here belong such nouns as *the aristocracy, army, audience, board, the bourgeoisie, class, the clergy, committee, (the) Congress, crew, crowd, delegation, the elite, family, flock, the gentry, government, group, herd, the intelligentsia, jury, majority, minority, Parliament, the proletariat, the public, staff, team,* etc.

Such nouns may be used in two ways: they either indicate the group as a single undivided body, a non-personal collective, or as a collection of individuals. In the former case there is no contradiction between the form and the meaning of such nouns and they take a singular noun (grammatical concord).

e.g. The audience was enormous.
The crowd has been dispersed.
The public consists of you and me.
The college football team has done badly this season.
His family was well known in their town.

In the latter case the nouns, though remaining singular grammatically become plural notionally and take a plural verb. This may be called notional concord.

e.g. The public were not admitted to hear the trial.
"The team are now resting", the coach said to us.
"My family keep a close eye on me," said George.
The audience were enjoying every minute of it.

Some of the collective nouns, however, regularly require a plural verb. Here belong; *people* (люди, народ),[1] *police* and *cattle.*

[1] The noun *people* meaning 'nationality' can have a singular and a plural form: a *people — peoples.*

e.g. There were few people out in the street at that hour.
He said: "Martha, the police have the man that stole your purse."
His uncle showed him the pastures where the cattle were grazing.

On the whole, in British English the plural verb appears to be more common with collective nouns in speech, whereas in writing the singular verb is probably preferred. It is generally safest for a foreign learner, when in doubt, to obey grammatical concord. In American English, collective nouns almost always go with a singular verb.

Note. A number of (несколько, ряд) usually agrees with a plural verb.
e.g. There were quite a number of people watching the game.

The Case of Nouns

§ 14. Case is the form of the noun which shows the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence.

English nouns have two case forms — the common case and **the** genitive case, e.g. *the child — the child's father, an hour — an hour's walk.*

§ 15. The genitive case is formed by means of the suffix *-s* or the apostrophe (-') alone.

The suffix -s is pronounced [z] after vowels and voiced consonants, e.g. *boy's, girl's;* [s] after voiceless consonants, e.g. *student's, wife's;* [iz] after sibilants, e.g. *prince's, judge's.*

The -'s is added to singular nouns (see the examples above) and also to irregular plural nouns, e.g. *men's, children's, women's.*

The apostrophe (-') alone is added to regular plural nouns, e.g. *soldiers', parents', workers',* and also to proper names ending in *-s,* e.g. *Archimedes' Law, Sophocles' plays, Hercules' labours.*

Some other proper names ending in *-s* may also take the suffix *-'s,* e.g. *Soames' (Soames's) collection, Burns' (Burns's) poems, Dickens' (Dickens's) novels, Jones' (Jones's) car,* etc. The common pronunciation of both variants appears to be [...iz], but the common spelling — with the apostrophe only.

Note. Notice that with compound nouns the suffix *'s* is always added to the final component, e.g. *my father in law's house, the passerby's remark.*

§ 16. The number of nouns which may be used in the genitive case is limited. The *-'s* genitive commonly occurs with animate nouns denoting personal names *(John's bed, Mary's job, Segovia's pupil,* etc.), personal nouns *(my friend's visit, the boy's new shirt, the man's question,* etc.), collective nouns *(the party's platform, the team's victory, the government's policy,* etc.) and higher animals *(the dog's barking, the lion's cage,* etc.).

In principle, the *-'s* genitive is also possible with certain kinds of inanimate nouns and abstract notions. For example, it is regularly found with temporal nouns *(a day's work, a few days' trip, a two years' absence, a moment's pause, a seven months' pay,* etc.) and with nouns denoting distance and measure (a *mile's distance, a shilling's worth,* etc.). Sometimes it is used with geographic names of continents, countries, cities, towns, and universities (Europe's *future, the United States' policy, London's water supply,* etc.), locative nouns *(the island's outline, the city's white houses, the school's history,* etc.) as well as a few other nouns *(the sun's rays, the ship's crew, the play's title, Nature's sleep,* etc.).

There are also a considerable number of set phrases in which all sorts of nouns are found in the genitive case, e.g. *in one's mind's eye, a pin's head, to one's heart's content, at one's finger's end, for goodness' sake, at one's wit's end, out of harm's way, duty's call, a needle's point.*

§ 17. A noun in the genitive case generally precedes another noun which is its head-word. This may be called the dependent genitive.

The relations between the noun in the genitive case and its head-word may be of two kinds:

1) The noun in the genitive case may denote a particular person or thing, as *in my mother's room, the man's voice.* This kind of the genitive case is called the specifying genitive. The more common meanings of the specifying genitive are the following:

a) possession,

e.g. *Mary's suitcase* (=Mary has a suitcase)
the children's toys (=the children have toys)

b) subjective genitive,

e.g. *that boy's answer* (=the boy answered)
the parents' consent (=the parents consented)

c) genitive of origin,

e.g. *the girl's story* (=the girl told the story)
the general's letter (=the general wrote the letter)

d) objective genitive,
e.g. *the boy's punishment* (=somebody punished the boy)
the man's release (=somebody released the man)
The specifying genitive may be replaced if necessary by an *of-*phrase, e.g. *the father of the boys, the room of my brother who is in hospital,* etc. With proper names, however, the genitive case is the rule, e.g. *John's parents, Mary's birthday, Byron's first poems.*

Note. There is considerable overlap in the uses of the -'s genitive and the *of-*phrase. Although either of the two may be possible in a given context, only one of them is, however, generally preferred for reasons of structure, euphony, rhythm, emphasis, or implied relationship between the nouns. The use of the -'s genitive is very common in headlines, where brevity is essential. Furthermore, the -'s genitive gives prominence to the modifying noun. Compare:

Hollywood's Studios Empty
The Studios of Hollywood Empty

2) The noun in the genitive case may refer to a whole class of similar objects. This kind of the genitive case is called the classifying (descriptive) genitive, e.g. *sheep's eyes* (which means 'eyes of a certain kind' but not 'the eyes of a particular sheep), *a doctor's degree* (=a doctoral degree), *cow's milk* (=milk from cows), a *women's college* (=a college for women), *a soldier's uniform, a summer's day, a doll's face, a planter's life, gents' clothes, lady's wear, an hour's walk, a mile's distance,* etc.

In some cases such combinations have become set phrases, e.g. *a spider's web, the serpent's tooth, the bee's sting, a giant's task, a fool's errand, a cat's paw* ('слепое орудие в чьих-то руках'),
child's play and others.

The classifying genitive is generally not replaced by an *of-*phrase, except for the genitive indicating time and distance.

e.g. *a three days' absence —> an absence of three days*
a two miles' distance -> a distance of two miles

§ 18. The suffix -*'s* may be added not only to a single noun but to a whole group of words. **It** is **called the group genitive.** We find various patterns here, e. g. *Smith and Brown's office, Jack and Ann's children, the Prime Minister of England's residence, the Prince of Denmark's tragedy, somebody else's umbrella, the man we saw yesterday's son.*

§ 19. Sometimes we find the use of -'s and *of* together. This is called **a double genitive.**

e.g. He was an old business client **of Grandfather's** (=one of Grandfather's clients).

§ 20. A noun in the genitive case may be used without a head-word. This is called **the independent genitive.**

The independent genitive is used with nouns denoting trade and relationship or with proper names. It serves to denote a building (e.g. *a school, a house, a hospital, a church)* or a shop. It is mainly found in prepositional phrases.

e.g. I was in the grocer's and I heard some women say it.
He asked her how she liked living at her daughter's.
They were married at **St. Paul's.**
Mrs White ran the **confectioner's** very competently.
He asked her to choose a restaurant and she suggested Scott's.

The Functions of Nouns in the Sentence

§ 21. Nouns may have different functions in the sentence. They may serve as:

1) the subject,

e.g. Life consists in accepting one's duty.

2) an object (direct, indirect and prepositional),

e.g. You did such splendid **work.**
General Drake handed **the** man his medal.
He won't listen **to any advice.**

3) a predicative (non-prepositional and prepositional),

e.g. The town has always been a quiet and dignified little **place.**
The place was **in disorder.**

4) an objective predicative,

e.g. They elected him **president** of the club.

5) **a subjective predicative,**

e.g. He was appointed **squadron commander.**

6) various adverbial modifiers (usually as part of prepositional phrases),

e.g. I lived near **Victoria station in those** years.
He spoke in **a different tone.**

7) an attribute (in the genitive case, in the common case and as part of prepositional phrases),

e.g. His **officer's** uniform gave slimness to his already heavy figure.
For some time he read all **the travel** books he could lay his hands on.
He set off on a tour of **inspection.**

8) an apposition,

e.g. He told us about his father, **a teacher,** who died **in** the war.

ARTICLES

§ 1. The article is a structural word specifying the noun. The absence of the article, which may be called **the zero article,** also specifies the noun and has significance. [1]

There are two articles in English which are called **the** definite and **the** indefinite article.

The use of articles, as well as their absence, has grammatical meaning and follows certain rules. There are cases, however, in which the use of articles cannot be accounted for grammatically as it has become a matter of tradition. This is found in numerous set phrases, as in: *at night — in the night, in the distance — at a distance, as **a** result of — under the influence of, to take the trou ble — to take care of, to be in danger — to be in a rage,* etc.

The traditional use of articles is also found in other cases. For example, names of countries are generally used without any article but the names of certain countries or regions, owing to a well-established tradition, are associated with the definite article (e.g. *the Crimea, the Caucasus, the Congo, the Sudan, the Tyrol, the Ruhr* and some others).

Thus, in dealing with the use of articles it will be necessary to divide all the cases into two groups which may be called **the grammatical use of articles** and **the traditional use of articles.**

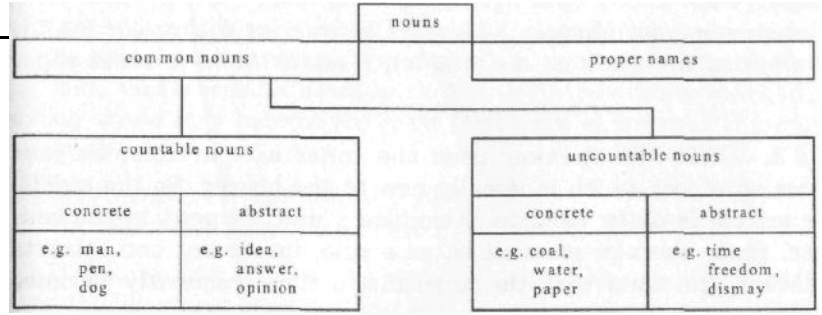
The grammatical use of articles is dependent on the character of the noun.

In order to describe the use of articles we need some classification of nouns upon which our description will be based.

[1] The absence of the article is not to be confused with the deliberate omission of the article for stylistic reasons as seen in newspaper headings, stage directions, telegrams, etc.

e.g. Newspaper headlines: Biggest Brain Drain Source in Britain
Fight over Market
Stage remarks: Catherine enters from kitchen, crosses down to window, looks out.

The following classification seems to be suitable for the purpose:



Note. Nouns denoting unique objects (e.g. *the sun, the moon)* or unique notions (e.g. *the past, the plural)* are neither countable nor uncountable.

As is seen from the above table, proper names form a special category and the use of articles with them should be treated separately. With common nouns, the use of articles is dependent on whether a noun is countable or uncountable.

THE FUNCTIONS **OF** ARTICLES **WITH** COMMON NOUNS

The Indefinite Article

§ **2.** With **countable nouns,** both concrete and abstract, the indefinite article is used when we wish to name an object (a thing, a person, an animal or an abstract notion), to state what kind of object is meant.

e.g. He gave her **a** cigarette and lighted it.
There came **a tap** at the door, and **a small elderly man** entered the room, wearing **a black** cap.

This function may be called **the nominating function.**

But at the same time, owing to its origin from the numeral *one,* the indefinite article always implies the idea of oneness and is used only before nouns in the singular.

The idea of oneness may sometimes become quite prominent. It occurs in the following cases:

a) ***a** hundred, a thousand, a minute, a mile,* etc.

b) after the negative *not — not a word, not a trace, not a thought,* etc.

c) in some set phrases — *one at a time, at a draught* (as in: *He emptied his glass at a draught), a stitch in time saves nine,* etc.

§ 3. When the speaker uses the indefinite article, he just names an object which is usually new to the hearer. So the indefinite article is often used to introduce a new element in the sentence. Since the new element is, as a rule, important and attracts attention, the noun with the indefinite article frequently becomes the centre of communication and is marked by strong stress.

e.g. I think he is a stupid fellow.
Presently the Browns arrived. They brought with them a small child, a governess and a dog.
The table was covered with a white cloth.

In contrast to this, the definite article usually indicates that a definite object is meant and that it is not new to the hearer. That is why it often serves to show that the noun is not the centre of communication. Compare the following sentences:

e.g. I bought a book yesterday.
I bought the book yesterday.

From the first sentence the hearer learns *what object* was bought yesterday. So *a book* is the new element in the sentence. From the second sentence the hearer learns *when* the book was bought (he already knows that the speaker bought a book). In this case *the book* is not the centre of communication.

In the Russian language which has no article, the centre of communication is usually marked by word-order and also stress.

Cf.

В комнату вбежал *мальчик.*	A boy rushed into the room.
Мальчик вбежал *в комнату.*	The boy rushed into the room.
Их послали в мае *на конференцию.*	They were sent to a conference in May.
Их послали на конференцию *в мае.*	They were sent to the conference in May.

This distinction between the two articles is very helpful in most cases but the rule does not always hold good. We may find sentences in which a noun with an indefinite article does not serve as the centre of communication and is not marked by strong stress , (a) and, vice versa, a noun with the definite article marked by strong stress may become the most important element of communication (b).

e.g. a) A camel can carry heavy loads,
b) "Shut the door," he ordered.

It follows from the above examples that the use of the indefinite article with nouns serving as the centre of communication is i to be regarded as an additional rule.

§ 4. With uncountable nouns, the indefinite article serves to bring out a special aspect of the notion expressed by the noun. In this case its function may be called aspective.

e.g. A dull burning anger rose in his chest.
He had almost a supernatural courage.

In this case the noun is usually qualified by an attribute which also brings out a special aspect. In its aspective function the indefinite article is devoid of the idea of oneness.

The Definite Article

§ 5. When used with countable nouns, either concrete or abstract, the definite article has two distinct functions:

1) It may be used with singular and plural nouns to show that the noun denotes a particular object (a thing, a person, an animal or an abstract notion) or a group of objects as distinct from the others of the same kind. In other words, the definite article serves to single out an object or several objects from all the other objects of the same class. This function is called the individualizing function of the definite article.

e.g. The car stopped. Paul got out and stretched himself.
As we stood on the steps, we felt the smell of fallen leaves coming from the garden.
Margot took up the telephone.

2) The definite article may also have **the generic function** with countable nouns. With nouns in the singular it serves to indicate that the noun becomes a composite image of the class.

e.g. **The tiger** has always had the reputation of being a man-eater.
The linguist is interested in the form and meaning of all possible statements in a language.

§6. With uncountable **nouns,** the function of the definite article may be called **restricting.**

The definite article restricts the material denoted by a concrete uncountable noun to a definite quantity, portion or to a definite locality (a); it also restricts the abstract notion expressed by an uncountable noun to a particular instance (b).

e.g. a) He slowly pulled on his gloves, concentrating on each fold in **the leather.**
As we came out into **the cold damp air,** she shivered,
b) **The work** seemed to consist chiefly of interviewing young women for jobs in department stores.
I did not wish to betray the anxiety I felt.

Absence of the Article (the Zero Article)

§ **7.** The absence of the article (the zero article) has only one function with common nouns — **the nominating function.**

This function of the zero article may be found with **countable nouns in the plural;** it is parallel to the use of the indefinite article with singular countable nouns. But while the indefinite article is associated with the idea of oneness, the zero article always implies more-than-oneness.

e.g. Marion came round the corner of the house, wearing **gardening** gloves and **a very old skirt.**
My mother gave me some pennies to buy **apples** or **a magazine.**
She had a splitting headache and took **an aspirin** and **sleeping pills.**

The nominating function of the zero article is also found with **uncountable nouns, both abstract and concrete** (names of materials).

e.g. Last night I felt **friendship** and **sympathy** for Henry, but today he has become an enemy.
Life goes on, changeless and ever changing.
Winterbourne asked for **water** and drank thirstily.

THE USE **OF ARTICLES WITH COUNTABLE NOUNS**

General Rules for the Use of Articles with Countable Nouns

§ **8.** Countable nouns in the singular may be used with the indefinite article in its nominating function and with the definite article in its individualizing function.

e.g. They couldn't travel without **a** car there.
While her suit-case was being taken out of the car, she looked round.
He shut the door behind his wife and handed me **a cigar.**
I didn't enjoy **the** cigar because it was damp.

In the plural, countable nouns may be used without any article . or with the definite article. The absence of the article has nominating force and the definite article is used in its individualizing function.

e.g. They couldn't travel without cars there.
While their suit-cases were being taken out of **the** cars, they looked round.
He shut the door behind his wife and handed us **cigars.**
We didn't enjoy **the** cigars because they were damp.

Note. Note the use of the noun *things* in the meaning 'circumstances', 'conditions', 'events in general', 'the present state of affairs'. It is used without any article in this meaning.

e.g. Your refusal will only make things worse.
Things aren't going very well at the firm.
I told him that you've let things slide for long enough.
Your father is making a mess of **things.**
You take **things** too seriously.
I must think things over.

§ 9. Since the choice of articles is determined by the context or the general situation, we should take into consideration attributes modifying the noun as they constitute part of the context. Attributes are generally divided into two classes: **limiting** and **descriptive.**

A limiting attribute indicates such a quality or characteristic of an object (or a group of objects) which makes it distinct from all other objects of the class.

e.g. She lost her temper: 'It's **the** most unpleasant **thing** you've ever told me."
She sat listening but **the sound of her pounding heart** covered any other sound.
Alice smiled to him and took **the letter** he **held out to her.**

A **descriptive** attribute is used to describe an object (or a group of objects) or give additional information about it. This kind of attribute does not single out an object (or a group of objects) but only narrows the class to which it belongs.

e.g. He wrote **a novel.**
He wrote **a good novel.**
He wrote **a good historical novel.**

In the above examples *a good novel* belongs to a narrower class than ***a*** *novel,* and *a good historical novel* belongs to a still narrower class.

We find the same in:

e.g. He smiled at the girl as she came down the stairs wearing a **red raincoat with a hood.**
To the left there was **a long room with a narrow table strewn with periodicals.**

Nouns modified by limiting attributes are used with the definite article.

Nouns modified by descriptive attributes may be used with either the indefinite or the definite articles, as the choice of articles for countable nouns is not affected by this kind of attribute.

But the division of attributes into two classes is not very helpful for practical purposes, since most attributes are not limiting or descriptive by nature. Taken by themselves, they are neutral, and it is only in the context that they acquire limiting or descriptive force.

e.g. He was going to build a **new house.**
Shortly after he moved to **the new** house, he fell ill.
We shall take a road going through **the** forest as it won't be so hot there.
We shall take **the road going through the forest** as it is a short cut.

The above examples show that attributes as such cannot generally be regarded as reliable criteria for the choice of articles.

Nevertheless we find a number of attributes which are distinctly limiting owing to their form of expression. In order to set them apart, we must survey the use of articles with countable nouns modified by all types of attributes.

§ **10. The use** of **articles with countable nouns modified** by adjectives. Attributes expressed by adjectives are usually descriptive.

She drove an **old** car.
His office was in a **fine,** gay, **busy little street.**

As was stated above, descriptive attributes do not affect the lice of articles. Thus we may find a noun modified by a descrip- attribute used with the definite article.

The woman looked at me shrewdly and there was a glint of humour in **the** dark eyes.
We lay lazily on the steep bank, looking at **the tall reeds.**

The definite article in this case is accounted for by the situation but not by the attribute.

Note. The adjective pronouns *all* and *whole* are to be treated as descriptive attributes. The use of articles with nouns modified by these attributes is determined
by the situation.

All children like ice-cream.
All the children watched the game with excitement.
He never stayed a whole evening with us.
He spent the whole evening watching the telly.

The adjective pronoun *such* is also a descriptive attribute, but, unlike *all* and who*le,* it is never combined with the definite article.
Your father is such a handsome man.
I'm not prepared to believe such things about my son.

But adjectives may become limiting attributes when contrast is implied- In this case they are marked by stronger stress.

e.g. Will you pack my things for me? I want **the little suit-case** as **I'll** be away only one night.
She saw a car pull up at the curb with two women in it. **The younger woman** asked her the way to the railway station.

Adjectives in the superlative degree, however, are always limiting attributes.

e.g. She was **the smartest girl** in the room.
"The most dangerous person of all is my uncle," the young man whispered.

Note 1. Compare the following sentences.

e.g. He's the most experienced doctor I know.
He's a most experienced doctor.

In the first sentence we find the superlative degree of *experienced* which accounts for the use of the definite article. In this combination both *most* and *expert enced* are stressed. In the second sentence most is an adverb of degree ('крайне`, 'чрезвычайно), so the whole combination is a descriptive attribute and *most* is unstressed here.

Note 2. The combination *a best suit* ('выходной костюм') and *a best seller* ('ходкая книга') are set phrases.

Some adjectives, adjective pronouns and adjectivized **toff-forms** almost always serve as limiting attributes. The most important of them are: *right* ('тот, который нужен'; 'правильный') and *wrong* ('не тот'), *very, only, main, principal, central, left* and *right, same, coming, following, present, former* ('первый') and *latter* ('последний').

e.g. It just seems to be **the wrong** way to go about it.
My chief is **the right man** in **the right place.**
The questions you ask are **the very questions I** am putting myself.
My mother was **the only person** whom I told what had happened.
My relatives take a very grave view of **the present situation.**

Besides, there are other adjectives which commonly, though not always, serve as limiting attributes, e.g. *proper* ('надлежащий', 'правильный'), *adjacent, alleged, lower, necessary, opposite, previous, so-called, upper, usual,* and some others.

Note 1. An only child is a set phrase ('единственный ребенок у родителей').

i e.g. She is as spoiled as if she were an only child.
But we say: *She was* the only child *present in the drawing room.*

Note 2. Nouns m*odified* by the adjectives *next* and *last* are generally used with the definite article.

e.g. We shall probably eat at the next table to him.
My father had not read the last seven pages of the book.

But when these adjectives modify nouns denoting time, actually coming or
just past from the point of view of the speaker, there is no article at all.

e.g. He said: "No, you can't see her. She went to London last week"
He said: "I am determined not to spend more than ten pounds on my clothes next year and so I'll manage by myself."

It must be noted that in narration there is a fluctuation in the use of articles with nouns modified by *next.* We find either the definite article or no article at all.

e.g. We had not been sitting long in the drawing-room before Mr March was arranging a timetable for the next day.
I sent her a wire and she met me at the station next day.

Note 3. Note the difference in the use of articles with nouns modified by the adjective pronoun *other.* The definite article is used with a singular noun modified by *other* if there are only two objects of the same description.

e.g, He pulled on the other glove and said he would run along to his office.

If there are more than two objects of the same description, the indefinite article is used *(another).* In this case *another* has three meanings: 'еще один', 'любой другой', and 'не такой', 'иной'.

e.g. Could I have another cup of tea?
"You can do as well as another man," he said.
When I came back I found him in another mood.

The definite article is used with a plural noun modified by *other* if there is a definite number of objects divided into two definite groups.

e.g. Of the three people invited by her for the weekend, one had already arrived.
Her husband wanted to know when the other guests were expected.
My mother needed me more than the other members of the family.

In this case *the other guests, the other members,* etc. means 'the rest'.
If some objects are divided into two groups and either one of the groups or both of them are indefinite, there is no article.

e.g. I was thinking of other people in the same position.
Her brothers, as a rule, could not make themselves good friends to other men.

In this case *other people, other men,* etc. means 'другие'.
The same rules are applied to *other* when it is used as a noun pronoun.

e.g. He drove with one hand, and used the other to draw diagrams in the air.
Young Martin was first sent on an errand to the grocer, then on another to the butcher.
Then Katherine remembered about her mail: "The only letter I've opened is my husband's. Lewis, will you fetch in the others?"
When people say they do not care what others think of them, for the most part they deceive themselves.

Note 4. The other day is a set phrase meaning 'недавно', 'на днях'.

§ ll. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by numerals. Cardinal numerals serve as descriptive attributes.

e.g. He had refused three invitations to golf, his excuse to his friends being that he had no time.

If a noun modified by a cardinal numeral is used with the definite article, this is accounted for by the situation or context.

e.g. By candlelight the two men seemed of an age if indeed not of the same family.

Ordinal numerals are usually limiting attributes.

e.g. During the second week in October she met him in Oxford Street.

However, when ordinal numerals are not used to indicate order but acquire the meaning 'one more' or 'another', the noun they modify is used with the indefinite article.

e.g. They must have a third race to decide who is the real winner.
After a moment's hesitation she added a fourth spoonful of sugar to her tea.

Note 1. The above mentioned rule does not apply to the numeral *first.* The combination *a first night* ('премьера') and *a first prize* are to be regarded as set phrases.

Note 2. Different articles are used in the following patterns with nouns modified by cardinal and ordinal numerals: *the third chapter* but *chapter 3 (three), the fifth page* but *page 5 (five).*

§ 12. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by participles. Attributes expressed by participles (see "Verbals'' §§ 173-180; 252-254) are placed either in pre- or post-position to the noun they modify.

When they are placed in pre-position, they are usually descriptive attributes, like adjectives.

e.g. They lived in a newly painted house.
There was a faded photograph and an ash-tray on the desk.
The use of the definite article in this case is usually accounted for by the context or the general situation.

e.g. At the corner of the street there shone the lighted windows of a club.
She collected the scattered pages of the letter and put it away into her desk.

In post-position we usually find participle phrases but not single participles. They may be either descriptive (a) or limiting (b) attributes, according to the context or situation.

e.g. a) It was a very small room, overcrowded with furniture.
He took a medicine prescribed by the doctor.
b) I adopted the tone used by my uncle Henry.
At length I reached the sixth floor, and knocked at the door numbered thirty-two.

§ 13. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by *ing* forms. Attributes expressed by *ing-forms* (see "Verbals", §§ 163-172; 227-232) are placed either in pre- or post-position to the noun they modify.

When they are placed in pre-position, they are usually descriptive attributes.

e.g. He looked at me with a mocking smile.
He turned and saw a crying boy.

In post-position the *ing-form* may be either non-prepositional or prepositional. We generally find phrases and not single *ing*-forms here. Both kinds of these phrases may be descriptive (a) and limiting (b) according to the context or situation.

e.g. a) There was no answer and he sent a telegram saying that he needed some work done urgently.

John had an odd way of looking at things.

b) He took the path leading to the lonely cottage.

He could not bear the thought of leaving her in such a state.

§ 14. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by infinitives. Attributes expressed by infinitives tend to be descriptive.

e.g. He willingly accepted an invitation to spend the weekend out of town.

I made an attempt to smile.

He suddenly felt an impulse to laugh.

Yet, sometimes, depending on the situation or context, the infinitive may become a limiting attribute.

e.g. They did not have the money to buy the house.

That's not the way to speak to your parents.

At last he forced himself to lie quietly on his back fighting the desire to answer back.

§ 15. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by clauses. Nouns can be modified by two kinds of clauses — attributive (A) and appositive (B).

A. Attributive clauses qualify the noun. They may be introduced by the relative pronouns *who, whose, which* and *that,* by the relative adverbs *where* and *when* or asyndetically.

e.g. I will not describe the pictures that Strickland showed me.

His pictures gave me an emotion I could not analyze.

He wandered about the place like a man who has nothing else to do.

Attributive clauses fall into two groups:

1) Attributive clauses that can be removed from the sentence without destroying its meaning. They are marked by a pause separating them from the principal clause. In writing they may be separated by a comma. These clauses are never joined to the principal clause asyndetically. Clauses of this kind are called non-defining clauses and they are always descriptive and do not influence the choice of the article. So the use of the article is determined by other factors (the context and other attributes).

e.g. She told me that she had discovered *a wonderful young man,* who was going to help her in the East End.

She asked me *a question,* which I did not hear.

On her sofa there was *a note-book* open, in which she was preparing her lessons for the term.

When he at last got to *the office*, where he spent so many dull hours, he gave a sigh of relief.

2) Attributive clauses so closely connected with the antecedent that they cannot be left out without destroying the meaning of the sentence. There is no pause between this kind of clause and the principal clause, and in writing they are never marked off by a comma. Such clauses may be joined to the principal clause either by connective words or asyndetically. Attributive clauses of this kind are called defining clauses and they may be limiting or descriptive, depending on the situation or context.

When attributive clauses are limiting, the definite article is used with the antecedent.

e.g. He took the cigarette that Robert offered him.

I remembered what I used to feel about the young men Charles brought to the house.

In the back of her mind was the memory that it was the city her friend came from.

In Russian the antecedent in this case may be modified by the words *тот самый... который.*

When attributive clauses are descriptive, the article with the antecedent is determined by the context or the situation.

e.g. She stared at me with *an expression* that made me uncomfortable.

"It's not *a story I* could tell anyone else, Harry," he said.

As a girl my mother had expected *a husband* who would give her love and position.

In Russian the antecedent in this case may be modified by the words *такой, который ..., такого рода (типа), который... .*

B. Appositive clauses disclose the meaning of the noun. They can modify only certain abstract nouns, such as *idea, feeling, hope, thought, impression, sense* and the like. Appositive clauses

are usually introduced by the conjunction *that* ('что') and are similar to object clauses.

e.g. He had *the feeling* that all his efforts proved to be futile.
He put off *the thought* that he ought to have tackled the conversation differently.

Appositive clauses are generally limiting attributes.

e.g. "I am sorry", she said, and I had *the impression* that she meant it.
The idea that he can be of use made him happy.
I was annoyed by *the sense* that nothing intellectual could ever trouble him.

Occasionally, however, the noun modified by an appositive clause is used with the indefinite article.

e.g. She had *an impression* that Charlie was speaking to his cousin rather than to her.
I had *a growing feeling* that time was running out.

§ 16. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by nouns in the common case. Attributes expressed by nouns in the common case are usually descriptive.

e.g. There was a glass door leading into the passage.
A silver tray was brought in with tea cups on it.
He sat on a kitchen chair.

When the modified noun is used with the definite article, this is accounted for by the situation, not by the attribute.

e.g. At the study door he stopped for a moment.
Lanny looked at the dining-room window and smiled.

Sometimes, however, nouns in the common case may serve as limiting attributes.

e.g. I reached the house just as the Whitehall lamps were coining out.
Do you believe we can leave the Sawbridge question where it is-

In this case the attribute is usually expressed by a proper name and serves to show that reference is made to a particular object.

§ 17. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by nouns in the genitive case. The use of articles with nouns modified by other nouns in the genitive case is specific. Before we speak of the choice of the article it is necessary to find out to which element of the combination it refers.

As has been said (see "Nouns", § 17), there are two kinds of the genitive case:

1) the specifying genitive which denotes a particular person or thing, as in: *my mother's picture, the man's voice, the river's bed.* In this case the article refers to the noun in the genitive case and
is chosen in accordance with the general rules.

e.g. *the boy's*
the boys'
a boy's *books*
Robert's

Note. When the noun in the genitive case is a proper name, there is naturally

2) the classifying (descriptive) genitive, which refers to a whole class of objects, as in: *sheep's eyes, a doctor's degree, a mile's distance.* In this case the article refers to the head-noun whereas the noun in the genitive case serves as a descriptive attribute. The article for the head-noun is chosen in accordance with the general rules.

e.g. We had not walked a mile's distance when we saw the river.
It was only a mile from the cottage to the nearest village but the mile's walk in the hot sun seemed very long to Jim.
Is there a butcher's shop in the street?
"I am looking for the butcher's shop," he said, "that used to be here when I was a child."

As the article here refers to the head-noun, the noun in the genitive case may have the plural form and yet be preceded by the indefinite article, as in: *a soldiers' canteen, a girls' school, a three miles' walk, a fifteen minutes' break.*

e.g. Would you like to go to a soldiers' canteen and *get* some food?
The College has a two years' course.

§ **18. The use of articles with countable nouns modified by prepositional phrases.** Attributes may be expressed by nouns **with** various prepositions. Depending on the context or the situation, they may be either **descriptive** (a) or **limiting** (b).

e.g. a) But you must know that **a marriage with a boy in a jazz band** wouldn't last a year.
A man under such circumstances is always very helpless,
b) He always felt ill at ease among **the callers at his** sister's **house.**
The darkness was almost complete, and **the boats in the harbour** were swaying to the rhythm of the sea's breathing.

Within this type of attributes special consideration should be given to the so-called **of-phrase** which is very common. Of-phrases may serve as descriptive and limiting attributes.

Descriptive of-phrases are recognized by clear-cut meanings. They denote:

quality — *a book of interest, a feeling of relief, a question of importance, a portait of a girl,* etc.
quantity or measure — *a temperature of* + 20°, a *distance of three miles, a box of two tons,* etc.
composition — *a group of children, a flock of birds, a party of twelve people, a team of hockey players,* etc.
material — *a wall of glass, a ring of gold, a scarf of thick wool,* etc.
content — *a cup of tea, a bottle of milk, a packet of cigarettes,* etc.
age — *a boy of five, a man of middle age,* etc.
size — *a sailor of middle height, a building of enormous size,* etc.
comparison — *a wild cat of a woman* (=a woman like a wild cat), *an angel of a wife* (=a wife like an angel), *a devil of **a** boy* (=a boy like a devil), etc.

Here also belong such combinations as: *a friend of mine, a book of my own,* etc.

Nouns modified by descriptive of-phrases usually take the indefinite article. But the definite article may also be used and then it is accounted for by the context or by the situation.

All other of-phrases are limiting and, consequently, the head-noun is used with the definite article. As limiting of-phrases express a great variety of meanings there is no point in classifying them. The most common types of combinations are: *the house of my neighbour, the wife of a miner, the foot of the mountain, the collar of a shirt, the smoothness of a new machine, the shot of a gun, the development of science, the roaring of the ocean, the invention of the radio, the use of articles, the name of John, the city of New York, the position of a teacher, the colour of amber, the shadow of a tree, the outline of a boat.*

In some cases, however, the choice of the article is affected not only by the nature of the of-phrase but also by the following factors:

1) If the head-noun denotes an object which is the only bearer of the property expressed by the *of*-phrase, the definite article is used: *the president of the club, the glow of a lamp, the murderer of Caesar, the monitor of the group,* etc.

2) If there are many objects of the same description, the indefinite article is used: *a member of the club, a student of the group, **a** puff of wind,* etc.

3) The definite article is used, alongside the indefinite, when
B there is a definite number of component parts: *the (a) leg of the table, the (a) wheel of the car, the (an) ear of **a** dog.*

The Use of the Definite Article with Countable Nouns

§ **19.** There are certain uses of the definite article which are to be regarded as a matter of tradition:

1) We often find the definite article used by reason of locality, i.e. with reference to objects that surround the speaker (or the people and things described by him). This usually refers to objects either indoors (e.g. *the corner, the window, the table, the door, the wall,* etc.) or outdoors (e.g. *the stars, the street, the trees, the flowers, the houses, the leaves, the birds, the bees,* etc.).

e.g. As I came up our street, I saw my mother and my brother waving from **the window.**
The late sun streamed across the kitchen, and a patch of light danced on **the wall.**
A bee buzzed among **the flowers.**
The trees swayed to and fro under the grey sky.
The gulls flew low over the barges.

The noonday heat had even stilled the songs of the birds.

It should be noted that this rule applies only to a limited number of nouns.

2) The definite article is used with nouns denoting objects that are usually found in a particular place. It is taken for granted that the object is to be found there. For example, we normally expect to find a subject and a predicate in a sentence. Therefore in analysing the sentence *The old man walked slowly* we say: *"The old man* is the subject, *walked* is the predicate." But we say: *"Old* is an attribute, *slowly* is an adverbial modifier of manner," as the secondary parts are not found in every sentence.

When we speak about the cinema or the theatre we say: *"I couldn't find my seat and asked* the *attendant to help me."* In a cafe or a restaurant we say: *"Let's call* the *waiter."* In a department store we say: *"Let's go to* the *men's clothing department"* At home we may hear: *"I'll put* the *kettle on and make you some tea."* or *"Can I turn* the *radio off? I want to read* the *paper."*

Note. It should be noted that it is customary in English to use possessive pronouns (and not the definite article) when speaking about one's relatives, parts of the body, articles of clothing and other personal belongings.

e.g. His brother was wearing a sweater up to his neck and chestnut hair down to his shoulders.
"Where is he?" Stephen asked, looking at his watch.
She put her hand into her bag and took out her handkerchief.

However, in certain idiomatic phrases the definite article is the norm.

e.g. He took her by the arm and led her out of the room.
He was wounded in the leg.
For more examples see "Pronouns", § 6.

The Generic Function of the Definite Article

§ 20. A singular countable noun with a definite article may represent a whole class of objects, thus becoming a composite image of that class (but not a typical representative). A noun in this function is called a generic singular.

e.g. The violet is a lovely flower.
The cuckoo is a lazy bird.
To the philosopher, language may be an instrument of thought; to the sociologist, a form of behaviour; to the psychologist' a cloudy window through which he glimpses the workings of the mind; to the engineer, a series of physical events; to the linguist, a system of arbitrary signs.
The aeroplane has made the world a small place.

Note 1. It is also sometimes possible to use the indefinite article in similar cases.

e.g. A violet is a lovely flower.

This use of the indefinite article is not to be identified, however, with the generic function of the definite article. The indefinite article is used here in its nominating function, implying any representative of the class. Hence the use of the indefinite article is not equivalent to that of the definite article when the noun is used as a composite image of a whole class. For that reason the indefinite article is not possible in the following sentences.

e.g. Now the horse has been replaced by the tractor.
"In this lecture I am going to speak about the article in English," said the professor.

In other cases, however, when any typical representative of a class but not a composite image of that class is meant, only the indefinite article may be used.

e.g. A book makes a good present.
A passenger is allowed to take 20 kg of hand luggage free of charge.
A word or word-group may be emphasized (i.e. thrown into greater prominence).
A flower is always a beautiful decoration.

Note 2. Note that a plural noun used in a generic sense has no article irrespective of whether it is parallel to a singular noun with the definite or indefinite article.

e.g. Violets are lovely flowers.
Aeroplanes have made the world a small place.
Now horses have been replaced by tractors.
Flowers are always a beautiful decoration.

Note 3. When the noun *man* is used in a generic sense, no article is found with it.

e.g. Surely he had suffered everything that man can endure.

The noun *woman* in a generic sense may be used with the definite article or without any article.

e.g. He had always been interested in that mysterious being — the woman.
Woman is man's helpmate.

The generic article is always found with collective nouns denoting social groups or classes. The article serves to emphasize the idea of collectivity, as in: *the proletariat, the peasantry, the bourgeoisie, the aristocracy, the nobility, the gentry, the clergy, the intelligentsia, the public, the police.* (For concord of these nouns with their predicate verbs see "Nouns", § 13.)

With other nouns, the use of the generic singular is restricted in two ways:

1) Only a semantically limited group of nouns appear to be used generically. We mainly find here names of animals, plants, professions and occupations, the nouns *man, woman* and *child,* collective nouns denoting social groups and, last but not least, scientific terms.

Note. In particular, grammar terms may also be used generically.

e.g. **The noun** may have different functions in **the sentence.**
The article is a structural word specifying **the noun.**

2) Generic singulars are mainly characteristic of scientific and literary prose where there is a need for generalization. That means that there is a stylistic restriction on the use of generic singulars.

§ 21. The definite article is used with generic plurals but it is found only when the idea of collectivity is definitely emphasized, suggesting 'the whole body of, as in: a) *the Russians, the Germans, the Italians, the Americans;* b) *the peasants, the workers, the Tories, the aristocrats, the Liberals, the catholics.*

e.g. **The Italians** have given the world some first-class film producers.
The Tories will not lift a finger to help **the workers.**

As we see from the above examples, this use of the generic definite article is found with names of nationalities, representatives of political parties, classes, social groups and also religious beliefs. Note, however, that there is no article when not the whole body of but separate, individual representatives are meant.

e.g. **Italians** are often good singers.
Charles knew that his wife wrote articles for the paper and had friends among left-wing people and **liberals.**

It should be stressed that the use of generic plurals is still more lexically restricted than that of generic singulars as it is found with a more limited number of semantic groups of nouns. Yet it is not restricted stylistically.

Note. The noun *people* is used with the definite article when the idea of collectivity is emphasized.

e.g. (All) **the people** in the village liked the new doctor.

But if the idea of collectivity is not uppermost in the mind of the speaker, there is no article at **all.**

e.g. She was speaking with absolute certainty: "(All) **People** are selfish."

§ 22. The same generic use of the definite article is found with substantivized adjectives (e.g. *the blind, the poor, the rich, the young, the old,* etc.). This is also the case with some adjectives denoting names of nationalities (e.g. *the British, the French, the Chinese, the Japanese,* etc.). On the whole it should be noted that the number of adjectives thus substantivized is very limited (see also "Adjectives", § 6).

e.g. **The British** are a nation of newspaper readers.
The rich get richer and **the poor** get poorer.

It is necessary to point out here that when not the whole body but separate, individual representatives are meant, a noun should be added.

Cf. **The young** are often intolerant.
Ah, well! Young men can't help making fools of themselves," he said amiably.

The old are often helpless.
The old woman was helpless.

Note. Adjectives followed by *ones* may have generic force and then they are used with the definite article.

e.g. "It isn't **the pretty** ones that become good wives and mothers," said Jack.
"**The little** ones always know a good man from a bad one," said the old woman.

The Use of Articles with Countable Nouns in Some Syntactic Patterns

§ 23. In some syntactic patterns we observe certain peculiarities in the use of articles. This refers, in the first place, to the use of articles with nouns in the function of predicative or apposition.

1) As a rule, nouns used predicatively or in apposition take the indefinite article. It is used here in its nominating function in

accordance with the general rule. It stands to reason that nouns in the plural have no article, e.g.

Predicative: **"I'm** a **socialist,** of course," he said.
All my friends were **students.**

Apposition: "I'm sure you know Alfred Hard, **a professor** at London University," she remarked.
My friends, **all students** then, often discussed the war.

Nouns used predicatively or in apposition may have descriptive attributes, e.g.

Predicative: **He** was **an extremely boring fellow.**

Apposition: **Hart, an uneasy nervous man,** made a few sarcastic remarks.

2) The definite article, in accordance with its individualizing function, serves to show that the speaker or writer is referring to a definite person or object. As a rule, the noun in this case has a limiting attribute, e.g.

Predicative: Philip had been **the hero of his childhood.**

Apposition: Then Jack, **the most impudent person there,** interrupted me.

In addition to this rule it should be mentioned that a noun in apposition is also used with the definite article when the speaker takes it for granted that the hearer knows the person in question, e.g. "What is it, Maty?" "It's Mr Hooker, **the newspaper editor,** he wants to see you."

As the invited entered the house they were greeted by Elsie, **the maid.**

Erich Maria Remarque, **the German-born anti-war writer,** said that his novels were successful because in them he told "about a generation which had been destroyed by war in spite of the fact that it escaped death."

3) Nouns used predicatively or in apposition may have no article. This is found in the following cases:

a) when they denote a position (rank, state, post or occupation) which is unique. Note that the noun in this case usually has an *of* phrase attribute, e.g.

Predicative: Mike Slattery was **chairman of the Republican county committee.**

Apposition: W. Carl Johnson, **Superintendent of the School,** received me in his office.

Occasionally the definite article is also used in such cases, e.g.

Predicative: **I** think we all realize that Mr Passant has been **the leader of our group.**

Apposition: So one day **I** took the opportunity to talk to Mr Pукe, **the assistant director of the firm.**

b) when they denote a relationship and stress is laid on the social position of the person expressed by the subject (or the head-noun). The noun is usually modified by an of-phrase in this case, e.g.

Predicative: Mrs Nelson was **wife of the manager of the firm.**
He is heir to a rich manufacturer.

Apposition: Margaret, **daughter of a history professor,** was working as secretary to a Labour member.

But usually we find the definite article here, e.g.

Predicative: She was **the wife of a local tradesman.**
One of these young men was **the son of an eminent writer.**

Apposition: Ann, **the daughter of the landlady,** cooked breakfast, for the boarders.
Then I was introduced to Charles March, **the** nephew **of our** host.

Note. On the whole, with the nouns *son* and *daughter* used predicatively or in apposition we find the following three variants:

a. She is **the daughter** of a doctor *{which is the most common variant expressing mere relationship).*
b. She is **a daughter** of a doctor *(which expresses the idea that the doctor has more than one daughter, the variant is not used unless this idea becomes important).*
c She is **daughter** of a doctor *(which describes the social position of the person in question).*

c) when nouns used predicatively serve to denote a certain characteristic of the person indicated by the subject. The noun predicative is usually followed by *enough* here. (This case is not found with nouns in apposition.)

e.g. He isn't **fool** enough to believe that sort of thing.
She is woman enough to understand it.

d) when predicative nouns are used in clauses of concession with inverted word-order.

e.g. **Child** though she was, she had suffered much.
Boy as he was, he was chosen their leader.

Constructions of this kind are characteristic only of literary style.

Note. There is no article with the predicative noun in the phraseological units *to turn traitor, to turn pirate, to turn miser.*

§ 24. In English there are a number of verbs which in the Active Voice require the use of nouns as objective predicatives (a) and in the Passive Voice — as subjective predicatives (b).

e.g. a) They thought him **a prig.**
They named the child **John.**
b) He was thought **a prig.**
The child was named **John.**

The number of verbs which can be used in sentences containing an objective or a subjective predicative expressed by a noun is limited. The most commonly used of them are: *to appoint, to call, to choose, to elect, to fancy, to imagine, to make, to name, to think.*

Note. There are a number of other verbs requiring the same construction but they belong to literary style. Some of these verbs may be used both in the passive and active constructions; others occur only in one of them.

The use of articles with nouns which serve as objective (a) and subjective (b) predicatives is similar to that of predicative nouns and nouns in apposition (see "Articles", § 23).

e.g. a) They appointed him **a member** of the delegation.
We elected him **an honorary member** of the Committee.
He fancied her **the most wonderful woman** in the world.
They chose him **chairman** of the Society.
They appointed him secretary of the new Committee.
b) He was appointed a **member** of the delegation.
He was elected **an honorary member** of the Committee.
She was thought **the most impudent little flirt** in London.
He was chosen **chairman** of the Society.
He was appointed **secretary** of the new Committee.

Note. In the sentences *They took him prisoner* and *He was taken prisoner, They called him names* and *He was called names* we are dealing with set phrases.

§ 25. The rules given for the use of articles with predicative nouns and nouns in apposition also hold good for nouns introduced by *as.*

e.g. I regarded my uncle as **a terrible tyrant.**
He meant it as **a joke** but forgot to smile.
He went to the conference as **the head** of the delegation.
He acted as **interpreter** for Mr March.
They nominated him as **Lord Treasurer** of the Council.

Although the use of articles with nouns introduced by *as* is, on the whole, similar to that with predicative nouns and nouns in apposition, there is a deviation from the general rule — the indefinite article need not always be used after *as.*

e.g. Rebecca was now engaged as (a) **governess.**
The man had agreed to serve as **(a) witness.**
Mr Stapleton had persuaded a leather merchant to take my father on as **traveller** ('коммивояжер').
"I can't see him doing much good as **a traveller,**" said my aunt.

Note. The above rules do not concern nouns introduced by as used for comparison. In this case the articles are used in accordance with the general rules for countable nouns.

e.g. The city looked to him as brilliant as a precious stone.
You were as white as **the sheet** in your hands.

§ 26. When nouns denoting titles, military ranks, or social standing are followed by a proper name they are used without any article, as in: *Colonel Holmes, Doctor Smith, Professor Jones, Academician Fedorou, Lieutenant-General Rawdon, President Wilson, Prime Minister Forbes, Queen Elisabeth, King George, Lord Byron, Lady Windermere, Sir William,* **etc.** In such combinations only the proper name is stressed.

Note ***1.*** But we say: **The doctor** *has come.* **The Prime Minister** *made an announcement yesterday.*

Note 2. The definite article is used in such cases as *the late Professor Smith, the celebrated playwright Osborne.*

Note 3. A foreign title followed by a proper name is used with the definite article: *the Baron Munchausen, the Emperor Napoleon III, the Tsar Peter the Great.*

The article is not used with some nouns denoting close relationship when they are followed by names of persons, as in *Aunt Polly, Uncle Timothy, Cousin John.*

Other common nouns, when, followed by proper names, are used with the definite article, as in: *the boy Dick, the student Smith, the painter Turner, the composer Britten, the widow Douglas, the witness Manning, the geologist Foster, the dog Bal thasar,* etc. In this case both the common noun and the proper name are stressed.

Combinations as above are found not only with names of persons but also with lifeless things and abstract notions, as in: *the planet Mars, the preposition* on, *the verb* to be, *the figure* 2, etc.

Note, With names of persons in newspaper style there is a tendency to omit the article in this case too. Thus we find:

e.g. **World middleweight champion Dick Tiger** said yesterday that he will retain his title against **American Gene Fullmer.**

However, such combinations on the whole are not very common. More often we find a proper name followed by an appositive common noun.

e.g. Britten, the modern English composer...
Turner, the celebrated English painter...
Manson, a promising young actor...

§ 27. The article is not used with nouns in appositive of-phrases when the head-noun denotes a title or a post,

e.g. They nominated candidates for the post of President and Vice-President.
He got the degree of Master of Arts.
When I was a young man, the position of schoolmaster carried with it a sense of responsibility.

§ 28. The article is not used in the adverbial pattern *from - to,* in which the same noun is repeated after the prepositions, as in: *from tree to tree, from street to street, from town to town, from day to day,* etc. Such combinations are to be regarded as free combinations (not set phrases) as the number of nouns thus used is practically unlimited. Care should be taken not to confuse such free combinations with set phrases, which are somewhat similar to the above mentioned pattern but limited in number:

a) *from head to foot, from top to toe, from top to bottom, from beginning to end, from South to North.* (Here after the prepositions *from ... to* we find two different nouns, not the same noun. The number of such units is limited.)

b) *hand in hand, arm in arm, shoulder to shoulder, face to face, day by day.* (The same noun connected by different prepositions is repeated here. The number of such units is also limited.)

§ 29. There is no article with nouns in direct address.

e.g. "How is my wife, doctor?"
"Well, young man," said Eden with a smile, "what can I do for you?"

§ 30. After the exclamatory *what* we find the indefinite article with singular nouns.

e.g. "What a car!" she exclaimed.
I thought what an unhappy man he must be!
What a narrow-minded, suspicious woman Maria was!

With plural nouns there is no article, in accordance with the general rules.

e.g. What marvellous books you've got!

It is noteworthy that no article is used after the interrogative *what* modifying a noun.

e.g. What question did you want to ask me?

§ 31. The definite article is found within an *of-phrase* preceded by *one, some, any, each, many, most, none, all, several, the first, the last, the rest, the majority.*

e.g. "One of the letters is from Tom," she said.
Most of the lecturers had other jobs in the town.
Several of the boys knew that my father had "failed in busi-

Compare the above given combinations with: *one letter, most Lecturers, several boys,* etc.

§ 32. There is a fluctuation in the use of articles in the following type of combinations: *a sort of (a) man, the sort of (a) man, what sort of (a) man, this sort of (a) man, that sort of (a) man, some sort of (a) man; a (the, some, what, this, that) kind of (a) man, a (the, some, what, this, that) type of (a) man.*

e.g. He showed us a new type of bulb.
"What sort of a day have you had?" I asked him.
I said: "It's not the sort of situation one laughs at."
It was too dark to see what kind of a house it was.
"What kind of car was it?" Ramsden asked.

The more commonly found variant is the one without any article.

THE USE OF ARTICLES WITH UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

The Use of Articles with Uncountable Abstract Nouns

§ 33. Abstract nouns, like concrete nouns, fall into two classes: countables and uncountables. [1]

Among abstract countable nouns we find, e.g. *answer, belief, conclusion, doubt, effort, fact, government, holiday, idea, job, lie, mistake, opinion, plan, principle, promise, question, reply, sentence, visit, word* and many others.

Countable abstract nouns may be used in the singular and in the plural.

e.g. He had a brilliant idea. I like their method of work.
He always had brilliant ideas. I like their methods of work.

The class of uncountable abstract nouns includes such nouns as: *anger, beauty, curiosity, excitement, freedom, grace, happiness, impatience, jealousy, love, modesty, nervousness, pride, respect, strength, time, violence, work* and many others.

Uncountable abstract nouns are used only in the singular.

It is sometimes difficult to draw a line of division between countable and uncountable nouns. Some abstract nouns are used as countables in one meaning and as uncountables in another:

Uncountable	*Countable*
work — работа	*a work* — произведение
silence — тишина, молчание	*a silence* — пауза
decision — решительность, решимость	*a decision* — решение
kindness — доброта	*a kindness* — доброе дело
experience — опыт	*an experience* — случай из жизни
favour — милость, расположение	*a favour* — одолжение
failure — неудача, провал	*a failure* — неудачное дело; неудачник
society — общество	*a society* — организация, кружок
nature — природа	*a nature* — натура, характер
grammar — грамматика *(наука)*	*a grammar* — учебник по грамматике
observation — наблюдение	*an observation* — замечание

e.g. They walked in silence along the path.
After a long silence he began his story.
She spoke with decision.
You must carefully think before you take a decision.
He is a wicked person who is insensible to kindness.
If you write him you will be doing him a kindness.
He has been doing this kind of work for many years, so he has a good deal of experience.
It was an unpleasant experience and he didn't speak of it.

There are also a number of abstract nouns which appear both as uncountables and countables without any noticeable change of meaning, e.g. *chance, change, difficulty, language, profit, reason, temptation, torture, trouble, war* and some others.

[1] The division of nouns into these two classes is a matter of tradition and can hardly be accounted for either semantically or grammatically.

Some of the nouns that generally tend to be uncountable are in certain constructions regularly used with the indefinite article. Here belong *comfort, disgrace, disappointment, pity, pleasure, relief, shame* and some others. They are found with the indefinite article when they are used as predicatives after a formal *it* as subject (a) or after the exclamatory *what* (b):

e.g. a) **It** is **a pleasure to** see you.
It was **a relief** to know that she was safely home,
b) What **a disappointment!**
What **a pity!**

But we say: **I'll** do it with **pleasure.**
She gave a sigh of **relief.**
He now knew what disappointment was.
She felt **pity** for the poor child.

§ 34. The use of articles with countable abstract nouns does not differ from their use with countable concrete nouns: in the singular countable abstract nouns are used with the indefinite or definite article; in the plural they are used without any article or with the definite article.

e.g. He told the child **a** story.
He told the child stories.

The child knew **the** story he told.
The child knew **the** stories he told.

§ 35. As a general rule, uncountable abstract nouns are used without any article.

e.g. **Indifference** and **pride** look very much alike, and he probably thought I was proud.
I knew that **generosity** would have been wasted on him.
There was sharpness in her bones, **sharpness** in her voice, **sharpness** in her eyes.
She had attached herself to **youth** and **hope** and seriousness and now they failed her more than age and **despair.**

The absence of the article (the zero article) serves the same purpose as the indefinite article with countable nouns, i.e. it per forms the nominating function.

Cf, When in distress people look for **a friend.**
When in distress people look for **friendship.**
His desire was simply for **a companion.**
His desire was simply for **companionship.**

§ 36. The definite article is used with uncountable nouns when they are modified by a limiting attribute, which may be expressed in different ways.

e.g. He was in a state of **the greatest excitement.**
They were surprised at **the curious silence into which he had fallen.**

He jumped at the **abruptness of the question.**

Sometimes the limitation is clear from the context.

- e.g. It was very still in the house. Suddenly a faint sound could be heard in **the stillness.**
A moment afterwards the lights round the garden suddenly went out. **In the darkness** we felt lost.
For a long time they walked without saying a word. Jim was the first to break **the silence.**

The definite article is used here in its restricting function, to denote a particular instance of the notion, expressed by the noun.

§ 37. The definite article is also found with substantivized adjectives denoting abstract notions, e.g. *the ordinary, the average, the beautiful, the unusual, the supernatural, the extravagant, the unknown, the regrettable, the normal, the grotesque, the unbearable,* etc.

e.g. "You shouldn't think you're something out of **the ordinary,"** she said.
"Do you believe in **the supernatural?"** he asked.

§ 38. The indefinite article is used with uncountable abstract nouns when they are modified by a descriptive attribute which brings out a special aspect of the notion expressed by the noun. The attribute may be expressed in different ways.

e.g. A dull anger rose in his chest.
There seemed to be a wonderful excitement everywhere in the world.
There was a tenderness in his voice that moved her.
She recognized a pleasant irony in his voice.
"Didn't you feel a certain impatience?" they asked.
His face had a calmness that was new to her.
She had a natural grace that was very attractive.
He had a patience which amazed his friends.
His new experience filled him with a singular enthusiasm.

The indefinite article is used here in its aspective function.
By way of exception the aspective indefinite article is sometimes used even when the noun has no attribute.

e.g. After a time a loneliness fell upon the two men.
There was a bitterness in her voice.

A loneliness means 'a certain loneliness' and *a bitterness* means 'a certain bitterness' here.

It should be stressed that the use of the indefinite article with uncountable abstract nouns is typical of literary style (see the examples above).

§ 39. Sometimes an uncountable abstract noun is used with an attribute and yet has no article. This seems to contradict the general rule, but it can actually be explained by the nature of the attribute (a) or the nature of the noun (b).

a) In some cases the attribute does not bring out a special aspect of the notion expressed by the noun. The attribute may express degree (e.g. *great, perfect, sufficient, huge, tremendous, immense, sheer, utter, complete, infinite, endless, major* and some others), or qualify the noun from the point of view of time (e.g. *modern, ancient, impending, eternal, daily, contemporary, further, final, original),* nationality (e.g. *English, French,* etc.), geography (e.g. *Moscow, London, world,* etc.), authenticity (e.g. *real, genuine, authentic, symbolic,* etc.) or give it social characteristic (e.g. *bourgeois, capitalist, racial, religious,* etc.).

e.g. I have perfect confidence in him.
She has great experience in her work.
I'm sure your work will give you complete satisfaction.
He had sufficient ability to carry out any complicated task.
The reward had only symbolic value.
I didn't think it had real importance.
They talked about modern poetry.
He was conscious of impending danger.
It's three o'clock by Moscow time.
Ron was particularly interested in ancient sculpture.
Mrs Peters, feeling instinctively that Greek architecture would leave her cold, excused herself from the excursion.

Note. But the definite article is used with the combinations *French poetry, modern art, American literature, German philosophy,* etc. if there is a limiting attribute, as in: the *Russian literature of that period,* the *French poetry of the 19th century,* etc.

b) Some nouns are never used with the indefinite article. They are nouns of verbal character denoting actions, activity, process, such as *admiration, advice, applause, approval, assistance, concern, encirclement, guidance, information, permission, progress, recognition, research, torture, trade* ('торговля'), *work* and some others.

This rule applies also to the following nouns: *change* ('сдача'), *fun, health, luck, money, nature, news, {outer) space, weather* and some others.

e.g". I am not sure whether it is good news or bad.
He was anxiously waiting for permission to begin his experiment.
As I knew, Mr March always expressed gloomy concern if one of his children had a sore throat.
He wondered whether her silence was tacit approval.
He felt honest admiration for his colleague.

Note 1. It should be noted that in a considerable number of cases both factors, i.e. the character of the attribute and the character of the noun, are found together,
e.g. She was making great progress.
They promised Jackson further assistance.

Note 2. Although the above mentioned nouns are never used with the indefinite article, they can be used with the definite article,
e.g. He told me of the progress he was making.
The news was so upsetting that she said she would not see anyone that night,

Note 3. Notice the sentence patterns with the noun *weather:*

e.g. The weather is fine (cold, etc).
What is the weather like today?

If the weather changes...
We are having **fine weather.**
What cold weather we are having!
I wouldn't like to go out in **such (bad) weather.**
A spell of warm weather set in. **(We** had a **spell of bad weather.)**
They were discussing (talking about) **the** weather.
The flight was cancelled because of **(the) bad weather.**

*Note **4.*** The noun *wind* is uncountable.

e.g. There isn't much **wind** today.

Yet it is regularly used with the definite article.

e.g. **The wind** was blowing and **it** was cold.
The wind is rising (falling).
He ran like **the wind.**

But if the noun *wind* is modified by a descriptive attribute it is used with the aspective indefinite article,

e.g. **A cold wind** was blowing from the north.

For stylistic purposes it may be used in the plural,

e.g. **The cold winds** blew the leaves off the trees.

Note 5. Notice the sentence patterns with the noun *life:*
e.g. **Life** goes on, ever changeless and changing.
Life is worth living.
They began a **new life**.
They were leading a **happy life.**
The life he is leading now causes everyone distress.

§ 40. Sometimes the use of articles with an uncountable abstract noun is affected by the syntactic function of the noun.

1) Nouns in attributive and adverbial prepositional phrases of manner have no article even if they have descriptive attributes.

Attributive prepositional phrases are usually introduced by the preposition of (other prepositions may also be found, but not often).

e.g. His flush of anger died as he began to listen more attentively.
An odd feeling of curiosity made him look through the keyhole.
He awoke with a feeling of sharp anticipation.
His face bore a look of cold disapproval.
He had an unsatisfied hunger for knowledge.

Adverbial prepositional phrases are usually introduced by the preposition *with,* sometimes in. (other prepositions may also be found in this case, but not often).

e.g. The old man looked at the boy with curiosity.
He turned round in annoyance, and then walked away.
"You have seen it?" he asked with intense interest.
Ann examined everything about her with great care.
She kissed him with warm affection.

The tendency to use the noun in attributive and adverbial prepositional phrases without any article is so strong that sometimes even countable nouns have no article in these functions.

e.g. It is a question of principle, and it must be discussed before we take a decision.
It was just a plain statement of fact.
He refused to help us without apparent reason.
He listened without remark while Robert poured out his heart to him.
The young doctor was received in amiable fashion.
The door closed without sound.
He spoke with effort.

However, the use of the indefinite article in such cases is still the norm with a vast majority of countable nouns.

Although the general tendency is to use abstract uncountable nouns in attributive and adverbial prepositional phrases without articles, occasionally either the definite or the indefinite article may be found.

The use of the definite article is generally associated with the use of limiting attributes modifying the noun.

e.g. "May I speak to you in the strictest confidence?" he asked.
"No," said Eric after the slightest hesitation.
He watched her go from group to group with the same ease.
He trembled all over with the exertion of keeping himself upright.

The use of the indefinite article appears to be optional — it seems to depend on the desire of the speaker to lay particular stress on the special aspect expressed by the attribute modifying the noun. Thus it would be correct to use the nouns in the following examples without articles in accordance with the general rule.

e.g. We looked at her face and saw the distorting lines of a deep and anxious weariness.

He smiled at me **with a** grave **sympathy.**
He walked in **a** solemn silence.

In some cases, however, the use of the indefinite article is obligatory. It is always used in prepositional phrases in which the noun is modified either by the adjectives *certain said peculiar* or by an attributive clause.

e.g. The girl interrupted him **with a certain impatience** in her voice.
She spoke to strangers **with a peculiar intimacy.**
He gripped his hand **with an abruptness that revealed his emotion.**
He entertained **with an originality that pleased.**

2) There is a tendency to use an uncountable abstract noun in the function of a predicative without any article even if the noun has a descriptive attribute.

e.g. The result of the experiment had been dismal failure.
"It was **righteous punishment,"** he exclaimed.
When they were together, it was **pure happiness.**
I suspected that this was not just **ordinary anxiety.**

Prepositional phrases in the function of a predicative are usually set phrases. Care should be taken to learn the use of the article in each case, e.g. *to be in despair, to be in service, to be in power, to be of (the) opinion, to be of importance, to be out of control, to be in danger, to be out of danger, to be in a rage, to be in a good (bad) humour, to be at a loss, to be in a hurry,* etc.

The Use of Articles with Uncountable Concrete Nouns (Names of Materials)

§41. Uncountable concrete nouns (names of materials) are generally used without any article. The absence of the article has nominating force.

e.g. These sleeping pills should be dissolved in water.
She had nothing in the medicine chest but **toothpaste** and **mouth-wash** and **shampoo.**

Unlike uncountable abstract nouns, names of materials are used without any article even if they are modified by a descriptive attribute.

e.g. She said: "I knitted the socks myself of **thick grey wool."**
I ticked off the names written in **violet ink.**
He took out of his pocket an object wrapped in **tissue paper.**

§ 42. The definite article in its restricting function is used with names of materials if they are restricted in their quantity or by reason of locality.

e.g. The boss took up a pen and picked a fly out of **the ink.**
Together they walked through **the slush and mud.**
He observed everybody who came in, as they shook **the thin watery snow** from their hats and coats.

Note 1. However, there is no restriction implied in such phrases and sentences as: *a bottle of milk, a cup of tea* or *The ground was covered with snow. The pond was covered with ice.*

Note 2. As is seen from the examples above, most uncountable concrete nouns are names of materials. However, there are a few other uncountable concrete nouns which are not names of materials *(e.g. machinery, equipment, furniture* and some others). The same rules are applied to them.

e.g. She hoped she would save enough money to buy new furniture.
The furniture they had was enough for a much bigger house.

§ 43. Sometimes, owing to a change in meaning, names of materials become countable [1] and as such they are used with articles in accordance with the rules for countable nouns. That means that they may then be used with the indefinite article.

Names of materials become countable nouns in the following cases:

a) when various sorts of food products and materials are meant,

e.g. They are now giving you **bad teas** in the club.
There is a beautiful display of **cottons** in the shop window.

b) when a portion of food or drink is meant,

e.g. If you want to please the boy, buy him **an** ice.
We went into the pub and I ordered **two whiskies.**
"A salad and **two** coffees will do," she said smiling.

[1] In *the waters of the Pacific, the snows of Kilimanjaro* or *the sands of the Sahara* the plural does not signify any change in meaning but is purely a stylistic device.

c) sometimes the change of meaning is quite considerable — the noun comes to indicate an object made of a certain material,

e.g. **A full** glass of orange juice stood beside him.
There was **a tin** of sardines on the table.

The Use of Articles with Some Semantic Groups of Nouns

§ **44.** There are certain semantic groups of nouns which are very common in English. These nouns are sometimes used as countables and sometimes as uncountables. Besides, they are often found as part of set phrases. They include the following semantic groups:

Names of Parts of the Day

§ **45.** To this group of nouns belong: *day, night, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, midnight, dawn, twilight, dusk, sun rise, sunset, daytime, nightfall* and the like.

1) When the speaker uses these nouns he often means a particular day, night, etc. and then naturally the definite article is used. The limitation is very often clear from the situation or the context but it may also be expressed with the help of a limiting attribute.

e.g. **The night** was warm and beautifully still.
He decided to spend **the afternoon** with his friends.
The weather was very cold on **the day** of his arrival.

Sometimes we find a descriptive attribute with nouns denoting parts of the day, but the definite article will still be used if the above mentioned limitation holds good.

e.g. I could see a few faint stars in **the clear night.**
I was not in a hurry, and walked along, basking in **the** warm **evening.**

The definite article is also found with nouns denoting parts of the day used generically.

e.g. He used to spend the morning lying about the beach.
I often sat up **the night** with him and read to him to ease his pain.

2) When nouns indicating parts of the day have a descriptive attribute and are the centre of communication in the sentence . they are used with the indefinite article (in its aspective function). This use of the indefinite article is mainly found in the following sentence patterns:

e.g. It had been **a** wet **day;** the pavements were glistening, though now the rain had stopped.
It was **a fine, warm** night and Charles and I decided to walk home.
On **a hot** September evening he strolled idly to the embankment.
We were having tea in my room on **a cold January afternoon.**

3) Nouns denoting parts of the day have no article when they are used as predicatives.

e.g. It was evening when he decided to lay his books aside and take a walk.
It was nearly **midnight** and neither of us had eaten for a long time.
It was dusk but I could see Henry walking across the field.

However, if these nouns are used predicatively with a descriptive attribute, the indefinite article is used (see point 2 above).

But the article is not used with nouns denoting parts of the day if they are modified by one of the following adjectives:

e.g. It was **early morning.**
It was **broad day.**
It was **high noon.**
It was **late evening.**

The adjectives *early, late, broad* and *high* do not describe any part of the day here, but just indicate the time of the day with more precision. *(Morning* refers to a longer period of the day than *early morning* or *late morning.)*

4) In many cases the use of articles with nouns denoting parts of the day has become traditional.

a) In some prepositional phrases either the definite article or no article is found. They are to be treated as set phrases. The definite article is used in: *in the afternoon, in the daytime, in the evening, in the morning, in the night.* No article is used after the prepositions *at, by, about, past, before, after, towards, till, until,* e.g. *at night, at dawn, by day* ('днем'), *by night* ('ночью'), *by noon* ('к полудню'), *by midnight* ('к полуночи'), *past noon, about midnight, before dawn, after sunset,* etc.

e.g. I would take pills **at night** to make me sleep quickly, but I never found any pills that would keep me asleep **till daylight.**
Rain was now falling in sheets as it so often did **before dawn.**
After midnight I walked to the beach with him, sad to see him leave so soon.

b) There is no article with the nouns *morning, day* and *dawn* when they are used as subject to the verbs *to break, to be at hand;* the same is true of the nouns *evening, night, dusk* when they are followed by the verbs *to fall, to gather, to set in, to be at hand, to come.*

e.g. Day was breaking when we set out.
The sky was overcast and **dusk** fell early.
Dawn was breaking among the olives, silvering their still leaves.

c) There is no article with nouns denoting parts of the day when they are modified by the names of the days of the week and the words *tomorrow* and *yesterday.*

e.g. I went to Aunt Milly's house on **Friday evening.**
He spoke to Lin on the telephone on **Thursday afternoon.**
I shall see him **tomorrow morning.**
She was here **yesterday afternoon.**

Note. Compare: *We met on Saturday night* ('Мы встретились в прошлую субботу вечером') and *We met on a Saturday night* ('Мы встретились однажды субботним вечером').

d) There is no article in the following phrases: *all day {long)* and *all night (through)* (but we say: *all through* **the** *night* and *all through* **the** *day), day after day, night after night, day in day out, from morning till night, (to work) day and night, in the dead of night, late at night* (but *early in the morning).*

e) There is a tendency to use the nouns denoting parts of the day without any article in attributive of-phrases. Yet, the definite article is used when a particular day, night, etc. is meant.

e.g. He always woke up with the first sounds **of morning.**
After the bombardment he couldn't recognize the street that had been so familiar to him at the beginning **of** the day.

Names **of** Seasons

§ 46. To this group of nouns belong: *winter, spring, summer* and *autumn* (AmE: *fall).* The use of articles with these nouns presents great difficulty because we find a good deal of fluctuation here.

1) The definite article is used with these nouns when reference is made to a particular winter, spring, summer or autumn present, past or future, or to a season of a particular year. As a general rule, this limitation is clear from the situation or context, but it may also be expressed by a limiting attribute. The nouns usually have the function of subject in this case.

e.g. The **summer** was exceptionally trying in the town.
The winter was very fine that year and we were very happy.
The summer wore on. He was still working hard.
The autumn of **1914** was very warm.

But when these nouns are used as the subject to such commonly used verbs as *to approach, to be over, to come, to come to an end, to pass, to set in* and some others, either the definite article or no article is found. In this case reference may be made to a particular season or to the kind of season in general.

e.g. (The) winter came early and unexpectedly with a heavy fall of snow.
(The) summer was over but we had not heard from him yet.
In those parts **(the) spring** usually sets in early.

The same fluctuation is observed when names of seasons are used in general statements as a subject to a nominal predicate.

e.g. (The) winter is very long here.
(The) summer is a rainy season on the island.

2) The definite article is generally found when names of seasons serve as an object in the sentence. This is usually found after the verbs *to hate, to like, to love, to spend, to talk about, to wait for* and some others. In this case reference may be made to a particular season or to the kind of season in general,
e.g. He looks like somebody who spent the summer at the sea.
Dave loves the winter.
I liked the summer there, on account of the bathing, I think.

Sole. Although the use of the definite article is the norm in this case, occasionally no article is found.

3) When names of seasons have a descriptive attribute and are the centre of communication they are used with the indefinite article (in its aspective function).

e.g. We had a short summer.
He had passed a sluggish winter and a lazy summer.

4) When names of seasons are used as predicatives they have no article.

e.g. It was summer and the place broke up in red flowers.

However, when these nouns in their predicative function are modified by a descriptive attribute, the indefinite article is used (see also point 3 above),
e.g. "It has been a terrible summer," he said.
"It was a remarkably fine autumn," she added.

But the article is not used with names of seasons if they are modified by the adjectives *early* and *late* which do not describe the season but serve to indicate the time of the year with more precision. *{Early summer* means the first month of summer; *late autumn* means the last month of autumn.)

e.g. It was early summer.
It was late autumn.

5) There is a great deal of fluctuation in the use of articles with names of seasons when they are used as adverbial modifiers in prepositional phrases. After the prepositions *in, till, until, before* and *after* names of seasons may be used either with the definite article or without any article. Reference again may be made to a particular season or to the kind of season in general.

e.g. The sun in (the) summer warms the skin, but in (the) winter when it appears it warms the heart.
In (the) autumn young Ben was to go to a preparatory school.
"Can't you wait until (the) winter?" Sam asked.
I don't think they'll be able to get through with the work before (the) winter.
But after the prepositions *through, for* and *during* the definite article is to be used.
. Through the autumn, a busy time for me, I was often uneasy.
"Are you going to stay here for the winter?" Jack asked after a while.
He stayed in Paris during the summer and worked without a break till autumn was well advanced.

6) In attributive of-phrases names of seasons usually have no article, as in: *the warmth of spring, the dust of summer, three months of winter, the colours of autumn.*

Note. Note the following set phrases used adverbially: *(to work) winter and summer, early (late) in the autumn (summer, etc.), all the winter (spring, etc.).*

Names of Meals

§ 47. The group includes the nouns: *breakfast, lunch, dinner, supper* and *tea.*

1) In the overwhelming majority of cases names of meals are used without any article. In this case neither the function of the noun nor its being part of a set phrase is essential.

e.g. Lunch is ready and we can go in.
Dinner was at an end.
I was having tea with her.
He came in when we were eating breakfast.
John came to lunch at the appointed time.
They met for dinner.
"Stay to tea," said Mrs Watson.
His eyes still bored me as they had done at tea.

2) The definite article is infrequent with names of meals. It is used in a clear case of back reference or if there is a limiting attribute.

e.g. The supper was very different from the one of the evening before.
The dinner was excellent, but Isabel noticed that John ate very little.
He was greedily eating the lunch his mother had given him.

3) The indefinite article is used when names of meals are modified by descriptive attributes. The indefinite article has its aspective function.

e.g. I'll try to give you a decent lunch.
Walter wanted a very special dinner.
You can get a good supper here.
As soon as he was dressed, he went into the library and sat down to a light French breakfast.

4) Occasionally, owing to a change of meaning, names of meals become countable nouns. This occurs in the following cases:

a) when they denote *dinner party, tea party,* etc. Both the definite and the indefinite articles may be found here.

e.g. Fleur said: "We had a dinner last night."
I was having a wash and a brush-up before starting out to go to the luncheon Elliot had invited me to.
Each Friday night Mr March used to give a dinner to the entire family.

b) when they denote a portion. In this case the noun is used with the indefinite article denoting *one.*

e.g. I have not enough money to buy a dinner at such an expensive restaurant.
He wheedled a few francs out of me for a dinner and a bed.

Names of Diseases

§ 48. This group includes a considerable number of uncountable nouns, e.g. *pneumonia, influenza (flu* in colloquial English). *scarlet fever, cholera, diabetes, lumbago, cancer, diphtheria, tuberculosis (consumption), mumps* and *measles* (the last two are used with a singular verb), etc.

1) Names of diseases are generally found without any article, as in most cases they are used just to name the kind of disease.

e.g. The doctor said he had pneumonia and told him to keep warm.
The boy Roger arrived home with measles.
He had a bad attack of lumbago.
He had almost died of cholera.
She was suffering from diabetes.
The boy had been ill for two days and his mother thought it was scarlet fever.
She fell ill with flu.

2) The definite article may be used with names of diseases in a clear case of back reference or if there is a limiting attribute.

e.g. The family were sitting around watching TV, recovering from the flu.
After the diphtheria Jane felt very weak and depressed.

Note. Certain nouns which are not special medical terms are used to name diseases. They may be countable or uncountable.

e.g. He had **a (bad, splitting) headache.**
He had **a toothache.**
He had **a sore throat.**
He had **heart trouble.**
I have **a boil** on my hand.
She had **a bruise on** her **leg.**

The Noun *sea*

§ 49. The noun *sea* is regularly found with the definite article. This may be accounted for by different reasons. In some cases it may be understood as a generic singular.

e.g. The sea covers nearly three fourths of the world's surface.
He always spends his holiday by the sea.

In other cases it is used with the individualizing definite article,

e.g. A cold wind was blowing from the sea.
Let's go for a swim in the sea.

Certain Countable Nouns in Their Phraseological Use

§ **50.** There are a number of countable nouns in English, which are often used without any article, as they undergo a change of meaning and become uncountable.

§51. The nouns *school, college, hospital, prison, jail, camp, church, court, bed, table* and occasionally *market* are used without any article when, as part of set phrases, they lose their concrete meaning and express the purpose which the objects denoted by these nouns serve. Thus *hospital* comes to denote treatment, *prison* — punishment, *school* — studies, *bed* — sleep, etc. Compare the following examples:

e.g. After lunch Dr Reily went off to **the** hospital.
"How long were you **in hospital** with that wound?" she asked.
They had **a** hospital in the town during the war.

Madame Duclerk sat at **the table** darning socks.
I asked her to tell me who all the people **at table** were.
In the cafe we had **a table** to ourselves, but those around us were soon filled.

The road to **the prison** was blocked by policemen.
He would be sent **to prison** if he were caught.
Perhaps he was in **a German** prison.

I softly drew the chair to **the bed** and sat down.
He went to **bed** early, but lay awake for a long time.
I found **a bed** made up for me, and placed the candles on the old-fashioned chest of drawers.

It should be noted that the use of a descriptive or limiting attribute destroys the idiomatic meaning of the phrases in question. See the examples above and also compare the following sentences:

e.g. He was sent **to school.**
He was sent **to a secondary (good, public) school.**
He was sent **to** the **best school** in the town.

§ 52. The noun *town* in some prepositional phrases may be used without any article when it means the centre or business part of a town, the town one lives in, or the nearest town to a country place-

e.g. She drove **into town** and drew up at the curb beside the drugstore.
I called up and asked her if she wouldn't prefer to lunch **in town.**
I thought that he would be **out of town** next week.

§ 53. A considerable number of different nouns when used in adverbial prepositional phrases have no article, e.g. *by train, by plane, by boat, by coach, by bus, by tram, by taxi, by air, by car, by sea, by post, by mail, by phone, by radio, by accident, by mistake, by hand, by chance, by letter, by land, by sight, at hand, off hand,* [*in detail, in person, on board, on deck, on foot, on tiptoe, at sea, to sea, on hand, on leave, on business, on holiday,* etc.

e.g. It was nearly eight o'clock, and I had to go home **by taxi.**
I had already told her **by telephone** about my talk with Keats.
You needn't tell me about it **in detail.**

§ **54.** There is no article in a number of combinations consisting of a preposition + a noun + a preposition. Such **set** phrases are to be treated as compound prepositions, e.g. *in addition to, in charge of, in contrast with, in regard to, in support of, in reply to, in connection with, on account of, in comparison with, in conformity with, in honour of, in memory of, in pursuit of, in favour of, in combination with, in answer to, in defiance of, with regard to, in recognition of, in return for, in place of, in relation to, in search of, by reason of, by way of,* etc.

e.g. I rushed through the passage **in search** of my mother.
My father found himself **in charge** of a factory.
However, in some other set phrases built up on the same pattern the definite article is used, e.g. *under the influence of, in the centre of, on the invitation of, by the side of, in the middle of, on the initiative of, under the pretence of,* etc.

§ 55. There is no article in some combinations consisting of a preposition 4- a noun + a conjunction which are on the way of becoming compound conjunctions, e.g. *for fear that, on condition that.*
However, in some cases the definite article is found, as in: *on the ground that, for the reason that.*

§ 56. The definite article is used in the following set phrases: *to the forest, in (to, across) the fields, to (at) the cinema, to (at) the theatre, to the pictures, to (in) the country, on the spot, in the slums, in the trenches.* (Note, however, that the nouns *museum, picture gallery, concert, exhibition* do not form such set phrases.)

e.g. I took Marian aside and asked her to come for a walk. We went to the fields.
We had an early dinner and went to the theatre.
"Oh," he said, "Sarah*s come in. She's been to the pictures."
I knew that Aunt Lin would not ring up because it was her afternoon at the cinema.

But if these nouns indicate a particular object, the articles are used with them in accordance with the general rules. But this case is not common.

e.g. We found that the film was on at a cinema across the river.
Charles suggested that we should have a meal and go to a theatre.

§ 57. The definite article is also used in the following set phrases: *to play the piano, to play the violin* and the like. But no article is found in the combinations: *to play volleyball., to play hockey, to play golf, to play cards* and the like.

The Use of Articles with Nouns Denoting **Unique** Objects

§ 58. There are a number of nouns in English denoting either concrete objects or abstract notions which are considered to be unique. These nouns are neither countable nor uncountable as, on the one hand, they express oneness but, on the other hand, the idea of more-than-oneness, is inconceivable in connection with them [1]. Such nouns are used with the definite article as reference is always made to the same object or notion. They include:

[1] Occasionally some of these nouns are used in the plural for stylistic purposes.
e.g. **The morning skies** were heavy with autumn mists.

1) names of unique objects, such as *the sun, the moon, the earth, the world, the globe, the universe, the Milky Way, the ground, the cosmos, the atmosphere.*

e.g. The sun was falling flat across the field and the grass was pale with it.
We had been there all day, the whole party of us; the ground was littered with our picnic.

Even when these nouns have descriptive attributes they may be used with the definite article in accordance with the rule stated above.

e.g. Only the yellow light of the low autumn moon ruffled the water.
The stars were quivering in the frosty sky.

However, the indefinite article in its aspective function may also be used in this case. Then attention is focused on the noun and it becomes the centre of communication, which is as usual marked by strong stress.

e.g. There was a splendid tropical moon and a soft breeze last night.
It was a glorious night, with a great full moon gleaming in a purple sky.
My first reply was: "Of course, I want to see a better world."

It should be noted that the above use is typical of literary style.

2) names of unique notions, such as *the present, the past, the future, the singular, the plural, the South, the North, the East, the West, the equator, the horizon, the post, the press, the telegraph, the telephone, the radio.* But: *TV, {the) television.*

e.g. The film star had a particular smile for the press.
presently the sun rose over the horizon.
I knew that the future was going to be full of pain for me.
"The telephone in this town," Hallam said, "is as private as the radio."

Note. The above rule does not concern the nouns *radio* and *telephone* indicating concrete objects,
Somewhere **a radio** softly played.

The use of articles with these nouns modified by descriptive attributes is the same as that with nouns denoting unique objects.

Compare: Even **the distant future** looked quite gloomy to him.
Everyone believed that he had **a brilliant future** before him.

Note. Note the following set phrases: *at present* ('в настоящее время'), *in the past (*'в прошлом'), *in the future* ('в будущем'), *in future* ('отныне', 'впредь').

The Use of Articles with Proper Names

§ **59.** The use of articles with proper names seems to be based mainly on tradition.

It is true that some cases might be accounted for historically. Thus we can say that the use of articles with names of certain countries is due to foreign usage: *the Senegal, the Tyrol.* In other cases the article may be due to the ellipsis of a common noun which was formerly added: *the Sahara (desert), the Crimea (pen insula), the Pacific (ocean), the Baltic (sea), the Bedford (hotel), the Lancet (magazine).* In *the Urals* the use of the definite article may be explained by the fact that the noun originates from the name of a mountain range; *the Congo* may have the article because the name originally denotes the river. Names of rivers are used with the definite article because formerly the noun *river* often preceded the proper name: *the river Thames.*

Although historical explanations of that kind may be convincing, they are not of great help from the viewpoint of present-day English. In modern English the use of articles with proper names lacks regularity and so does not always seem consistent.

Proper names fall into various groups, such as names of persons, geographic names, names of newspapers and magazines, boats, hotels, public buildings, etc. Moreover, geographic names may be divided into subgroups, such as names of countries, continents, cities and towns, rivers, lakes, seas, oceans, islands, peninsulas, etc. The use of articles with each of the above mentioned groups and subgroups has peculiarities of its own. Within each group there are typical cases and individual cases. Hence, it is necessary to describe the use of articles with each group separately.

The Use of Articles with Names of Persons

§ **60.** Generally no article is used with names of persons.

e.g. There was a letter from **Susan** inviting me to a party.
I did not see **Charles Strickland** for several weeks.

No article is used either if names of persons are modified by such attributes as *little, old, young, dear, poor, honest.*

e.g. **Young Jolyon,** standing by the little piano, listened with his dim smile.
When **dear old Emily** went back to town after staying with them for a fortnight, she sent the children a doll's house.

We find no article with names of members of a family, such as *Mother, Father, Aunt, Uncle, Grandmother, Grandfather, Baby, Nurse, Cook,* when they are treated as proper names by the members of that family. In this case such nouns are usually written with a capital letter.

e.g. "How nice that you've come!" she said. "**Mother** is still resting, but she will be down soon."
She went into the hall: "Is **Nurse** back?"

§ 61. However, both the definite and the indefinite articles may be occasionally found with names of persons.
The **definite article** is used:

1) with a name in the plural to indicate the whole family,

e.g. **The Elliots** were intelligent people.
He didn't even know **the Browns** had a daughter.
He's very different from the rest of **the** Jacksons.

2) with a name modified by a limiting attribute,

e.g. Is he **the Jones** who is a writer?
Now she was more like **the Julia** of their first years of marriage.

3) with a name modified by a descriptive attribute when the limitation is clear from the context or situation (a) or when the attribute indicates a permanent quality of the person in question (b).

e.g. a) A remarkable number of guests went without coffee because it was not the right sort, a detail that had been overlooked by **the embarrassed Otto.**

b) He slapped him on. the shoulder, which startled and slightly annoyed **the prim George Augustus,**

The **indefinite article** is used:

1) to indicate that one member of a family is meant,

e.g. I have often wondered if Arthur was really **a Burton.**

2) with a name modified by a descriptive attribute when **it** is the centre of communication in the sentence,

e.g. He was met at the door by **an angry Isabel,** who demanded to know what he meant by coming home at that hour.

Note 1. If a name is preceded by *Mr, Mrs* or *Miss* it may be used with the indefinite article to denote 'a certain'.

e.g. He was a lawyer, a **Mr Reid** from Melbourne.
My landlady knocked at the door and said: "A Mr Parkis to see you," thus indicating by a grammatical article the social status of my caller.

Note 2. Sometimes, owing to a change of meaning, names of persons become countable nouns indicating concrete objects (a) or typical features associated with a well-known name (b). The articles with such nouns are used in accordance with the general rules for countable nouns.

e.g. a) Lanny has sold them **an especially fine** Goya.
He wanted to know how much **a Buick** cost.
There was a rack of books and among them he saw a Hemingway,
b) She felt like **an Alice in Wonderland.**
Mozart was called **the Raphael of music.**
Swithin smiled and nodding at Bosinney said: "Why, you are quite a **Monte Cristo."**

The Use **of Articles with Geographic** Names

§ **62. In** the use of articles with geographic names there are two prevailing tendencies: some of them are traditionally used without any article, others require the definite article.

As there seems to be no principle underlying the difference in the use or the absence of the article with geographic names, it is more convenient to divide them into semantic groups and consider the use of articles in each of them.

1) Names of continents are used without any article, e.g. *Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, South America, North America.*

No article is used either when names of continents are modified by such attributes as *northern, southern, western, eastern, central, minor, south-west, south east, Latin,* e.g. *Northern Europe, North America, Central Africa, Asia Minor, South East Asia, Latin America,* etc.

But we say *the Arctic* and *the Antarctic* (regions) meaning the sea and the land round the North and South poles.

2) Names of countries (a), states or provinces (b), cities (c), towns (d) and villages (e) are, as a rule, used without any article.

e.g. a) *France, Great Britain, China, Brazil,* etc.
b) *California, Kashmir, Brittany, Katanga,* etc.
c) *Moscow, Oslo, Rome, Delhi,* etc.
d) *Brighton, Hastings, Tartu,* etc.
e) *Grasmere, Patterdale, Appledore,* etc.

No article is used either when these nouns have such attributes as *north(ern), south(ern), east(ern), west(ern), ancient, old, new, central, industrial, medieval, modern,* e.g. *West Germany, Old England, Ancient Greece, Southern France,* etc.

Some of these nouns, however, are traditionally used with the definite article (though nowadays there is a tendency to omit the article with some of them), e.g.

a) countries: *the USA, the FRG, the Argentine (but: Argentina), (the) Lebanon, the Netherlands (the Low Countries), the Cameroon, the Senegal, (the) Congo,*
b) provinces: *the Ukraine the Crimea, the Caucasus, the Ruhr, the Tyrol, the Transvaal, the Riviera, the Soar,*
c) cities: *the Hague.*

3) Names of **oceans** (a), **seas (b), straits** (c), **channels (d), canals (e), rivers** (f), and **lakes** (g) usually take the definite article, e.g.

a) *the Pacific (ocean), the Atlantic (ocean), the Indian (ocean), the Arctic (ocean);*

b) *the Baltic (sea), the Mediterranean (sea), the Black Sea, the Adriatic (sea), the North Sea, the South Seas,* etc.;

c) *the Magellan Strait, the Bering Strait, the Torres Straits,* and also *the Kattegat, the Bosporus, the Dardanelles, the Skagerrah,* etc.;

d) *the English Channel;*

e) *the Kiel Canal, the Suez Canal, the Panama Canal,* etc.;

f) *the Volga, the Thames, the Nile, the Amazon, the Mississippi,* etc.;

g) *the Leman, the Baikal, the Ontario,* etc.

But when names of lakes are preceded by the noun *lake* (which is often the case), no article is used, e.g. *Lake Baikal, Lake Ohio, Lake Como, Lake Superior, Lake Ladoga,* etc.

4) Names of bays generally have no article, e.g. *Hudson Bay, Baffin Bay,* etc.

5) Names of peninsulas have no article if the proper name is used alone, e.g. *Indo-China, Hindustan, Kamchatka, Labrador, Taimir, Scandinavia,* etc. But we find the definite article if the noun *peninsula* is mentioned, e.g. *the Balkan Peninsula, the Kola Peninsula,* etc.

6) Names of deserts are generally used with the definite article, e.g. *the Sahara, the Gobi, the KaraKum*$_t$ etc.

7) Names of mountain chains (a) and groups of islands (b) are used with the definite article, e.g.

a) *the Rocky Mountains, the Andes, the Alps, the Pamirs,* etc.;

b) *the Philippines, the Azores, the Bahamas, the East Indies, the Canaries, the Hebrides, the Bermudas,* etc.

8) Names of separate mountain peaks (a), separate islands (b) and waterfalls (c) are used without any article, e.g.

a) *Elbrus, Mont Blanc, Everest, Vesuvius,* etc.;

b) *Sicily, Cuba, Haiti, Cyprus, Newfoundland, Madagascar,* etc.;

c) *Niagara Falls,* etc.

9) Names of mountain passes are generally used with the definite article, e.g. *the Saint Gotthard Pass,* etc.

§ 63. Geographic names that generally take no article may be occasionally found with the definite or indefinite articles. This occurs in the following cases.

1) The definite article is found when there is a limiting attribute.

e.g. In *Ivanhoe* Walter Scott described the England of the Middle Ages.

2) The indefinite article is found when a geographic name is modified by a descriptive attribute which, brings out a special aspect.

e.g. The flier went on to say: "There will be a different Germany after the war.

" It was a new Russia that he found on his return. *Note.* The definite article is always used with the pattern: a common noun + *of* + a proper name, e.g. *the City of New York, the village of Grasmere, the Cape of Good Hope, the Gulf of Mexico, the Straits of Gibraltar, the Straits of Malacca, the Straits of Dover, the Bay of Biscay, the Bay of Bengal, the Gulf of Finland, the Lake of Geneva, the Island of Majorca,* etc.

The Use of Articles with Miscellaneous Proper Names

§ 64. This group of proper names includes names of various places, objects and notions. Within certain semantic groups of these nouns the use of articles is not stable — it may vary from proper name to proper name. Hence it is sometimes necessary to memorize them as separate items. In other instances it is possible i to outline only the general tendency in the use of articles within a semantic group.

1) Names of streets (a), parks (b) and squares (c) tend to be used without any article, e.g.

a) *Oxford Street, Southampton Row, Kingsway, Pall Mall, Piccadilly, Fleet Street, Whitehall, Wall Street,* etc.

But names of some streets are traditionally used with the definite article, *e.g. the Strand, the High Street* and some others.

Note. Names of streets in foreign countries are sometimes used with the definite article, e.g. *the Rue de Rlvoli (in Paris), the Via Manzoni (in Milan),* etc.

b) *Hyde Park, Central Park, Memorial Park, Regent's Park,*

■ etc.

But: *the Snowdonia National Park, the Botanical Gardens,* etc.

Note. Names of parks in foreign countries are often used with the definite article, e.g. *the Gorki Park* (in Moscow), *the Tiergarten* (in Berlin), etc.

c) *Trafalgar Square, Russel Square, Hyde Park Corner, Piccadilly Circus, Leicester Square,* etc.

2) There is no article with names of universities and colleges, e.g. *London University, Cambridge University, Oxford University, Harvard University, Trinity College,* etc.

Note. The definite article is used in the combinations: *the University of London, the University of Moscow,* etc.

3) There is a growing tendency not to use any article with names of airports and railway stations, e.g. *London Airport, Moscow Airport, Victoria Station,* etc.

4) Names of **theatres (a), museums (b), picture galleries (c), concert halls (d), cinemas (e), clubs (f)** and **hotels** (g) tend to be used with the definite article, e.g.

a) *the Coliseum Theatre, the Opera House, the Bolshoi Theatre,* etc.;

b) *the British Museum, the Scottish National Museum,* etc.;

c) *the National Gallery, the Tate {gallery), the Tretiakov Gallery, the Hermitage, the Louvre,* etc.;

d) *the Festival Hall, the Albert Hall, the Carnegie Hall, the Chaikovsky Hall,* etc.;

e) *the Empire, the Dominion, the Odeon,* etc.;

f) *the National Liberal Club, the Rotary Club,* etc.;

g) *the Ambassador Hotel, the Continental Hotel, the Savoy,* etc.

But in newspaper announcements and advertisements the article is usually not found with these nouns.

5) Names of **ships** and **boats** are used with the definite article, e.g. *the Sedov, the Titanic,* etc.

6) Names of newspapers and **magazines** are generally used with the definite article, e.g. *The Times, The Guardian, The Lancet,* etc. Note, however, *Give me* a *Times, please.*

7) The use of articles with names of **separate buildings** varies from name to name and should be remembered as a special item, e.g. *Scotland Yard, Westminster Abbey, Buckingham Palace,* etc. But: *the Old Bailey, the Tower, the Royal Exchange,* etc.

8) Names of **territories** consisting of a word combination in which the last word is a common noun are generally used with the definite article, e.g. *the Lake District, the Yorkshire Forests, the Kalinin Region, the Virgin Lands,* etc.

9) Names of **months** (a) and **the days of the week** (b) are used without any article,

e.g. a) *January, February, March,* etc.
b) *Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday,* etc.

Compare, however: *We met on Friday* ('Мы встретились в прошлую пятницу'} and *We met on* a *Friday* ('Мы встретились однажды в пятницу').

10) Names of **state institutions, organizations** and **political parties** are used with the definite article, e.g. *the Liberal Party the National Trust, the Church, the London City Council,* etc. But: *Parliament* (in Great Britain), *(the) Congress* (in the USA), *NATO.*

11) Names of languages are used without any article unless the noun *language* is mentioned, e.g. *English, French, Japanese,* etc. But: *the English language, the Italian language, the Polish language,* etc.

Note. Note the phrases: *Translated from* the *German* and *What is* the *French for "book"?*

12) We find the definite article with names of some **grammatical categories,** such as names of tenses, moods, voices, cases and others, e.g. *the Past Indefinite, the Passive Voice, the Conditional Mood, the Genitive Case,* etc.

The Place of Articles

§ 65. The article is generally placed before the noun with which it is associated.

e.g. **I** was silent for **a moment. Then I** thought of **the children.**

If the noun is modified by an attribute (or attributes) placed before it, the article generally precedes them.

e.g. She had a pair of **the most intelligent bright brown** eyes Robert had ever seen.
In the train, we found **an empty third-class carriage.**

§ **66.** Yet there arc a few attributes in English which affect the place of the article.

1) The indefinite article is placed after an adjective if that adjective is preceded by *so, as, too* and *however.*

e.g. We most of us hesitate to make so **complete a statement.**
They are as **happy a couple** as I've ever seen.
It was **too good a chance** to be missed.
Travelling on **however humble a scale** is expensive in Scotland.

2) The indefinite article is placed after the attributive phrase *too much of.*

e.g. It was **too much of a temptation** for George to resist saying it.

3) The place of the indefinite article is optional if the adjective which modifies the noun is preceded by *quite* or *rather*. In this case the indefinite article may be placed between *quite* (or *rather)* and the adjective or before the whole phrase.

e.g. He seems **quite a decent fellow.**
He made **rather a surprising remark.**

But also:

It's a quite fundamental disagreement.
He's a rather hard man.

4) The indefinite article is placed after *such* and the exclamatory *what*. When the noun is modified by an adjective, the article precedes that adjective.

e.g. "I never heard of **such a thing,"** she said.
I cannot make **such a categorical statement.**
What a character he is!
What a dusty road this is!

5) The indefinite article is placed after *many* (and in that case the noun is used in the singular).

e.g. He told me this **many a time.**
I have heard **many a young girl** say that.

6) The definite article follows *both, all* and *double,*

e.g. She was ill **all the time** she was abroad.
Both the boys were late for dinner.
I offered him **double the amount,** but he still refused.

It is noteworthy that the use of the definite article after *both* **is** optional.

e.g. **Both (the) men** were talking in low voices.
He signed **both (the) papers.**

The use of the definite article after the pronoun *all* is determined by the general rules.

e.g. **All children** have to go to school one day.
All the children of the boarding school were in bed.

Note. Note that when *both* is part of the correlative conjunction *both ... and,* either article may be found after it, i.e. in this case the article is chosen in accordance with the general rules.

e.g. He was *both* a scrupulous *and* a kind-hearted man.

7) The definite and the indefinite articles follow *half* and *twice.*

e.g. **Half the men** were too tired to go.
It took us **half an hour** to settle it.
He paid **twice the price** for it.
They used to meet **twice a week.**

Note 1. Note the difference in meaning between *twice* followed by the definite article and *twice* followed by the indefinite article: *twice the price* 'двойная цена', *twice a week* 'два раза в неделю'.

Note 2. Half may serve as the first component of a compound noun. In this case the article naturally precedes it, e.g. *a half brother, a half-truth,* etc.

ADJECTIVES

§ 1. Adjectives are words expressing properties and characteristics of objects (e.g. *large, blue, simple, clever, wooden, economic, progressive,* etc.) and, hence, qualifying nouns.

Grammatically, four features are generally considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

1) their syntactic function of attribute,
2) their syntactic function of predicative,
3) their taking of adverbial modifiers of degree (e.g. *very),*
4) their only grammatical category — the degrees of comparison. (Adjectives in English do not change for number or case.)

However, not all adjectives possess all of the four features. For example, Features 3 and 4 neither distinguish adjectives from adverbs, nor are found in all adjectives.

Furthermore, there are adjectives that function both attributively and predicatively (e.g. *He is my* young *brother. My brother is* young *yet.).* And there are also adjectives that function only attributively (e.g. *a* **mere** *child, a* **sheer** *waste, an* **utter** *fool)* or only predicatively (e.g. *glad, able, afraid, alike, alive,* etc.).

Formation of Adjectives

§ **2.** Many adjectives are formed from other parts of speech by adding different suffixes the most common of which are:

-able: *comfortable, preferable, reliable*
-ible: *sensible, visible, susceptible*
-ant: *elegant, predominant, arrogant*
-ent: *dependent, intelligent, innocent*
-al: *cultural, musical, medical*
-ic: *atomic, scientific, heroic*
-ish: *childish, foolish, brownish*
-ive: *attractive, expensive, talkative*
-ful: *careful, useful, skilful*
-less: *careless, helpless, useless*
-ly: *brotherly, deadly, friendly*
-ous; *dangerous, curious, anxious*
-y: *dirty, dusty, sleepy*

In English there is also a large number of adjectives ending in ***-ing*** and -erf.

e.g. His answer was (very) surprising.
The man felt (very) **offended.**

Such adjectives are former ing-forms which have become adjectivized, i.e. they have, partly or completely, lost their verbal force and acquired some or all of the features of adjectives (see "Adjectives", § 1: "Verbs" §§ 172, 179).

e.g. Mike made an interesting report.
The film was (very) **interesting.**
I should say it was the **most** interesting film of the year.
He is a **disappointed** old man.
He felt (very) **disappointed** when nobody answered his call.
I found him **more disappointed** than I had expected.

Sometimes it is the context that helps to understand whether we are dealing with a verbal form or an adjective.

I don't like her. *(adj.)*

Cf. She is **calculating.**

Don t disturb her. *(verb)*

to find her at home, *(adj.)*

They were **relieved** by the officer on duty, *(verb)*

Sometimes the difference between the adjective and the verbal form is not clear-cut and lies in the verbal force retained by the latter. The verbal force is explicit for the *ing-form* when a direct object is present.

e.g. His words were **alarming** his parents.
You are frightening me.

Similarly, the verbal force is explicit for the participle when a by-phrase is present.

e.g. The black man was offended by the policeman.
She was misunderstood by her friends.

(For more of this see "Verbs", §§ 227, 245).

Classification of Adjectives

§ 3. The actual application of adjectives is often, explicitly or implicitly, connected with their semantic characteristics. So it appears reasonable to divide adjectives into semantic groups each of which has its own possibilities or restrictions.

I. As has been said in § 1, most adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively. They are central to this part of speech, as it were.

Besides, there are adjectives that can be used only attributively. To this group belong:

1) intensifying adjectives:

a) emphasizers (giving a general heightening effect): *a clear failure, a definite loss, plain nonsense, a real hero, the simple truth, a true scholar, a sure sign,* etc.

b) amplifiers (denoting a high or extreme degree): *a complete victory, total nonsense, the absolute truth, a great scholar, a strong opponent, utter stupidity, the entire world,* etc.

c) downtoners (having a lowering effect): *a slight misunderstanding, a feeble reason,* etc.

2) restrictive adjectives (which restrict the reference to the noun exclusively, particularly or chiefly): *the exact answer, the main reason, his chief excuse, a particular occasion, the precise information, the principal objection, the specific point,* etc.

3) adjectives related to adverbial expressions: *a former friend* (—> formerly a friend), *a possible opponent (*—> possibly an opponent), *the present leader* (—> the leader at present), *an occasional visitor* (-> occasionally a visitor), *an apparent defeat* (—> apparently a defeat), *the late president* (—> till lately the president).

4) adjectives formed from nouns: *a criminal lawyer, an atomic student, a woollen dress,* etc.

Adjectives that can be used only predicatively are fewer in number. They tend to refer to a (possibly temporary) condition rather than to characterize the noun. The most commonly used predicative adjectives are: *able, conscious, fond, glad, ill, subject, (un)well; ablaze, afloat, afraid, aghast, alight, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep, averse, awake, aware.*

II. Adjectives are generally stative (see also "Verbs", § 2). Many of them, however, may be treated as dynamic. Stative and dynamic adjectives differ in some ways, e.g. the link-verb *to be* in combination with dynamic adjectives can have the continuous form or be used in the imperative mood.

e.g. He is being careful. She is being vulgar.
Be careful! Don't be vulgar!

Stative adjectives do not admit of such forms (e.g. **He is being tall. *Be tall!).*

To the group of dynamic adjectives belong: *adorable, ambitious, awkward, brave, calm, careful, careless, cheerful, clever, complacent, conceited, cruel, disagreeable, dull, enthusiastic, extravagant, foolish, friendly, funny, generous, gentle, good, greedy, hasty, helpful, irritating, jealous, kind, lenient, loyal, mischievous, naughty, nice, noisy, (im)patient, reasonable, rude, sensible, serious, shy, slow, spiteful, stubborn, stupid, suspicious, tactful, talkative, thoughtful, tidy, timid, troublesome, vain, vulgar, wicked, witty,* etc.

e.g. I'm sure Nick will understand that it's only for his own good that you're being so unkind.
In those days a woman did not contradict a man's opinion when he was being serious.

III. Adjectives are also distinguished as gradable and non-gradable. Most adjectives are gradable. That means that they can be modified by adverbs of degree and themselves change for degrees of comparison.

e.g. Your niece is so (very, extremely, too) young.

Tom is stronger than Father. He is the strongest in the family.

All dynamic adjectives are gradable; most stative adjectives are gradable, too.

Degrees of Comparison

§ 4. There are three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative.

The positive form Is the plain stem of an adjective (e.g. *heavy, slow, straight, extravagant,* etc.)

There are two methods of forming the comparative and the superlative degrees: 1) by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est,* and 2) by using *more* and *most* before the adjective.

The first method is used for:

a) monosyllabic adjectives,

e.g. *new — newer — newest*
bright — brighter — brightest

b) disyllabic adjectives ending in *-er, ow, -y,* or *-le,*

e.g. *clever — cleverer — cleverest*
narrow — narrower — narrowest
happy — happier — happiest
simple — simpler — simplest

c) disyllabic adjectives with the stress on the second syllable,

e.g. *polite — politer — politest*
complete — completer — completest

d) a few frequently used disyllabic adjectives,

e.g. *common — commoner — commonest*
pleasant — pleasanter — pleasantest
quiet — quieter — quietest

The following spelling rules should be observed in forming the comparative and the superlative:

a) adjectives ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant, change the *-y* into *-ier* and *-iest,*

e.g. *heavy — heavier — heaviest*

But adjectives ending in *-y* preceded by a vowel, remain unchanged,

e.g. *gay — gayer — gayest*

b) monosyllabic adjectives with a short vowel double their final consonants,

e.g. *big ~ bigger — biggest*
thin — thinner — thinnest

But monosyllabic adjectives ending in a double consonant, remain unchanged,

e.g. *thick — thicker — thickest*
fresh — fresher — freshest

c) adjectives with a mute *-e* at the end, add only -r and *-st,*

e.g. *pale — paler — palest*

The second method is used for:

a)most disyllabic adjectives,

e.g. *careful — more careful — most careful*
private — more private — most private

b)adjectives of more than two syllables,

e.g. *personal — more personal — most personal*
beautiful — more beautiful — most beautiful

c)adjectives formed from participles and *ing-forms,*

e.g. *tired — more tired —- most tired*
interesting — more interesting — most interesting

d) adjectives used only predicatively,

e.g. *afraid — more afraid*
aware — more aware

The superlative degree of predicative adjectives in (d) is hardly ever used in English.

Note. Care should be taken to remember that *most* when used before an adjective does not always form the superlative degree. It may have the meaning of
'very', 'extremely[7]. Then it is preceded by the indefinite article.

e.g. He was a most interesting man.

A few adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison. They are:

good — better — best
bad — worse — worst
far — farther — farthest (for distance)
further — furthest (for time and distance)
near — nearer — nearest (for distance)
next (for order)

late — later — latest (for time)
last (for order)
old — older — oldest (for age)
elder — eldest (for seniority rather than age; used only attributively)

Non-gradable adjectives, on account of their meaning, do not admit of comparison at all, e.g. *daily, empty, full, perfect, round, square, unique, upper, wooden* and some others.

The comparative degree is used when there are two objects, actions or phenomena compared or contrasted,

e.g. She had the kind of heart trouble that comes to much older people.
He found the work easier than he had expected.
I was now a more experienced man and it was not easy to deceive me.
His reading was more extensive than ever before.

The superlative degree is used when an object, an action or a phenomenon is compared or contrasted with more than two objects, actions or phenomena,

e.g. At that time I worshipped Manet. His "Olympia" seemed to me the greatest picture of modern times.
She was the most active of us.

Note the following sentence patterns in which comparison is expressed:

a) comparison of equality *(as ... as),*

e.g. The boy was as sly as a monkey.
When he had left Paris, it was as cold as in winter there.

b) comparison of inequality *(not so ... as, not as ... as),*

e.g. The sun is not so hot today as I thought it would be.
You are not as nice as people think.

c) comparison of superiority (...-er *than, -est of/in/ever),*

e.g. He looked younger than his years.
"You're much more interested in my dresses than my dressmaker," she said.
My mother was the proudest of women.
To my mind the most interesting thing in art is the personality of the artist.
It's the biggest risk I've ever had to take.

d) comparison of inferiority *(less ... than),*

e.g. John is less musical than his sister.

e) comparison of parallel increase or decrease *(the... the, ...-er as),*

e.g. The longer I think of his proposal the less I like it.
The sooner this is done, the better.
He became more cautious as he grew.

§ 5. Note the following set phrases which contain the comparative or the superlative degree of an adjective:

a) *a change for the better (for the worse)* — перемена к лучшему (к худшему), e.g. There seems to be a change for the better in your uncle. He had a very hearty dinner yesterday.

b) *so much the better (the worse)* — тем лучше (хуже),

e.g. If he will help us, so much the better.
If he doesn't work, so much the worse for him.

c) *to be the worse for* — делать что-то еще хуже, еще больше,

e.g. He is rather the worse for drink.

d) *none the worse for* — хуже не станет (не стало) от ...,

e.g. You'll be non the worse for having her to help you.
You are none the worse for the experience.

e) *if the worst comes to the worst* — в худшем случае,

e.g. If the worst comes to the worst, I can always go back home to my parents.

f) to go from bad to worse — становиться все хуже и хуже,

e.g. Things went from bad to worse in the family,

g) *as best* — в полную меру старания, как только можно,

e.g. He made a living as best he could.

h) *at (the) best* — в лучшем случае,

e.g. She cannot get away from her home for long. At (the) best she can stay with us for two days.

Substantivization in Adjectives

§ **6.** Sometimes adjectives become substantivized. In this case they function as nouns in the sentence and are always preceded by the definite article.

Substantivized adjectives may be of two kinds:

1) They may refer to a class of persons considered in a general sense. Such adjectives are plural in meaning and take a plural verb.

e.g. The **old** (= old people) receive pensions.

To this group belong the following adjectives;

a) some adjectives describing human condition or character, e.g. *the blind, the brave, the dead, the deaf, the disabled, the elderly, the homeless, the injured, the living, the old, the poor, the rich, the sick, the unemployed, the wealthy, the wounded, the young,* etc.

e.g. The young are always romantic, aren't they?

The **blind** are taught trades in special schools,

b) some adjectives denoting nationalities and ending in *-{i)sh* (e.g. *British, Danish, English, Irish, **Swedish,** Turkish, Welsh),* in *-ch* (e.g. *Dutch, French)* and in *-ese* (e.g. *Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese)* and the adjective *Swiss.*

e.g. The English (== English people) are great lovers of tea.

The **Japanese** (=Japanese people) have achieved wonderful results in electronics.

If we wish to indicate a single person or a number of persons, we must add a noun.

e.g. The **old man** receives a pension.

The young **men** are fishing.

The Englishman could not understand a word of French.

There were a few **English people** among the passengers.

2) They may refer to abstract notions. Then they are singular and take a singular verb.

e.g. The good in him overweighs **the bad.**

He ventured into **the unknown.**

Do you believe in **the supernatural?**

Syntactic Functions of Adjectives

§ **7.** Adjectives may serve in the sentence as:

1) an attribute,

e.g. She had **pleasant blue** eyes and very **long fair** hair which she wore in **neat** plaits round her head.

Adjectives used attributively usually precede the noun immediately. Generally there is no pause between the adjective and the noun. Such attributes are called close **attributes** (see the examples above).

However, if an adjective does not so much give a permanent characteristic to its noun but rather refers to the temporary state, circumstance or condition under which what is said takes place, it becomes a **loose attribute** and may be placed in different positions in the sentence.

e.g. Nervous, the man opened the letter.

The man, nervous, opened the letter.

The man opened the letter, **nervous.**

The meaning of the above sentence can be interpreted as 'The man who was nervous, opened the letter*. Loose attributes tend to approach to the predicative function.

Here are more examples illustrating loose attributes:

e.g. **Clever and tactful,** George listened to my story with deep concern.

My father, **happy and tired,** kissed me good-night.

2) **a** predicative,

e.g. Her smile was almost **professional.**

The sky was becoming **violet.**

He was **aware** of what was going on in the office.

Adjectives used predicatively tend to refer to a temporary condition rather than to a permanent characteristic.

e.g. She is ill.
The child is asleep.

Note. Note the following sentence pattern which is commonly used to express all sorts of measurements.

e.g. The water was **five feet deep.**
The train **was twenty minutes late.**
My watch **is three minutes slow.**
He is thirty years old.

3) part of a compound verbal predicate,

e.g. He stood silent, with his back turned to the window.
She lay motionless, as if she were asleep.
He rolled onto his back and stared up into the tree where little black cherries hung thick.

4) an objective predicative,

e.g. I thought him very intelligent.
She wore her hair short.

In this function adjectives sometimes express the result of the process denoted by the verb,

e.g. The cat licked the saucer dry.
The powder washes the linen white.
He pushed the window open.
She made him happy.
The news turned his hair white.

5) a subjective predicative,

e.g. Her hair was dyed blonde.
The door was closed tight.
The vegetables were served raw, the way he liked.

6) an adverbial modifier,

e.g. When ripe, the apples are sweet.
Whether right or wrong, the man ought to be treated fairly.
If possible, the child should be given the medicine three times a day.

As is seen from the above examples, adjectives used adverbially are all introduced by conjunctions. The phrases which the adjectives are parts of can be treated as elliptical adverbial clauses.

e.g. When (it is) necessary, he can be taken to the doctor.

§ 8. Adjectives in the predicative function often require an object to complete their meaning. Objects to predicative adjectives can be expressed by nouns with prepositions (a), by infinitives (b), by ing-forms with or without a preposition (c) or by object clauses

e.g. a) I was not aware of his presence.
We were all very interested in the result of the experiment.
b) He was quick to understand what I meant.
They were happy to hear the news.
c) She is busy packing.
Basil was little used to being heard with respect and was resentful at being reproached with his own words.
d) I was anxious that they should not miss the train.
He was glad that I was going on a holiday.

2) Adjectives are often used to build up exclamatory sentences in which an adjective preceded by *how* is placed at the head of the sentence.

e.g. How charming your daughter is!
How warm it is today!

Place of Adjectives in Attributive Phrases

§ 9. Adjectives used as close attributes precede the noun they

e.g. Nick could beat his father so badly at tennis that only parental affection reconciled the older player to the poor show he put up.

Sometimes adjectives are found in post-position to the word they modify. It occurs in the following cases:

1) if an adjective modifies an indefinite pronoun,

e.g. Anyone **intelligent** can do it.
I'll tell you something **wonderful.**

2) in some set phrases, e.g. *the president elect* (=soon to take office), *the examination board proper* (=as strictly defined), *court martial, attorney general, heir apparent,* and the like.

3) if an attribute is expressed by the adjectives *absent, present, concerned* and *involved,*

e.g. The men present were all his friends.
The people **involved** were asked to come at ten o'clock.

Post-position is possible if an attribute has a modifier following it.

e.g. Peter and Tom were the boys **easiest to teach.**
Or: Peter and Tom were the **easiest** boys **to teach.**
They have a garden **larger than yours.**
Or: They have a **larger** garden **than yours.**

If there are several attributes modifying a noun their order within the attributive group is best shown in the following table:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
epithet	size	shape	age	colour	origin	substance	attribute forming a close sense-unit with a noun	noun

e.g. *a brilliant* (1) *young* (4) *man*
a small (2) *round* (3) *table*
a dirty (1) *old* (4) *brown* (5) *coat*
a charming (1) *French* (6) *writing* (8) *desk*
a large (2) *green* (5) *Chinese* (6) *carpet*
a famous (1) *German* (6) *medical* (8) *school*
a large (2) *iron* (7) *box*
a big (2) *square* (3) *old* (4) *chest*
a tall (2) *young* (4) *London* (6) *policeman*

An attributive group in which all the spaces were filled would be rare and cumbersome. Adjectives used as loose attributes are mobile in the sentence (for this see also § 7).

e.g. **Unhappy,** the girl returned to work.
Nick, **surprised,** went over to the window to re-read the letter.
Mother stood up from the table, **curious** and **anxious.**

§ **10.** Note the place of the indefinite article when an adjective happens to be modified by *too, so, as* and *however.*

e.g. She is **too timid** a girl to meet him.
Dr Grogan was, in fact, **as** wise an old man as my grandfather.

For this see also "Articles", § 65.

PRONOUNS

§ 1. Pronouns include a miscellaneous group of words which function in the sentence as noun pronouns or as adjective pronouns.

It is difficult to define the meaning of pronouns. Unlike nouns and adjectives, they do not name objects or qualities, but only point to them. In other words, they are devoid of concrete lexical meaning. They have a generalized meaning instead, which becomes clear only in the context or situation.

Various individual pronouns may have different grammatical categories. Some of them have the category of number (e.g, *this — these, that — those),* others have the category of case *(e.g. I — me, somebody — somebody's),* still others are invariable (e.g. *each, such, all, what* and some others).

It should be pointed out that although pronouns function as nouns or adjectives in the sentence, they do not cover all the functions of the two parts of speech, but can only have some of them. Pronouns can be divided into the following classes:

1) personal pronouns,
2) possessive pronouns,
3) reflexive pronouns,
4) emphatic pronouns,
5) demonstrative pronouns,
6) indefinite pronouns,
7) reciprocal pronouns,
8) interrogative pronouns,
9) conjunctive pronouns.

Personal Pronouns

§ 2. We find the following personal pronouns in English:

	Singular	*Plural*
1 st person	I	we
2nd person	you	
3d person	he she it	they

I and *we* are said to be the pronouns of the 1st person, i.e. a person (or persons) who speaks (speak). *You* is said to be the pronoun of the 2nd person, i.e. a person (persons) spoken to. *He, she, it* and *they* are said to be the pronouns of the 3d person, i.e. a person (persons) or a thing (things) spoken about.

We distinguish singular and plural personal pronouns. Singular personal pronouns refer to one person or thing and plural personal pronouns refer to more than one person or thing. The pronouns I, *we, you, he* and *she* are mainly used for persons. I, *we* and *you* are indifferent to gender, while *he* is masculine and *she* is feminine. The pronoun *it* is used for animals, concrete things and abstract notions, i.e. it refers to neuter nouns. The pronoun *they* is used for persons, animals and things and is indifferent to gender.

§ 3. In addition to the above structural meanings of the personal pronouns, they have a few other special applications.

It is a tradition to use *we* instead of I in newspaper articles, scientific prose, etc. This so-called editorial *we* is believed to sound less assertive and, hence, more modest than I.

, e.g. We are convinced that the Government has made a grave mistake in imposing tills tax.

She is sometimes used for inanimate objects, especially ships, ; motor cars, aircraft, etc.

e.g. Come along and have a look at my new car. She is a beauty.

She is also used for countries, and even cities, especially in rather formal and rhetoric speech.

e.g. France has made it plain that she will regret the proposal.

You may be used with reference to nobody in particular, to any person who might find himself in a similar position.

e.g. You don't know him. He is dishonest. You feel that he is lying to you every moment of the day.

"Have you been aboard Mrs Wilcox's yacht? What do people do aboard yachts?" "I don't know. You drink, I suppose," Gregory said, shrugging his shoulders.

In my youth during Christmas holidays I loved to visit my classmates who all lived in small provincial towns. Once

you got into them, each anonymous house held a promise of fun. You didn't know who lived in them, but maybe in one of them, as you went from the station to the house of the people you were visiting, there would be a pretty girl getting ready for a dance.

They may be used to mean 'people in general', especially in the phrase *they say*.

e,g. They say he's going to resign.
No wonder they say the present generation hasn't got a scrap of enterprise.

The personal pronouns are used as nouns in the sentence.

§ 4. The personal pronouns change for case. There are two cases for personal pronouns — the nominative case and the objective case.

The Nominative Case	*he Objective Case*
I	me
you	you
he	him
she	her
it	it
we	us
you	you
they	them

The forms of the nominative case function in the sentence as subjects.

e.g. I expect they will laugh at me.
Why, don't you know what he's up to?

The forms of the objective case function in the sentence as objects.

e.g. I met **him** in the street, *(direct object)*
He gave me some advice, *(indirect object)*
Please, don't tell anyone about us. *(prepositional object)*

When personal pronouns are used as predicatives or after *than-' as* and *but,* the nominative case is considered to be very formal; the use of the objective case is preferred in spoken English.

e.g. "Who is it?" "It's me (I)."
"Do you need anything?" "A secretary that **I'll** dictate my piece to." "I'll be her."
You're better off than them (they).
She is as tall as **him** (he).
No one can do it but **him** (he).

But only a nominative case personal pronoun can be used in the following sentence pattern where the pronoun is followed by a clause.

e.g. It was I who did it.

The Use of *it*

§ 5. As has been said, the pronoun *it* is generally used for concrete things, abstract notions and animals.

e.g. I tried the door. It was locked.
He promised his help if ever I needed it.
He got down the horse and tied it to the rail.

Yet the pronoun *it* may be used to identify an unknown person. Then, once it has been done, *he* or *she* must be used.

e.g. There was a knock at the door. I thought it was the postman. He usually came at that time.
When the waiter came up to his table he did not at once realize it was Paul. He was as handsome as ever.

It may also refer to an idea expressed in a preceding word-group (a), clause (b), sentence (c) or even context (d).

e.g. a) He tried to break the lock. It was not easy either.
There was some mutual hesitation about shaking hands, with both deciding against it.
b) He knew that his father was dying but he did not want to speak with anyone about it.
c) The music had stopped. He didn't notice it.
d) He studied her, then shook his head. He waited a moment and then decided not to say what he might have been going to say. He swallowed half his whiskey before going on, and when he did, he returned to the conventional

questions. She had watched him do it all without any interest.

It is very often used as a formal subject in impersonal statements about weather conditions, time, distance and all kinds of measurements.

e.g. It is raining heavily.
It was very cold in the room.
It is half past three now.
It is six miles to the nearest hospital from here.
It is three feet deep here.

It as the formal subject is also found in sentences in which the predicate is modified by an infinitive phrase (a), or an *ing-iorm* phrase (b), or a clause (c). We usually find nominal predicates in this kind of sentences:

e.g. a) It is stupid to fall asleep like that.
It is a pleasure to see you again.
b) It won't be easy finding our way home.
It's no use hoping he'll ever change his mind.
c) It was clear that he was going to give in.
It was a surprise that he had come back so soon.

The formal *it* may be used not only as the subject of the sentence but also as an object followed by an adjective or a noun which is modified by an infinitive phrase, an *ing-iorm* phrase or a clause.

e.g. I found it difficult to explain to him what had happened.
He thought it no use going over the subject again.
He thought it odd that they had left him no message.

The pronoun it is also used in the so-called emphatic construction, i.e. a special sentence pattern that serves to emphasize some word or phrase in the sentence,

e.g. It was my question that made him angry.
It was on the terrace that he wanted them to lay the table.

Finally, the pronoun *it* is rather often used in various idiomatic expressions where it seems to have very little lexical meaning of its own, if any at all. Most of these expressions are colloquial or even slangy.

e.g. Hang it all, we can't wait all day for him.
Hop it, old thing, you are in the way here.
When I see him, I'll have it out with him.
If you are found out, you'll catch it.

Possessive Pronouns

§ 6. There are the following possessive pronouns in English:

	Singular	*Plural*
1 st person	my	our
2nd person	your	your
3d person	his ha- lts	their

Possessive pronouns serve to modify nouns in the sentence, i.e. they function as attributes,
e.g. The doctor usually came to his office at three o'clock.
Do you think you are losing your popularity?
Prom my place I could watch the people eating their lunch.
It should be noted that in English the possessive pronouns are often used instead of articles with nouns denoting relations, parts of the body, articles of clothing and various other personal belongings.

e.g. Bob nodded at his wife as if he wanted to say "You see?"
He bit his lips, but said nothing.
He took off his jacket and loosened his tie.
Amy put her cigarette back into her bag.

But there are certain idiomatic phrases where the definite article is used instead of a possessive pronoun,
e.g. I have a cold in the head.
He was shot through the heart.

He got red in the face.
He took me by the hand.
The ball struck him in the back.
He patted his wife on the shoulder.

§ 7. The possessive pronouns may also perform noun functions. Then they are used in their so-called absolute forms: *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours* and *theirs*.

e.g. She put her arm through mine.
They are not my gloves; I thought they were yours.
Theirs is a very large family.

Incidentally, *its* is hardly ever used as an absolute form.

Note. The form *yours* is commonly used as a conventional ending to letters,

e.g. *Yours sincerely (truly, faithfully). J. Smith*

Sometimes we find absolute forms of possessive pronouns preceded by the preposition *of*. This combination is called a double genitive.

e.g. He is a friend of mine.
It happened through no fault of his.
We had a slight accident and, luckily, that neighbour of yours came along or we would still be there.

Reflexive Pronouns

§ 8. The reflexive pronouns are formed by adding *-self* (in the plural *selves)* to the possessive pronouns in the 1st and 2nd persons and to the objective case of the personal pronouns in the 3d person.

	Singular	*Plural*
1st person	myself	ourselves
2nd person	yourself	yourselves
3d person	himself herself itself	themselves

There is one more reflexive pronoun which is formed from the indefinite pronoun *one — oneself*.

These pronouns are used as noun pronouns in the sentence. They are called reflexive pronouns because they show that the action performed by the person which is indicated by the subject of the sentence passes back again to the same person. In other words, the subject of the sentence and its object indicate the same person. In this case the reflexive pronouns are weakly stressed.

e.g. He wrapped himself in his blanket and fell off to sleep.
She cooked herself a big meal.
I'm sure you both remember the day when you talked about yourselves and the past.

As is seen from the above examples, the reflexive pronouns may serve in the sentence as different kinds of objects — direct,
indirect and prepositional.

Note 1. Note the following sentences where personal pronouns are preferred to
reflexive pronouns.

e.g. He went in, closing the door behind **him.**
She put the thought from her.
He looked about **him**.

Note 2. Note that both personal and reflexive pronouns are found in sentences expressing comparison.

e.g. My brother is as tall as myself (me).
No one realizes it better than yourself (you).

§ 9. Reflexive pronouns may also be used in a different way: together with the verb they may form set phrases characterized by idiomatic meaning. The reflexive meaning of the self-pronoun
weakened in this case. The meaning of the verb differs from the meaning of the same verb when it is followed by an object ex-
essed by a noun or an indefinite pronoun.
eg. He forgot Jane's address, ('забыл')
I'm afraid he's forgetting himself, ('забывается')
Finally I found the answer to the riddle, ('нашел')
Finally I found myself near a railway station, ('оказался')
She came to the theater ten minutes late, ('пришла')
At last she came to herself, ('пришла в себя')

A few other verbs are always followed by reflexive pronouns with which they form a close sense-unit, e.g. *to pride oneself on something, to avail oneself of something.*

We also find idiomatic uses of reflexive pronouns in such set phrases as to *be myself (himself,* etc.) meaning to be or behave as before',

e.g. I'm glad to see that he **is himself** again.

Besides, there are a few prepositional phrases with reflexive pronouns which are to be treated as set phrases because they have idiomatic meaning,

e.g. Are we actually by ourselves again? ('одни')

He was almost **beside himself** with excitement, ('вне себя')

In spite of himself he was interested, ('наперекор себе', 'вопреки своему желанию')

Go and find **for yourself** how it is done, ('сам')

It is a word complete **in itself,** ('само по себе')

As **for** myself, I have no complaint to make, ('что касается меня')

I came away and left him **to himself,** ('оставил его одного')

We can drive the car **among** ourselves, ('вдвоем по очереди')

Emphatic Pronouns

§ **10.** Emphatic pronouns have the same forms as reflexive pronouns — they are homonyms. Emphatic pronouns are used for emphasis. They serve as noun pronouns and always perform the function of apposition in the sentence. They can be placed either immediately after their head-word or at the end of the sentence. They are rendered in Russian as *сам, сама, само, сами.*

e.g. **You** yourself told them the story. (Or: **You** told them the story **yourself.)**

My mother herself opened the door. (Or: **My mother** opened the door **herself.)**

We are all queer fish, queerer than we know **ourselves.**

The parting **itself** was short but it made her ill with grief.

The emphatic pronouns are strongly stressed, but nevertheless they can be omitted without destroying the sense of the sentence.

Demonstrative Pronouns

§ **ll.** There are four demonstrative pronouns in English: *this, that, such* and *same.* They all may be used as noun pronouns and as adjective pronouns.

The pronouns *this* and *that* change for number. Their corresponding plural forms are: *these* and *those.*

§ 12. The pronoun *this (these)* refers to what is near in space, time or conception (a), *that (those)* to what is farther off (b).

e.g. a) Do you know these people? **This** is Harry Field, my coach, and **this** is Jake Spring, the producer.

Take **this** pear. It looks very ripe.

"Look at **this,"** he said and showed me his tie.

When he stopped talking, she wondered, "Why is he telling me all this?"

"Maybe you don't want to go to **this** party," he asked hoping she would say "no".

b) Do you see **those** houses in the distance? **That's** where we are going.

Is **that** your son?

They ate the pie and drank the coffee in silence. When they had finished, Delany said, "Now I'll have **that** cigar you offered me."

He was deaf but she didn't think that many people noticed **that.**

The pronouns *this (these)* and *that (those)* may also have other applications.

1) In some cases *this (these)* may refer to what is to follow, *that (those)* to what precedes.

e.g. After I've listened to you very attentively I'll tell you **this — I** don't think you should trust the man.

But I'm glad to see you have an interest in sports. **That** means we have two things in common.

2) *This (these)* and *that (those)* are often used with nouns indicating time. *This (these)* is used for time which is future or just past. *That (those)* is used for time which is clearly past.

e.g. "Why don't you come and see me some time?" "How about this Sunday, if it's convenient?"
Father had to go to Chicago this morning.
I remember that he woke up early that morning.
She looked flushed and well, although she had a heart attack that summer.

3) Sometimes the use of *this (these)* and *that (those)* is emotionally coloured. The kind of feeling implied (affection, vexation, disgust, contempt, etc.) depends on the situation.

e.g. Will this dog ever stop barking?
Do you really believe in those ideas?
When will you stop trumping that piano?
He is one of those so-called modern poets.

4) The pronoun *that (those)* may be used instead of a noun already mentioned. It is called a prop-word in this case,

e.g. He found it easier to believe that her actions were those of a spoilt girl.
He hung his daughter's portrait beside that of his wife's.
These poems are not so good as those written by you last year.
I entered by the door opposite to that opening into the garden.
She was a good teacher. She knew how to teach bright children and those who were slow.
I was interested to learn that the cafe was the same that we had visited five years before.

As is seen from the above examples, *that (those)* in this case is followed by a prepositional phrase, a participle, an ing form or a clause.

5) *That* is often used instead of it. In this case *that* appears to be more emphatic than *it*.

e.g. I'm going to practise law. I have that all planned.
"Let's send him a wire." "That's an excellent idea."
"His gun went off and he nearly killed himself." "I didn't know that."
"Tell her I'm sorry I missed her." "I'll do that."
"I'm going to stay here a while." "That's fine."

6) *Those* followed by a *who-clause,* a participle or an *ing-iorm* refers to persons.

e.g. Serious newspapers are read by those (=people) who want to know about important happenings everywhere.
Even those (=people) who do not like his pictures are not indifferent to him.
Those (=people) injured in the accident were taken to hospital.

Note. Those present 'присутствующие' and *those concerned* 'заинтересованные лица' are set phrases.

7) In spoken English *that* may be used as an adverbial modifier of degree.

e.g. I did not think he was that stupid.
I will go that far, but no further.
He should know that much about his trade.

§ 13. *That, this* are often found as part of set phrases. Here are some of them:

e.g. "Mike will tell you that I seldom pass through this place without dropping in." "That's right." ('Это верно.')
"I have a car outside. I'll give you a ride home." "Oh, that's all right. It isn't much of a walk." ('Не надо'. 'Ничего'.)
My husband said you were properly brought up. He always notices things like that. (=such things)
Would you like a bag like this? (=such a bag)
I hate it when they dance like this. (=in this way)
I had never heard him speak like that before. (=in that way)
It was May, but for all that the rain was falling as in the heaviest autumn downpours, (=despite that)
My mother intended to have a glorious supper — not that she could eat much nowadays, but for the sake of style and my sake, ('не то чтобы...')
She was young and beautiful. More than that, she was happy. ('более того...')
You ought to know better than that, ('быть умнее')
"Do you want to speak to me about your work?" "Oh, hardly that." ('да нет, не совсем'; 'совсем не о том')
He talked about his responsibilities and all that, ('и тому подобное')

I'm thinking of your future, you know. That's why I'm giving you a piece of advice, ('поэтому')
After that I did not see him for several days, ('после этого')
Marion's concern was directly for me. "Yes, it was a pity you ran across her," she said. "Mind you, I expect you puzzled her as much as she did you — that is, if I know anything about you." ('то есть')
"You know what people think when a man like him dies." "That is?" "People imagine it's a revenge." ('то есть?' 'а именно?')
Let's leave it at that, ('оставим все так'; 'остановимся на этом')
So that's that, ('вот так-то'; 'такие-то дела')
I told you before, I won't do it, and that's that, ('и все')
That settles it. ('На том и порешим.')
What were you doing down there, or what was I doing there for that matter? ('впрочем, даже')

Note. Note that English people speaking of their country say *this country* whereas in Russian it would be *наша страна.*

§ 14. The demonstrative pronoun *such* may mean *of this or that kind* (a) or indicate degree (b). *Such* is followed by the indefinite article before singular countable nouns.

e.g. a) If I were you I would not have said such a thing about him.
He was a silent, ambitious man. Such men usually succeed.
Such is the present state of things.
The position of Dan Crusher was such that he was welcome in any club,
b) He is such a bore.
He wrote such desperate letters to me that year.

The meaning of *such* is often completed by a clause of consequence introduced by *that* or a phrase introduced by as.

e.g. I had such a busy morning that I had no time to call you up-
He cut such an absurd figure that I felt inclined to laugh.
I never saw such a handsome man as Jim's father.
Mr Clark was afraid that his promotion would never come because there was such a thing, he said, as junior clerks trying to draw attention to themselves.

Such may be followed by an infinitive with *as.*

e.g. His carelessness is such as to make it unlikely that he will pass his examination.

Note that *such* may be combined with some indefinite pronouns.

e.g. I'll do no such thing.
He didn't say any such thing.
Any such request is sure to be turned down.
On every such occasion dozens of people get injured.
Some such story was told to me years ago.

§ 15- *Such* is sometimes found as part of set phrases. Here are some of them:

e.g. They export a lot of fruit, such as oranges, lemons, etc. (= for example 'такие, как')
His education, such as it was, was finished by the time he was fifteen, ('каково бы оно ни было')
My services, such as they are, are at your disposal, ('каковы бы они ни были')
John is the captain of the team, and, as such, he is to decide what is to be done, ('как таковой')

§ 16. The demonstrative pronoun *same* means 'identical'. It is always preceded by the definite article.
e.g. We don't have to go all in the same car.
I was astonished and at the same time very much excited.
In autumn the school re-opened. The same students came to George's classes.
His stories set one's imagination to work. The same is true of his articles.
The meaning of *same* is often completed by a clause introduced by *that* or *as.*
e.g. He wore the same suit that I had seen him in five years before.
He ate his sandwiches at midday in the same places as I did.
"You haven't changed," I said smiling. He had the same absurd appearance that I remembered.

Same may also be followed by a phrase introduced by *as.*

e.g. Saying good-bye, my aunt gave me the same warning as on the day of my father's departure.
His head was disproportionally large, built on the same lines as his sister's but with finer features.

§ 17. *Same* is sometimes found as part of set phrases. Here are some of them:

e.g. It's all the same to me. (=It makes no difference to me.)
I asked him what he wanted to start with. It was all the same to him. (=it made no difference to him.)
I don't think he'll wish to see me. But I'll come all the same. (=in spite of that)
"How is he today?" "Much the same." (=not apparently different)

Indefinite Pronouns

§ 18. The indefinite pronouns express various degrees and various kinds of indefiniteness. We find the following subgroups among them:

1) indefinite pronouns proper:
   a) *some, any, no;*
   b) *somebody, anybody, nobody;*
      someone, anyone, no one;
      something, anything, nothing;
   c) *one, none*

2) distributive pronouns:
   a) *all, every, each, other, either, neither, both;*
   b) *everybody, everyone, everything*

3) quantitative pronouns:
   much, many, little, few, a little, a few, a lot of, lots of, a great deal, a great many, etc.

§ 19. The pronoun *some* may be used as an adjective pronoun and as a noun pronoun. It has several meanings. *Some* usually expresses an indefinite number or amount or indefinite quality.

e.g. On such days my mother would give me some pennies to buy sweets or a magazine.
They did give us some nice things to eat, didn't they?
I was terrified that some disaster was waiting for me.
I had been playing cricket with some of the neighbouring children.
The visitor asked me to describe some of the work we do in our laboratory.

Some, used with a singular countable noun, may mean 'a particular but unidentified person or thing'.

e.g. Some boy had written a Latin word on the blackboard.
We must first think of some plan.

Some is very often used for contrast. Then it is strongly stressed.

e.g. I enjoy some music, but not much of it.

Some of us agree with the statement, some disagree.

Some may also mean 'approximately',

e.g. It happened some twenty years ago.

When used as a noun pronoun, *some* may be singular or plural. It depends on whether *some* refers to countable or uncountable nouns.

e.g. Some of his opinions were hard to accept.
Some of the food was packed in waterproof bags.

As a rule, *some* is used in affirmative sentences (see the examples above). In interrogative and negative sentences it is changed into *any* or *no* (see §§ 20-21 below). However, there are instances when *some* remains unchanged in interrogative and negative sentences. It happens when the question or negation does not concern the part of the sentence containing *some,* i.e. when the part of the sentence containing *some* remains affirmative in meaning.

e.g. May I give you some more tea?
I could not answer some of his questions.
Did you see some of his poems published in the magazine?
I'm going away for a week. So I shan't be able to see some interesting games.

Not all your answers are correct. Some are, some aren't.
You know some women can't see the telephone without taking the receiver off.

§ 20. The pronoun *any* is also used as an adjective pronoun and as a noun pronoun. In affirmative sentences *any* means 'it does not matter who, what or which'.

e.g. Come any day you like.
I was interested in any new prospect of change.
Any who have questions to ask are requested to do so in writing.
"Which newspaper do you want me to buy?" "Any will do."

Her voice carried well in any hall.

Note. Any number of is a set phrase, meaning 'a great many',

e.g. I have any **number of** plants in my garden.

In interrogative and negative sentences *any* is used instead of *some.*

e.g. Is there any chance of seeing any of his pictures?
I did not see any change in his life.
They asked him for some money. He said he didn't have any.

It should be noted that a negative meaning may be conveyed in the sentence not only by *not,* but also by *never, without, seldom, hardly,* etc. It may also be expressed in another clause.

e.g. He never had any luck.
He went away without saying good-bye to any of us.
Now that he lived in the country he seldom had any visitors.
The Dutchman spoke French with hardly any accent.
No one is under any obligation to you.
I don't think any of us ought to wish the result to be different.

Any is used when some doubt or condition is implied. This often occurs in object clauses introduced by *if* or *whether* or in conditional clauses.

e.g. Let me know if you hear any news.
I wonder if you have met any of these people before.
If you have any news, call me up right away.
If you still have any of my father's letters, send them to me, please.

Any may be used as an adverbial modifier of degree in the sentence.

e.g. He isn't any better.
In spite of your advice she isn't any the wiser.

§ 21. The pronoun *no* is negative in meaning and used only as an adjective pronoun. It may mean 'not any' or 'not a'.

e.g. He had no tie on.
They have no friends in London.
He had no desire to take decisions.
There are no letters for you today.
I have no money left.
There were no people in the hall.
No boy at the school had ever seen the sea.
He is no hero.
The girl was no beauty.
The old man was no fool.

Note the set phrase *to be no good.*

e.g. He is no good as a pianist, ('никуда не годится')

§ 22. There are the following compound pronouns formed with *some-, any-* and *no-:*

someone — anyone — no one
somebody — anybody — nobody
something — anything — nothing

They are all used as noun pronouns and the rules for the use of *some, any* and *no* in different kinds of sentences hold good for them (see §§ 19-21 above).

The compounds in *-one* and in *-body* are singular in meaning and can be used only of persons,

e.g. There is someone in his office. Do you hear them talking?
He'd told my landlady he was looking out for someone to paint him.

My mother wanted me to give more money to the fund than anyone in the form.

Is there anyone at home?

No one was in a hurry. No one seemed to think that tomorrow existed.

I found my mother in the kitchen. There was no one else at home.

Somebody must have been using my books. They've got all misplaced on the shelf.

Anybody can see that the whole thing has been a failure.

Did you meet anybody on your way home?

Nobody can help him under the circumstances.

The compounds in *-one* and in *-body* can have the form of the genitive case.

e.g. He isn't going to be in anybody's way at this hour of the night.

Did you take anybody's photograph at the party?

Note. When the compounds in *-one* and in *-body* are followed by *else,* the genitive case suffix -'s is added after *else.*

e.g. That's not my hat. It's somebody else's.

The difference between the compounds in *-body* and those in *—one* is that the latter are, as a rule, more individualizing, i.e. the compounds in *-body* refer to persons collectively, whereas those in *one* refer to individuals.

Cf. Somebody is sure to get interested in the job. (=some people, one or more persons)

This is a letter from someone interested in the job. (=some person, one person)

Nobody knew about her arrival. (= no people)

No one had come to meet her. (= not a person)

As a result, the compounds in *-body* are never followed by an of-phrase, while the compounds in *-one* sometimes are.

e.g. Does anyone of you correspond with her family?

The compounds in *-thing* can be used only of things. They are also singular in meaning but they cannot have the form of the genitive case.

e.g. There is something wrong with him.

We were almost outside our house before I took in that something was not right.

"Why don't you say something?" he demanded.

I'll do anything for you.

"Is there anything in the paper?" he said, as we approached the end of our silent meal.

Nothing could remove his disappointment.

The doctor could suggest nothing to me. (= The doctor could not suggest anything to me.)

He looked at me and didn't say anything.

Dirk never concealed anything.

Let me see your pictures. If there's anything I like, I'll buy it.

Note the idiomatic use of *something* in the following sentences:

e.g. He is something of a hermit. ('В нем есть что-то от отшельника'.)

I hope to see something of you during the holidays. ('Я надеюсь видеть вас хоть иногда...')

He is something in the Foreign Office. ('Он какое-то ответственное лицо в Министерстве иностранных дел.')

Something or other prevented him from coming. ('По той или иной причине он не смог прийти. Что-то помешало ему прийти.')

It's something like two miles to the lake. (=approximately)

I'll whistle the tune for you. It goes something like this. ('приблизительно вот так')

All the compound indefinite pronouns may be modified by adjectives which are generally placed in post-position to their headwords.

e.g. You should do something sensible about it at last.

Somebody important has arrived, I'm sure.

I want someone reliable to do this work.

I thought he was going to tell me something painful.

I thought I'd come and see if they had anything new.

§ 23. The pronoun *one* in all of its uses refers exclusively to persons or things that are countable.

The pronoun *one* is used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun.

As a noun pronoun, it can have the plural form *ones* and the form of the genitive case *one's*. Besides, as has been said above (see § 8 above), the reflexive pronoun *oneself* is formed from it.

As an adjective pronoun *one* is invariable.

One has many various uses in English.

1) It is used to stand for 'people' or 'I or any person in my position'. In other words, it refers to nobody in particular.

e.g. One can*t be too careful in matters like this.
He was very young, not more than twenty-three or four, as indeed one could see at a glance.
The sea was so smooth, so luminous that when one stared at it for long one could no longer distinguish, for a moment or two, the shape of things.
His sincerity excited one's sympathy.
It's not what I should have chosen for my last years, but one no longer makes one's life when one is old. Life is made for one.

Note. Care should be taken not to use *one* too often in the sentence because it would make the sentence stylistically clumsy (see the last example above).

For example, the sentence *When* one *is given* one's *choice of courses of action, any of which would be to* one's *disadvantage*, one *often has difficulty in deciding what* one *ought to do* should be better expressed in either of the following ways:

a) When someone is given his choice of courses of action, any of which would be to his disadvantage, he often has difficulty in deciding what he ought to do.
b) When you are given your choice of courses of action, any of which would be to your disadvantage, you often have difficulty in deciding what you ought to do.

Note that *you* in the last sentence above applies to no particular person and is used with indefinite meaning in which it is more common than the pronoun *one.* (See also "Pronouns", § 3.)

2) *One* may have the meaning of 'a person'.

e.g. He is not one to be easily frightened.
He is not one to fall for her charms.
One who paints ought to know a lot about perspective.
There was a look in his eyes of one used to risking his life.
Do you want to be the one to spoil all that?

3) *One* is often used for contrast with *other,* in which case it preserves some of its numerical meaning.

e.g. The brothers are so alike that I sometimes cannot tell one from *the other.*
By the way, here are the two duplicate keys to the gate — I'll take one, *the other* key you'd better keep yourself.
She smiled as one intellectual to *another.*
According to Jim, life was one damn thing after *another.*

4) *One,* in combination with nouns denoting time, is used to express some vague time.

e.g. One day he'll understand his mistake.
I'll speak to him one of these days.
One Friday night my mother and father talked for a long time alone.
One summer evening I went for a stroll in the park.

5) *One* is used with the meaning of 'only' or 'single'.

e.g. Your father is the one man who can help you now.
This is the one thing we can feel certain about.
This is the one way to do it.
No one man can do it.

6) Last but not least, *one* is used as a prop-word, i.e. as a substitute for a previously mentioned noun. It helps to avoid the repetition of the same noun.

e.g. Trams were passing us, but my father was not inclined to take one.
Will you show me your pictures? I might feel like buying one.

If the prop-word *one* is preceded by an adjective, an article must be used with it.

e.g. No, that's not their car. Theirs is a blue one.
The new vicar was less cultivated than the old one.

The prop-word *one* can be used in the plural.

e.g. I prefer red roses to white ones.
"Which biscuits would you like?" "The ones with chocolate on them."

The prop-word *one (ones)* may also be used in combination with other pronouns, such as *this (these), that (those), which, each, every* and *other* as well as ordinal numerals (e.g. *first, second,* etc.).

e.g. If you will take this chair, I'll take that one.
I've never seen such big tulips as these ones.
Here are some books for you to read. Which one would you choose?
There were several houses in the street, each one more expensive than the other.
If you don't like this magazine, take another one.
My house is the first one on the left.

There are certain restrictions on the use of the prop-word *one:*

a) *one* is not used after *own,*

e.g. I won't go by your car. I'll use my own.

b) *one* is normally not used after a superlative or comparative adjective preceded by the definite article,

e.g. The English climate is often said to be the most unpredictable in the world.
Of all the runners my brother was the swiftest.
Of the two armchairs I chose the harder.

Note. Note that the prop-word *one* is possible when *most* is used in the meaning of 'very', 'extremely'.

e.g. His collection of stamps is **a most valuable one.**

c) *one* is not used after cardinal numerals,

e.g. I have only one friend but you have two.

d) *one* is to be avoided in formal or scientific English.
Note the idiomatic uses of *one* in the following sentences:

e.g. He was a man that was liked by one and all. (= by everybody)
The sky was gently turning dark and the men began to depart one after the other. (= in succession, not together)
Would you like me to bring them one by one, sir? (= singly, one at a time, not together)
No, I won't go with you. For one thing, I am very busy at the moment. (= for one reason)
The little ones always know a good man from a bad one. (= children)
It isn't the pretty ones that make good wives and mothers. (= pretty girls)

§ 24. The pronoun *none* is a noun pronoun. It is negative in meaning indicating *not one* or *not any* and can be used of persons (cf. no *one)* as well as of things, countable and uncountable (cf. *nothing).* The verb following it may be singular or plural, according to the sense required.

e.g. None of us knows where he is going to work.
None of them are any use to me.
None of them really know how ill she is.
We discovered that none of his promises was kept.
He asked them for advice. None was given.
I wanted some more coffee but none was left.

Note. The difference between *none* and the negatives *no one (nobody)* and *nothing* is easily brought out with the help of questions. *No one (nobody)* is used in answer to a *who*-question.

e.g. **"Who** are you speaking to?" "No one **(nobody)"**

Nothing is used in answer to a *what*-question,

e.g. **"What** are you doing there?" "Nothing"

But *none* is used in answer to a *how many*- or *how* much-question.

e.g. "How many fish did you catch?" **"None"**
"How much petrol is there in the car?" "None"
"How much progress did he make?" "None"

§ 25. The pronoun *all* can be used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun.

All used as a noun pronoun is singular when it means 'everything', 'the whole of a thing'.

e.g. All's well that ends well, *(proverb)*
I don't find any change here, all looks as it always did.
He has lost all.
Some day his pictures will be worth more than all you have in your shop.

All used as a noun pronoun is plural when it means 'everybody', 'the total number of persons, animals or things.'

e.g. All are welcome.
All agree that he has behaved splendidly.

All of us think so.
He made a few suggestions. All of them were acceptable.

When *all* is used as an adjective pronoun, the verb may be singular or plural depending on the noun modified by *all*.

e.g. All the money was spent.
All that business fills me with disgust.
All the trunks are packed ready to go.
All students should register before October 1st.

There are a few peculiarities in the use of *all:*

1) When *all* is followed by a noun, there is no preposition between them.[1]

e.g. He worked hard all time he was here.
I don't like to speak before all these people.
All my friends were happy to hear the news.
All boys prefer playing games to going to school.

However, when *all* is followed by a personal pronoun, the preposition *of* must be used.

e.g. He has written three novels and all of them were best sellers.
All of us were disappointed by him.

Note. In American English nouns following *all* are often joined to it, like personal pronouns, with the help of the preposition *of.*

e.g. **All** of **our** students have registered.
All of these books are mine.

2) Note the possible place of *all* with nouns (a) and personal pronouns (b) used as the subject of the sentence.

e.g. a) All the students found the lectures helpful.
The students all found the lectures helpful,
b) All of them found the lectures helpful.
They all found the lectures helpful.

3) *All* may be followed by an appositive clause which is usually introduced by the conjunction *that* or asyndetically.

e.g. Meeting George was the first piece of pure chance that affected all (that) I did later.
She listened to all (that) he said with a quiet smile on her lips.

Note the following idiomatic uses of *all:*

e.g. He is all in. (= He is completely exhausted.)
It was all my fault. (= entirely)
The money is all gone. (= completely)
He was all covered with mud. (= wholly)
I did not understand it at all. (= in the least degree)
After all, people laughed at Manet, though everyone now knows he was a great painter.
I warn you, once and for all, that this foolishness must stop. (= for the last and only time)

§ 26. The pronoun *every* is used only as an adjective pronoun. It modifies singular countable nouns when there are more than two objects of the same description.

e.g. After the gale every flower in the garden was broken.
Every head turned to look at them as they progressed slowly up the aisle.
He knew by heart every word in her letter.
Every morning the landlady greeted him with the same question, "Had a good sleep, dear?"
Every time I ring you up, I find you engaged.
He had every reason to believe that he was right.

Note the idiomatic uses of *every* in the following sentences:

e.g. Every other house in the street was damaged in an air-raid. (= every second, fourth, sixth, etc. house; about half the houses)
He comes here every three *days.* (= every third day)
They had a rest every few *miles*. (= They had a rest every time they had walked a few miles.)

Every is a synonym of *all* when the latter is used attributively. The use of *every* is, however, more restricted than that of *all* because it cannot be used with uncountable nouns.

With countable nouns, their use appears to be parallel.

e.g. The explosion broke all the windows in the street.
The explosion broke every window in the street.

[1] For the use or absence of the definite article after *all* see "Articles", §10, Note.

Yet, in addition to the fact that *every* precedes singular nouns and *all* is associated with plural nouns, there is a difference in meaning. The distinction between *all* and *every* is that in a sentence like *All the boys were present* we consider the boys in a mass; in the sentence *Every boy was present* we are thinking of the many individual boys that make up the mass. Nevertheless it is more usual to use *every* instead of *all* where possible.

§ 27. There are the following compound pronouns formed with *every; everyone — everybody — everything.*

All of them are used as noun pronouns and take a singular verb. *Everyone* and *everybody* can be used only of persons.

e.g. Everyone's got a right to their own opinion.
She took the initiative and herself spoke to everyone she knew.
"Everybody's afraid, aren't they?" he said looking at the people around.

Both *everyone* and *everybody* can have the form of the genitive case,

e.g. He's sure of everyone's consent.

The difference in meaning between *everyone* and *everybody* is the same as between *someone* and *somebody* (see § 22 above). Only *everyone* can be followed by an of-phrase.

e.g. He is at once physician, surgeon and healer of the serious illnesses which threaten everyone of us in England today.

Note. The compounds with *one* are distinct from such groups as *every one, any one* and *some one* where *one* is numerical and refers back to a countable noun that occurs in the sentence or the context. These groups are often followed by of-phrases.
e.g. I have three sisters. Every **one** of **them** is beautiful.
The book opened to them new worlds, and every one of them was glorious.
But he knew that it would not take much for every one **of them** to start talking freely.
Give me one of those books — any **one** will do.

Everything can be used only of things and also takes a singular verb but it cannot have the genitive case form,

e.g. No wonder everything goes wrong in this house.
I'll tell you everything tonight.
One can't have everything.

§ 28. The pronoun *each* is used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun. In the former case it is singular in meaning and takes a singular verb (a). In the latter case it is associated with a singular countable noun and can be used when there are at least two objects of the same description (b).

e.g. a) I told them what each was to do in case of an emergency,
b) For years I thought I remembered each detail of that day.
I have met him each time he has come to London.
We examined each specimen minutely.
He gave each boy a present.

Each as an adjective pronoun is a synonym of *every* but there is some difference in meaning between them. *Every* tends to gather the separate items into a whole; *each* focuses attention on them individually and so tends to disperse the unity, it takes the members of a definite group one by one, without adding them up. In other words, *every* refers to a number of individuals or things, considered as a group; *each* refers to a number of individuals or things, considered separately.

e.g. Every orange in the crate was wrapped in tissue paper. He carefully unwrapped each orange before putting it on the scales.

As a result of its specific meaning, *each* may be followed by an of-phrase, which is not possible in the case of *every.*

e.g. **Each** of the men signed his name as he came in.
I'll send each of you some seeds in the autumn.
Each of **the** ten houses in the row had a garden.

§ 29. The pronoun *other* can be used as an adjective pronoun
and as a noun pronoun.

As an adjective pronoun, it is invariable. When it is preceded by the indefinite article *(an),* they are written as one word *another.*

"The other + a singular noun" means 'the second of the two.'

e.g. The insurance offices were on the other side of the street.
He pulled on the other glove and said that, though it was late, he would run along to his office.
I spent half my time teaching law and the other **half** in London as a consultant to a big firm.

"Another + a singular noun" means 'an additional one', 'a different one'.

e.g. Young Martin had been sent on another errand to the grocer.
Richard stayed for another moment, shifting from one foot to the other.
We went into another room.
I must find myself another job.

"The other +a plural noun" means 'the rest', 'the remaining',

e.g. My mother said: "I don't want my boy to suffer in any way at the side of the other boys in the form."
When I returned home I found my wife talking to our neighbour. The other guests had gone.

"Other + a plural noun" means 'additional', 'different', 'remaining' .

e.g. I have no other friends but you.
"We can do as well as other people," my aunt said.
He said that he would ring Charles up as soon as he got home. Then he talked of other things all the way.
Some children like milk chocolate, other children prefer plain chocolate.

As a noun pronoun, *other* has the plural form *others* and the genitive case forms *other's* and *others'*.

Other used as a noun pronoun has the same meanings as when it is used as an adjective pronoun (see above),

e.g. Simon set one foot slightly in front of the other, ready to fight.
It was only another of her many disappointments.

If that cigar is too strong, try another.
That may be your opinion, but the others think differently. I have talked to them.
All superiors were important to Mr Vesey, though some were more important than others.
One of his daughters is married to a man who lives by his pen. The other's husband is a doctor.

Note the idiomatic uses of *other* in the following sentences:

e.g. I don't want him to be other than he is.(= I don't want him to be different.)
She could invent no way of squeezing another nine guineas out of her budget. (= nine guineas more)
Another fifty yards farther on you can see Marcello's boat. (= fifty yards more)
"I saw your wife the other day," I said. (= a few days ago)
And somehow or other he had acquired a wide acquaintance with the less known parts of the city. (= in some way that cannot be accounted for)
Some idiot or other has been throwing stones at the dog.

§ 30. The pronoun *either* and its negative counterpart *neither*
are used as noun pronouns and as adjective pronouns. When used as nouns, they take a singular verb. *Either* usually means 'one or the other of two'.

e.g. Either of these machines is suitable for the work you want done.
"Which of the two rooms would you like, sir?" "Oh, either. I don't care."
The news did not shock either of them.
My wife and I watched him make the parcel but he took no notice of either of us.
Have you seen either of your parents today?
There is a train at 11.30 and one at 12.05. Either train will get you to Oxford in time for the meeting.

In the above meaning *either* is mostly used as a noun pronoun, though occasionally it occurs in the function of an attribute (see the last example above).

Either may also mean 'each of two'. In this meaning it is used as an adjective pronoun and mostly found in literary English.

e.g. He came down the road with a girl on either arm.
There was a lamp at either end of the street.
The houses on either side were tall and big.

Neither means 'not the one nor the other'.

e.g. That evening my mother spoke with such quiet anger that Aunt Milly was intimidated. After that neither of them was ever willing to take up the subject.

The first time we met after the ball, neither of us said a word that was not trivial.

My friend and I came to the end of our last walk. "We shall meet again," she said. "If not next year, then some other time." Neither of us believed it.

You can keep your astonishment and your mortification for yourself. I feel neither.

I have travelled by both trains and neither train had a restaurant car.

Neither brother has been abroad.

§ 31. The pronoun *both* is used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun. It is plural in meaning and applied only to two persons or things.

e.g. Two men were injured in the accident. Both are now recovering in hospital.
I ordered only one of the two books, but now I think I'll take both.
Dirk went up to her, and took both her hands.
I made plans for the future that ignored both my parents and my studies.
I invited one of the brothers but both of them came.

Note the possible place of *both* in the sentence.

e.g. Both (the) men were interested in the job.
Both these children are mine.
These children are both mine.
Both my children are boys.
Both of them agreed that the matter had better be dropped.
They both accepted the invitation.
They have both been invited.

§ 32. The pronouns *much* and *many* are used as noun pronouns and as adjective pronouns.

Much means 'a large amount'. As a noun pronoun, it takes a singular verb. As an adjective pronoun, it modifies only uncountable nouns,

e.g. Much of his life was lived inside himself.
"I don't suppose you had much to eat all day," said my mother.
You haven't much time if you want to catch the train.
I hope you haven't brought much luggage.

Many means 'a large number'. As a noun pronoun, it takes a plural verb. As an adjective pronoun, it modifies only countable nouns in the plural.

e.g. There were lots of people on the beach. Many of them were holiday- makers.
"I'm marking the children's compositions." "Have you many left?"
I haven't many friends now.
You haven't made many mistakes this time.

There is a strong tendency in present-day English to use *much* and *many,* particularly when they function as adjective pronouns, only in interrogative and negative sentences and in object clauses introduced by *if* or *whether.*

e.g. I had not very much advice to give him.
I did not meet many English people who could speak foreign languages.
Did you have much rain on your holidays?
Do you know many people in London?
I doubt whether there'll be much time for seeing the sights.
The train leaves at six o'clock.
I wonder if many people will come to the party.

Thus *He has much time,* although apparently correct grammatically, is hardly ever seen or heard in present-day English. A *lot of, lots of, plenty of, a great deal of, a large number of, a good many, a great many* and the like replace *much* and *many* in affirmative sentences.

e.g. There is a lot of work to do.
I know plenty of boys in other schools had achieved the same results as I had.

She knows lots of girls who go out dancing every Saturday.
He has done a great deal of research on the subject.
A large number of people were gathered at the cafe.
My mother's family had been different in a good many ways from my father's.
A great many mistakes have been made by nearly everybody.

Much and *many* can be used in affirmative sentences in the following cases:

a) when they are used as the subject of the sentence, or modify it,

e.g. **Much** depends on what answer he will give.
Much of what he says is true.
Many think that the situation will improve.
Much time would be saved if you planned your work properly.
Many people like to spend their spare time working in their gardens.

b) when *much* and *many* are modified by adverbs of degree, e.g. so, *too, as* and *how,*

e.g. No, I won't do it. It's **too much** trouble.
There are **too many** mistakes in your exercises.
You can have **as much** fruit as you want.

c) when *much* is used alone as a noun pronoun in the function of an object,

e.g. My mother meant **much** to me.
I would give **much** to know what he is thinking now.

Note. Occasionally we find such synonymous expressions of *much* and *many* as a *world of, heaps of, oceans of* and the like. They are used in colloquial English for emphasis,
e.g. I have heaps of news. When can we talk?

Much and *many* change for degrees of comparison. They are *more* and *most.*

e.g. He made **more** progress than I had expected.
I found **more** letters lying on his table that morning.
He knew **more** about me than I thought.
Most work was done in my father's office.
Most people hold the same opinion as you **do.**
The most I can do for you is to give you a letter of recommendation.
Most of his money came from selling his landscapes.
Most of the delegates voted against the proposal.
Most of his relatives lived in the country.

§ 33, The pronouns *little* and *few* are used as noun pronouns and as adjective pronouns.

Little means 'a small amount'. As a noun pronoun, it takes a singular verb. As an adjective pronoun, it is used with uncountable nouns.

e.g. **Little** was known of his life when he was alive.
My story was a record of hard work and **little** adventure.

Few means 'a small number'. As a noun pronoun, it takes a plural verb. As an adjective pronoun, it is used with countable nouns in the plural.

e.g. Yet **few** have been found to deny the man's greatness.
Very **few** decisions were ever taken in that department.

Both *little* and *few* have a negative implication — they mean 'not enough'.

e.g. The shipwrecked sailors had no food and **little** water.
Few people would agree with you.

A little and *a few,* which are to be treated as set phrases, have a positive meaning. They mean 'some though not much (many)'.

e.g. He earns **a little** money and can live quite comfortably on it.
I suggested that he should get a few grapes and some bread.

Compare:

e.g. I know **little** about painting. (= almost nothing)
I know **a little** about painting. (= something)
There is **little** change in his appearance. (= almost no change)
There is **a little** change in his appearance. (== some change)
Few birds can be seen in that place. (= almost none)
A **few** birds can be seen in that place. (= some birds)
He has **few** friends and lives a lonely life. (= almost none)
He has **a few** friends who call to see him quite frequently. (= some friends)

Little and *few* change for degrees of comparison. Their forms are:

little — less — least
few — fewer — fewest

e.g. Please make less noise.
George gives me the **least** trouble.
There were **fewer** people in the bus today.
Who has made the fewest mistakes?

Reciprocal Pronouns

§ 34. There are two reciprocal pronouns in English: *each other* and *one another*. They show that something is done mutually. Both pronouns are mainly used in the function of an object (direct, indirect or prepositional) in the sentence,

e.g. I knew that my two aunts bitterly disliked each other.
They had come to understand one another, Pyкe and he, without anything being said.
But he was a little puzzled by the behaviour of Blanche and Strickland towards one another.

As is seen from the above examples, both *each other* and *one another* can be used when speaking of two persons. However, when more than two persons are meant, only *one another* is usually used.

e.g. When he entered the cafe he saw the people wink at one another.

Each other and *one another* can be used in the genitive case,

e.g. They had not met so long that they had forgotten each other's names.
In their letters they made it a rule to inquire after one another's relatives.

Interrogative Pronouns

§ 35. The interrogative pronouns are: *who (whom), whose, what, which, how much* and *how many.* They are all used in forming questions.

§ 36. The pronoun *who* asks about persons. It does not distinguish gender or number. It may be masculine or feminine, singular or plural in meaning. *Who* is the nominative case and it is mainly used as the subject of the sentence.

e.g. Who is coming with me?
Who are the people over there?

The objective case of *who* is *whom* which is used as an object in the sentence. It may be a direct (a) or prepositional object (b).

e.g. a) Whom did you see there?
Whom does he suspect?
b) To whom did you give the message?
Of whom are you thinking?
By whom was it done?

But *whom* is the literary form and is preferred in writing. In conversation it is replaced by *who.* When *who* happens to be used as a prepositional object, the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence.

e.g. Who did you see there?
Who does he suspect?
Who did you give the message to?
Who are you thinking of?
Who was it done by?

Note the idiomatic uses of *who* in the following sentences:

e.g. It was so dark that I couldn't tell who's who. (= could not tell one person from the other)
You'll find his name in Who's Who. (= a reference book on contemporary outstanding people)

§ 37. The pronoun *whose* is a possessive interrogative pronoun. It is used as an adjective pronoun, mostly in the function of an attribute, though occasionally it occurs as a predicative too.

e.g. Whose room is it going to be?
Whose is the room going to be?
In whose car do you prefer to go? (Whose car do you prefer to go in?)

§ 38. The pronoun *what* may be used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun.

When it serves as a noun, it asks after things. It may be singular or plural in meaning. It may be used as the subject, a predicative or an object in the sentence. It has no case forms.

e.g. What's this?
What are those strange objects in the distance?
What is his telephone number?

What is your name?
What do you mean?
About what are you going to ask him?

It should be noted that in the case of a prepositional object it is more usual to place the preposition at the end of the sentence in present-day English.

e.g. What are you going to ask him about?
What are you laughing at?

Special attention should be paid to the use of *what* asking about a person's profession,

e.g. "What is the man your father is talking to?" "He is a lawyer."

Compare it with a *who*-question asking about the identity of a person.

e.g. "Who is the man your father is talking to?" "He is Mr Clapperton, our new neighbour."

What can also be used in asking about actions,

e.g. "What are you doing?" "I'm cleaning the car."

Note the idiomatic uses of *what* in the following sentences:

e.g. "What is he like?" "He is tall, dark and handsome." ('Как он выглядит?')
"What is he like as a pianist?" "Oh, he is not very good. ('Что он собой представляет как...?')
Ben suddenly looked at his watch. "What about your dentist?" he asked, ('А как же твой врач?')
What about a cigarette? ('Хочешь сигарету?')
What about something to eat? ('Может поедим чего-нибудь?')
What of it? ('Ну и что из этого?')
So what? ('Ну и что?')
He's a clever fellow, he knows what's what, ('что хорошо, что плохо'; 'что к чему')

When *what* is used as an adjective pronoun it is also invariable and serves as an attribute to nouns denoting both persons and things.

e.g. What languages do you know?
What play did you see last?
What man would have done more?
What feelings do such stories excite?
What artists are going to be exhibited this autumn?

To ask after the kind or sort to which a person or thing belongs, synonymous set phrases *what kind of* and *what sort of* are used instead of *what.*

e.g. What kind of man is he? ('Что он за человек?' 'Какой он человек?')
What sort of chocolate do you like best? ('какой, какого сорта')
What kind of house have they bought? ('какой')
What sort of proposition do you want to discuss with me? ('какое предложение'; 'что за предложение')

What preceding a noun may also be used at the head of an exclamatory sentence. (This *what* is sometimes called the exclamatory *what.)*

e.g. What a stupid thing he has said!
What splendid pictures they have in their collection!
What marvellous news he brought!
What fun we had yesterday!

§ 39. The pronoun *which* is used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun. It is used of persons and things and is invariable in form. It can have the function of the subject, an object and an attribute in the sentence.

The use of *which* is more restricted than that of *what* because *which* is selective — it selects one or more out of a definite number of persons or things.

e.g. Which will you have, tea or coffee?
Which way shall we go?
Which pen does the cap belong to?
Which author are you more interested in?
Which students have answered all the questions correctly?

As a result of its selective meaning, *which* is often followed by an *of*-phrase.

e.g. Which of your friends will you invite to the party?
Which of them said that?
Which of his books are you reading now?

Compare the use of *what* and *which* in the following sentences:

e.g. What TV programmes do you usually watch? Which of them is your favorite one?
What examinations are you going to take this term? Which of them do you find most difficult?
What car have you? Which car is yours?

§ 40. The pronouns *how much* and *how many* are used as noun pronouns and as adjective pronouns.

How much asks about the amount of something and is used of or with only uncountable nouns.

e.g. How much did you find out?
How much money do you need?

How many asks about the number of persons and things and is used of or with only countable nouns,

e.g. "There are several people sitting at the fireplace." "How many can you count?"
How many people took part in the experiment?
How many invitations have been sent out?

§ 41. The interrogative pronouns *who, what* and *which* may be made emphatic by adding *ever*. *Ever* here means something like 'on earth', 'in the world'. Depending on the situation, questions introduced by the emphatic forms in *-ever* express different emotions, such as surprise, anger, despair, indignation, etc. The use of the form in *-ever* is distinctly colloquial,

e.g. Whoever (who ever) can be calling at this time of the night?
Whoever (who ever) heard of such a silly idea?
Whatever (what ever) were you thinking of to suggest such a plan?
He gets up at five o'clock every morning. What ever for?

Conjunctive Pronouns

§42. The pronouns *who {whom), whose, what, which, how much, how many* and *that* are used to connect subordinate clauses with the principal clause. Owing to their auxiliary function they are called conjunctive pronouns. At the same time they all have an independent syntactic function in the subordinate clause.

e.g. Do you know who has bought the house? *(subject)*
He always said exactly what he thought, *(object)*
I'm surprised to see how much he had done in so short a time, *(object)*
I walked past a row of houses whose front doors opened onto the pavement, *(attribute)*
You'll never guess what present I want him to give me. *(at tribute)*
I had to find out what he was. *(predicative)*

When conjunctive pronouns are used in the function of a prepositional object, the preposition is generally placed at the end of the clause.

e.g. The man who(m) I spoke to is my neighbour.
You are the very person that I have been looking for.
Who it was done by is for us to find out.

Conjunctive pronouns may be used to introduce different kinds of clauses, except adverbial clauses and appositive clauses, which are introduced only by conjunctions.

e.g. What was done cannot be undone, *(subject clause)*
The question is which of them is going to be appointed president of the firm, *(predicative clause)*
Life in the country isn't what it used to be, you know, *(predicative clause)*
I don't know whose handwriting it is. *(object clause)*
I'll surprise you by what I'll do. *(prepositional object clause)*
He is one of the men whom I can trust, *(attributive clause)*

§ 43. It is noteworthy that not all the conjunctive pronouns can be used with all kinds of clauses mentioned above. Thus, subject, predicative and object clauses can be introduced by the conjunctive

pronouns *who (whom), whose, which* and *how much, how many.* The use of these conjunctive pronouns does not differ from that of the corresponding interrogative pronouns (see §§ 36-40 above). *That* is no longer a conjunctive pronoun when it introduces one of these clauses, but a mere conjunction because it has no syntactic function in the subordinate clause.

e.g. That he is going to resign is no secret.
My guess is that he is in love.
I know that he is no fool.

§ 44. Attributive clauses can be introduced by *who (whom), whose, which* and *that.* The conjunctive pronouns in this case always refer to some noun (or noun equivalent) in the principal clause. That is why they are also called relative pronouns. The noun they refer to is called their antecedent

The relative pronoun *who (whom)* is used only of persons.

e.g. They were worried about their nephews who were taking part in the war.
He interviewed several men and engaged one who had been discharged from the army.
He was a man who meant what he said.
I wish I knew the man who owns that farm.
The hostess continued the introduction, "Here is Mr Swift, a tutor, and my nephew Maurice, whom he's tutoring."
Meg loved her little brother to whom she had been a second mother.

The relative pronoun *whose* may be used of both persons and things.

e.g. We went one day to the picture-dealer in whose shop my brother thought he could buy a picture or two.
When it came to literature, young Maurice was the one whose reading in any way compared with Swift's.
There are newspapers in Great Britain whose pages are largely filled with news of sport and with stories of film-stars, or accounts of crime and of law-court trials.

The relative pronoun *which* is used of things.

e.g. She sat down behind the tea tray which the servant had just brought in.
As I walked up the endless stairs of the house in which Strickland lived, I confess I was a little excited.
She obtained some opinions which later I realized were entirely sensible.
She had never owned a dress which her girlfriends would consider expensive.

Note. With a collective noun used as the antecedent the relative *who* is used when the individuals forming the group are meant, and the relative *which* when the group as whole is meant.

e.g. He wanted to interview someone from the team who were now resting.
He wanted to interview someone from the team which was winning.

Which is also used if the antecedent of the attributive clause is the whole of the principal clause.

e.g. That day she took her share of the meal, which nowadays she rarely did.
He invited us to dinner, which was very kind of him.
The decision was postponed, which was exactly what he wanted.

The attributive clauses of the above type are always separated from their principal clause by a comma (see the examples above). The relative pronoun *which* in this type of attributive clauses is rendered in Russian as *что*.

Which preceded by the preposition *of* is parallel in meaning to *whose* when the latter is used of things.

Cf. We crossed the river the current of which was very rapid.
We crossed the river whose current was very rapid.

That is used of both persons and things, singular and plural.

e.g. You are the very people that I've been meaning to speak to.
He is not a man that can understand such things.
That was all the education that she had had during her girlhood.
She had a wit that was irresistible.
The actress told him of the plays that she had been in and what parts she had had.

That (not *who* or *which* or *what)* is used:

a) after most indefinite pronouns,

e.g. Have you got all that you need?
Sylvia had always had everything that she wanted.
There is not much that can be done.
Fred looked about the room, trying to discover something that might remind him of Sally.
He never says anything that is worth listening to.

b) after nouns modified by an adjective in the superlative degree as well as by *first* or *last.*

e.g. Yesterday was one of the coldest days that I've ever known.
He has written the best book that I've ever read on the subject.
It was the first time that he heard of the episode.

c) after a noun modified by *same,*

e.g. She wore the same dress that I had seen her in at her sister's wedding.

d) when the antecedent is both a person and a thing,

e.g. He talked of the people and the places that he had visited.

Unlike *who* and *which, that* cannot be preceded by a preposition.

Cf. This is the letter about which I told you.
This is the letter that I told you about.

Note. When a relative pronoun serves as a prepositional object, the following sentence patterns are possible.

e.g. This is the story of which I spoke.
This is the story **which I** spoke of.
This is the story **that I** spoke of.
This is the story I spoke of.

Attributive clauses fall into two groups — non-defining and defining clauses (see "Articles", § 15). *That* as a relative pronoun is possible only with defining clauses, i.e. attributive clauses that cannot be removed from the sentence without destroying its meaning. Note, however, that *who* and *which* can be used with both kinds of attributive clauses — defining and non-defining.

e.g. At the time I was reading a book that (which) I had heard so much about.
At the time I was reading an interesting book which later on I gave as a present to my niece.
I'd like you to meet the girl that (whom) I'm going to marry.
She is both charming and clever. I'd like you to meet the girl, who(m) you are sure to fall for.

Relative pronouns are often dropped in spoken English unless they perform the function of the subject of the sentence or introduce non-defining attributive clauses.

e.g. At the party I saw some people ___ I knew personally.
The man ___ I gave up my seat to was very grateful.
Is it the paper ___ you wanted to see?
He went back the way ___ he had come.

NUMERALS

§ 1. Numerals include two classes of words — cardinal and ordinal numerals.

Cardinal numerals indicate number: *one, two, three, four, ten, twelve, eighteen, twenty, thirty-three, seventy-five, ninety-one, a hundred, one hundred and forty-six, two hundred and twenty-eight, a thousand, three thousand and fifty-two, seven thousand three hundred and seventeen,* etc.

Note 1. The numerals *hundred, thousand* and *million* are always preceded by the indefinite article *a* or the numeral *one.* The latter is generally used when these numerals are followed by some other numerals, e.g. *a hundred* but *one hundred and twenty three; a thousand* but *one thousand seven hundred and thirty.*

Note 2, Care should be taken to remember the following patterns:

a) *five hundred books* (= 500 books),
three thousand cars (= 3,000 cars),
two million workers (= 2,000,000 workers),

b) *hundreds of books,*
thousands of cars,
millions of workers.

In the examples under (a) the exact number of persons or things is given; in the examples under (b) *hundred, thousand* and *million* do not indicate any exact number but only a great multitude of persons or things.

Ordinal numerals indicate order: *first, second, third, fourth, tenth, twelfth, eighteenth, twenty-fifth, forty-seventh, a hun dredth, two hundred and thirty-ninth,* etc.

(For the use of articles with ordinal numerals see "Articles", § ll.)

Note 1. Dates are read in the following way:

1st September, 1944 — the first of September (September the first), nineteen {hundred and) forty four, 5th January, 1807 — the fifth of January {January the fifth), eighteen hundred and seven.

Note 2. Common fractions are read in the following way: — *2/3= two thirds;*

3/8 = *three eights; 5/12 = five twelfths.*

Decimal fractions are read as 3.5 = three point five 4.76 = four point seventy six, 8.03 — eight point naught three,

§ 2. Both cardinal and ordinal numerals can have certain functions of nouns (a) and of adjectives (b) in the sentence.

e.g. a) Three of the schoolboys fell ill with scarlet fever.
There were four of us there.
"Will you have another cup of tea?" "No, thank you. I've had two."
There were three questions in the test. The second was particularly difficult.
Jane was the first to wake up.
"Which exercise would you like to do first?" "I think I'd begin with the third."

b) We had three visitors that day. The first visitor to arrive was my aunt Milly.

ADVERBS

§ 1. Adverbs are a miscellaneous class of words which is not easy to define. Some adverbs resemble pronouns, e.g. *here, there, then, where.* Others have a lot in common with prepositions, e.g. *about, since, in, before, over.* Still others are derived, from adjectives, e.g. *seriously, slowly, remarkably.*

Adverbs have diverse lexical meanings and differ from each other in their structure and role in the sentence.

Structurally, some adverbs are single words (e.g. *fast, well, clearly, somehow, nowhere, sideways, southward(s),* etc.), others are phrases (e.g. *at last, all along, at first, in front, from above, since then, till later, for once, the day after tomorrow, all of a sudden, as a result,* etc.).

Most adverbs serve to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs in the sentence.

e.g. He *spoke* **resolutely.**
They *are coming* **here tomorrow.**
He *has known* it **all along.**
My mother looked **somewhat** *pale.*
She knew him very *well.*

Some adverbs modify whole sentences expressing an evaluation of what is said in the sentence with respect to either the form of communication or to its content.

e.g. **Briefly,** there is nothing more I can do about it.
Frankly, I am tired.

Still other adverbs have a connective function between what is being said and what was said before.

e.g. I've talked to him several times about the matter, and **yet** he does nothing about it.
He, however, hasn't arrived yet.
The girl seems very intelligent, **though.**
She wouldn't come **anyway.**

Classification of Adverbs

§ **2.** According to their meaning, adverbs fall into the following groups:

1) **adverbs of time:** *afterwards, already, at once, eventually, immediately, lately, now, presently, soon, suddenly, then, when, yesterday, yet,* etc.

e.g. He is coming **tomorrow.**
He is **now** in his office.

2) **adverbs of frequency:** *always, constantly, hardly ever, never, occasionally, often, seldom, sometimes, three times, twice,* etc.

e.g. He is **always** in time for meals.
They **sometimes** stay up all night.

3) **adverbs of place or direction:** *abroad, ashore, backwards, below, downstairs, everywhere, here, inside, outside, seaward(s), there, to and fro, where,* etc.

e.g. **I** looked for him everywhere.
It was all rather dark **within.**
A dog began to bark **somewhere inside.**

The use of *somewhere, anywhere* and *nowhere* **in** different kinds of sentences is similar to the use of the corresponding indefinite pronouns *some, any* and *no* (see "Pronouns", §§ 19-22).

4) adverbs of manner: *badly, clearly, deeply, fast, how, quickly, sideways, sincerely, somehow, well, willingly,* etc.

e.g. He speaks English **well.**
George played very **badly** in the match yesterday.

Adverbs of manner saying *how* an action is performed can freely occur with dynamic verbs, but not with stative verbs.

e.g. He *looked* into the problem **carefully.**
He *walked* upstairs **quietly.**
The boy *blushed* **violently.**

5) **adverbs of degree or intensifiers:** *completely, enough, extremely, highly, muck, nearly, perfectly, pretty, quite, rather, really, so, somewhat, terribly, too, unusually, very,* etc.

e.g. I quite agree with you.
He is **very** clever.
He did it quickly **enough.**

Adverbs of degree or intensifiers may be subdivided into three semantic groups:

a) **emphasizers** (emphasizing the truth of the communication): *actually, at all, clearly, definitely, indeed, just, literally, plainly, really, simply,* etc.

e.g. I **really** don't know what he wants.
They **literally** tore his arguments to pieces.
I simply don't believe you.
I **just** can't understand **it.**
You haven't done it **well at all.**

b) **amplifiers** (expressing a high degree): *absolutely, altogether, badly, bitterly, completely, deeply, entirely, extremely, (by) far, fully, greatly, heartily, much, perfectly, quite, terribly, thoroughly, utterly, very,* etc.

e.g. **I thoroughly** disapprove of his methods.
He completely ignored my request.
He needs a warm coat **badly.**
They are very close friends.
Your work is not **altogether** satisfactory.

c) **downtoners** (lowering the effect): *a bit, almost, barely, enough, hardly, kind of, (a) little, moderately, more or less, nearly, partly, quite, rather, scarcely, slightly, somewhat, sort of, sufficiently,* etc.

e.g. I know him **slightly.**
I **partly** agree with you.
I **kind** of like him.
I don't like his attitude **a bit.**
I almost believed him.

6) focusing **adverbs,** which can be of two kinds:

a) **restrictive:** *alone, exactly, just, merely, only, precisely, purely, simply, especially,* etc.

e.g. I am **simply** asking the time.
My father **alone** could help me at the time.

b) **additive:** *again, also, either, equally, even, too,* etc.

e.g. He didn't answer my letter again.
I, **too,** am very busy at the moment.

7) viewpoint adverbs: *economically, morally, politically, scientifically, weatkerwise,* etc. Such adverbs are understood to mean 'from a moral (political, scientific) point of view*.

e.g. **Geographically** and **linguistically,** these islands are closer to the mainland than to the neighbouring islands.
Economically, the project is bound to fail.

8) **attitudinal adverbs** which express the speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying. Such adverbs can be of two kinds:

a) adverbs expressing a comment on the truth-value of what is being said, indicating the extent to which the speaker believes what he is saying is true: *admittedly, allegedly, apparently, certainly, decidedly, definitely, doubtless, maybe, obviously, perhaps, possibly, presumably, probably, quite likely, supposedly, surely, undoubtedly,* etc.

e.g. **Perhaps** the public does not have much choice in the matter.
Certainly, he had very little reason to fear anyone.

b) adverbs expressing some attitude towards what is being said: *amazingly, cleverly, (in)correctly, curiously, foolishly, (un)fortunately, funnily enough, (un)happily, incredibly, ironically, (un)justly, (un)luckily, oddly, preferably, reasonably, remarkably, sensibly, significantly, strangely, tragically, typically, unexpectedly,* etc.

e.g. He is **wisely** staying at home tonight.
Naturally we were extremely annoyed when we received the letter.

9) conjunctive adverbs: *above all, accordingly, alternatively, anyhow, anyway, as a result, at any rate, besides, by the way,*

consequently, finally, first(ly), for all that, for example, further, furthermore, hence, however, incidentally, in other words, in spite of that, instead, in that case, lastly, likewise, meantime, mean while, namely, nevertheless, next, on the contrary, on the one (other) hand, otherwise, rather, secondly, similarly, so, still, that is, then, therefore, though, thus, too, yet, etc.

e.g. I'd like you to do two things for me. First, phone the office and tell them I'll be late. Secondly, order a taxi to be here in about half an hour.
Incidentally, he left you a message. It is on your desk.
I didn't like the food there. However, I didn't complain about it.
He has been working very hard. He looks fit, though.

10) formulaic adverbs (markers of courtesy): *cordially, kindly, please,* etc.

e.g. Will you kindly help me with the parcel?
We cordially invite you to our party.
Let me have a look at the picture, please.

§ 3. The adverbs *when, where, how* and *why* belonging to different semantic groups mentioned above have one point in common — they serve to form questions and introduce some kinds of subordinate clauses. In the former case, owing to their auxiliary function, they are called interrogative adverbs (a). In the latter case, also owing to their auxiliary function, they are called conjunctive adverbs (b). In both cases they perform different adverbial functions in the sentence.

e.g. a) When did you see him last? *(adverbial modifier of time)*
Where are you going? *(adverbial modifier of place)*
How did you manage it? *(adverbial modifier of manner)*
Why didn't you tell me about it? *(adverbial modifier of cause)*
b) Sunday was the day when he was least busy, *(adverbial modifier of time)*
The thing to find out was where he was then, *(adverbial modifier of place)*
How it was done remains a mystery to me. *(adverbial modifier of manner)*
I wanted to know why he had left us so abruptly, *(adverbial modifier of cause)*

As is seen from the above examples, the conjunctive adverbs can introduce attributive, predicative, subject and object clauses.

The adverb *how,* in addition to the above functions, can also be placed at the head of an exclamatory sentence. In this case it is often followed by an adjective or an adverb but it may also be used alone. This *how* is sometimes called the exclamatory *how.*

e.g. How unfair grown-ups are!
Oh, how the baby cries!

Forms of Adverbs

§ 4. A considerable number of adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *-ly,* e.g. *calm, — calmly, slow — slowly, kind — kindly,* etc.

Spelling notes:

a) adjectives ending in *-y* change it to *-i,* e.g. *gay — gaily, busy — busily, happy — happily,* but: *dry — dryly/drily;*

b) adjectives ending in *-able/ible* drop the final *e* and add *-y,* e.g. *capable — capably, suitable — suitably, sensible — sensibly* etc;

c) adjectives ending in *-l* double it, e.g. *skilful — skilfully, final — finally, beautiful — beautifully.*

But adverbs cannot be formed from adjectives already ending in *-ly,* such as *manly, friendly, silly, lively, fatherly,* etc. An adverbial phrase is used in this case instead of an adverb, e.g. *in a silly way, in a friendly manner,* etc.

Some adverbs, however, have the same form as the corresponding adjective.

e.g. He walked very fast.
The road runs straight for miles.
He got up very early.
He didn't try hard enough.
I didn't wait for him long.
He spelled my name wrong.

Some other adverbs have two forms: the adjective form and the form in *-ly.* In most cases the two forms differ in meaning.

e.g. He came **late.**
I haven't seen him **lately.**

The time is drawing **near** for our departure.
I **nearly** missed my train.

He works **hard.**
He hardly ever works.

It is **pretty** early.
She was **prettily** dressed.

There is also a group of adverbs with which the form without *-ly* is mainly found in set phrases where it often undergoes some change of meaning.

e.g. They travelled **cheaply.**
He bought (sold, got) the car cheap.

She brushed the floor cleanly.
The bullet went **clean** (= right) through his shoulder.

He spoke loudly and clearly.
Stand clear of the door.
Keep **clear** of the painted wall.

He shut the door **closely.**
He followed close behind.
Keep close to me.

He loved his daughter **dearly.**
He sold (bought) it **dear.**
It cost him **dear.**
He paid **dear(ly)** for it.

He found his way **easily.**
Take it easy.
Go **easy** about it.

They never treated him **fairly** at school.
You must play (fight) **fair.**

They criticized my work freely.
People are admitted to the museum **free.**

I firmly believe that he can be made to see our point.
I shall stand firm.

They thought (spoke) **highly** of him.
The plane flew **high.**
He paid **high** for his mistake.

He spoke **sharply** to me.
But: Turn **sharp** to the right.

He will arrive shortly.
It happened **shortly** before the war.
He cut me **short.**
I saw him stop **short** and then walk back.

The car passed **slowly.**
Go slow about it.

The books were **tightly** packed in the crate.
Hold tight.

They differ **widely** in opinions.
He was **wide** awake.
His eyes were **wide** open.

In a few cases both forms can be used with little, if any, difference in meaning.

e.g. He talked **loud/loudly.**
He turned the idea down **flat/flatly.**
He drove the car slow/slowly.
He came back **quick/quickly.**

Note 1. Care should be taken to remember that after the link-verbs *to feel, to smell, to taste,* etc. only adjectives are used as predicatives.

e.g. He felt happy.
She is feeling bad (well).
The flowers smelled sweet.
The medicine tastes bitter.

Note 2. After certain intransitive verbs we find both adjectives and adverbs,
e.g. The wind *blew* strong(ly).
The sun *shone* bright(ly).
They stood motionless(ly).
They sat weary /wearily on the porch.
They *lay* silent(ly) on the grass.

Note 3. There are a few adjectives and adverbs in English which have the same form in *-ly.* They have been derived from nouns, *e.g. daily, weekly, monthly, hourly,* etc.

e.g. It was his daily duty to water the flowers.
Most newspapers appear daily.

Degrees of Comparison

§ 5. Most adverbs are invariable. But certain adverbs of manner change for degrees of comparison. The degrees of comparison of adverbs are formed in the same way as those of adjectives.

Monosyllabic adverbs and the adverb *early* form the comparative and the superlative degrees by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est.*

e.g. *hard — harder — hardest*
soon — sooner — soonest
early — earlier — earliest

The degrees of comparison of all other adverbs are formed by placing *more* and *most* before them.

e.g. *beautifully —- more beautifully — most beautifully*
cleverly — more cleverly — most cleverly

A few adverbs have irregular degrees of comparison.

e.g. *well — better — best*
badly — worse — worst
much — more — most
little — less — least

Note that it is only the comparative degree of adverbs that is actually found in English.

e.g. He ran faster than the wind.
Little Martha danced even **more beautifully** than her sister.

In the combinations *most successfully, most wisely* and the like, *most* is an adverb of degree denoting 'very'. It is only the superlatives *best, most, worst* and *least* that are actually used.

e.g, John's sister Marian was very nice to me, and I liked her best of them all.
None of us played well, but Tom played worst that day.

Syntactic Functions of Adverbs

§ **6.** Adverbs may modify single words, phrases and sentences. When they modify verbs, they can serve as adverbial modifiers of time, frequency, place, manner and degree.

e.g. He was **then** only fifteen years old. *(time)*
During my walks I occasionally met people I knew, *(frequency)*
I went back **inside,** *(place)*
I loved her passionately, *(degree)*
The father held the boy tightly in his arms, *(manner)*

When adverbs modify adjectives or other adverbs, they serve as adverbial modifiers of degree (as intensifiers).

e.g. My English was too poor to allow me to make speeches.
I led a very pleasant life there.
She left the room so quickly.
It's going to rain pretty soon.

Adverbs of degree can also modify certain kinds of prepositional phrases.

e.g. They lived nearly on the top of the hill.
I'm almost through with my work.
His remarks were not **quite** to the point.

There are a few adverbs in English which can function as attributes modifying nouns.

e.g. He was **fully** master of the situation.
She was quite a child.
Can you see the man over there?
Nobody could explain the noise backstage.

Note. In some combinations the adverbs modifying a noun become adjectivized, **e.g.** *the* **then** *Prime Minister, in the* **above** *examples, in* **after** *years* and some others.

Some groups of adverbs, namely viewpoint, attitudinal and formulaic ones, modify whole sentences.

e.g. He felt sure that, politically, the proposal might have serious consequences.
Luckily, I came just in time.
Will you **kindly** step aside?

Conjunctive adverbs connect what is being said with what was said before, establishing between two or more statements relations of enumeration, equality, contrast, result, inference, replacement, concession, opposition, time and the like.

e.g. He felt ill, **yet** he didn't stay in.
Paul went away for three days. **Meanwhile** his family were **to** do the packing.
He got wet in the rain and fell ill as **a result.**
I know you are not a doctor. **Nevertheless (still)** you could have bandaged his cut.

Place of Adverbs in the Sentence

§ **7.** There are generally four possible positions for adverbs in the sentence:

1) at the head of the sentence,
2) between the subject and predicate or, if the predicate is a complicated form, the adverb appears after the first auxiliary verb, link-verb or a modal verb,
3) before the word the adverb modifies,
4) at the end of the sentence.

Different semantic groups of adverbs tend to appear in different positions.

Thus, many adverbs of time and frequency prefer Position 2.

e.g. Mother is **now** busy in the kitchen.
He will **soon** be back.
He never sleeps late.
She is **already** typing the letter.
He can **sometimes** be seen in the library.

However, some of time adverbs appear in Position 4.

e.g. He arrived **yesterday.**
He hasn't called **yet.**
I haven't heard from him **lately.**

If any adverbs of time and frequency are found in positions other than those characteristic of them, it means that these adverbs are intended for special emphasis.

Cf. He usually comes early, *(common)*
Usually he comes early, *(emphatic)*
They are **never** ready in time, *(common)*
They never are ready in time, *(emphatic)*

Adverbs of place and direction usually occur in Position 4.

e.g. The young people were enjoying themselves **outside.**
On Sunday they didn't go anywhere.

Adverbs of manner commonly appear in Position 4, after the predicate verb.

e.g. They welcomed us **warmly.**
He explained the problem very **simply.**
His uncle supported him **lavishly.**

Some adverbs of manner may occasionally be found in Position 2.

e.g. She knew she had **deeply** hurt her husband.
The girl bent down and gently scooped the butterfly into the palm of her hand.

Occasionally adverbs of manner may be found in Position 1. In that case the adverb does not only modify the predicative verb, but also the subject.

e.g. **Stiffly** she began to get out of the car. (= she was stiff when she began to get out of the car)
Anxiously she watched the butterfly. (= she felt anxious when she watched the butterfly)

Adverbs of degree (or intensifiers) are usually placed in Position 3, before the word they modify.

e.g. **I quite** forgot her birthday.
He **definitely** saw me in the corridor.
It was a **really** stupid thing to do.
I know **almost** nothing about it.
He came back so soon.

The adverb *enough*, when it modifies an adjective or an adverb, is placed in post-position to them.

e.g. **He** is old **enough** to understand it.
He spoke frankly **enough.**

However, adverbs of degree (intensifiers), if they modify verbs, may also be found in Position 4, at the end of the sentence.

e.g. I don't know him **well.**
He ignored me **completely.**

Focusing adverbs occupy Position 3 ■— most of them precede the word they refer to (a) and only some of them follow it immediately (b).

e.g. a) Shall we **just** exchange the books?
It was **only** proper that the girl should give up her seat to an elderly lady.
He also bought a can of raspberry jam.
b) Ann **alone** knew my secret.
I, **too,** want a cup of tea.

Viewpoint adverbs are usually found in Position 1 and marked off by a comma.

e.g. **Morally,** they have won a victory.
Theoretically, I have no objection to his proposal.

Note. A change in the position of an adverb may bring about a change in its meaning.

Cf. The expedition was planned **scientifically,** *{an adverb of manner meaning* 'using scientific methods')
Scientifically, the expedition was a success, *(a viewpoint adverb meaning* 'from a scientific point of view')
You may answer the question generally, (an *adverb of manner meaning* 'not in detail')
You **generally** answer the questions in too much detail, *(an adverb of frequency meaning* 'usually')

Attitudinal adverbs mainly tend to appear in Position 1, at the head of the sentence (a): they may also occur in Positions 2 and **4 (b).**

e.g. a) **Perhaps** they knew that she was coming today.
Unfortunately, we didn't find him in the office.
Honestly, we knew nothing about it.
b) My brother, **unaccountably,** had very few friends.
It was possible **of** course that Meg would deny everything.
I honestly don't remember it.

Conjunctive adverbs may be found in Positions 1, 2 and 4.
e.g. She did not expect her husband to meet her. **However,** when the train had stopped, she saw him standing on the platform.
She felt she ought to find a job. She was **nevertheless** too tired to do it.
The corridor was full **of** people **anyway. Besides** he was too exhausted to wait.

The Adverb *so*

§ **8.** Note the peculiarities in the use of the adverb *so.* It is generally used as an adverb of degree or a conjunctive adverb, but may also be used to stand for a previous statement. This is found in the following cases:

1) When so is used to express agreement with a preceding statement, especially after the verbs *to be afraid, to believe, to expect, to imagine, to hear, to say, to suppose, to tell, to think.* (Compare it with the pronoun *it* when it is used instead of a previous sentence or clause or phrase. For this see "Pronouns", § 5.)

e.g. "Will he do it?" "I think so." (I expect so. I believe so.)
"Is he ill?" "I'm afraid so."
"Are we on the right road?" "I hope so."
"Why do you say so?"

Disagreement with a previous statement may be expressed in two ways: by using *not* after an affirmative verb or by using *so* after a negative verb. Only the first way is possible with the verbs *to hope* and *to be afraid.*

e.g. "Can you come and see us tomorrow?" "I'm afraid **not."**
"Will you have to do it yourself?" "I hope not."

As to the other verbs, both ways are possible with them, the second being more common, however.

e.g. "Will they ask you to do it?" "I don't think so."
"Are your parents going to stay with you when they come?"
"I don't suppose so."

2) When *so* expresses agreement and refers to **a** previous statement it is also found in the following two patterns:

e.g. a) "It was hot yesterday." "So it was."
"We've all worked well." "So we have."
b) "It's going to rain soon." "If so, what are we going to do?"
"I'm afraid I've lost my purse." "If so, how are you going to get home?"

3) When so is used with *to do* to refer to a preceding verb.

e.g. I told him to come and see me the next day, and he did so.
If they want me to help you, I will do so.

4) When *so* meaning 'also' is used in the following sentence patterns:

e.g. My wife likes having visitors and so do I.

My brother is fond of pop-music and so is his wife.

The negative counterpart of that is *neither.*

e.g. I haven't seen him for a long time and neither have they.

The Adverbs *already* and *yet*

§ 9. *Already* is generally found in affirmative sentences,

e.g. They've already left. (They've left already.)

In interrogative sentences it is used with an element of surprise or if one is sure of a yes-answer.

e.g. "Have they left already?" ('Они уже ушли?') "Yes, a minute ago."

Yet is found in negative sentences and in interrogative sentences when the speaker really does not know the answer.

e.g. They haven't left yet. (They haven't yet left.)
Have they left yet?

The Adverbs *still* and *yet*

§ 10. *Still* may be used in all kinds of sentences with an implication of an action (positive or negative) continuing.

e.g. He is still asleep. ('Он все еще спит.')
Is he still asleep? ('Он все еще спит?')
He is still not asleep. ('Он все еще не спит.')

Yet may also be used in all kinds of sentences with an implication that an action (positive or negative) has not started yet.

e.g. He is asleep yet. ('Он еще не проснулся.')
Is he asleep yet? ('Он еще не проснулся?')
He is not asleep yet. ('Он еще не уснул.')

Compare also the following pairs:
Do it while it is still light, ('пока еще светло')
Do it while it is light yet. ('пока еще не стемнело')
Is it still light? ('Все еще светло?')
Is it light yet? ('Еще не стемнело?')
It is still not light. ('Все еще темно.')
It is not light yet. ('Еще не рассвело.')

The Adverbs *much, far* and *long*

§ ll. The use of the adverb *much* is similar to the use of the indefinite pronoun *much:* it is mainly found in interrogative and negative sentences (see also "Pronouns", § 32).

e.g. He doesn't care much what happens to him.
Did he travel much?

The adverbs *far, far off, far away* and *long* are also mainly used in interrogative and negative sentences. Their counterparts for affirmative sentences are *a long way, a long way off, a long way away* and *a long time* respectively,

e.g. Did you have to walk far?
I've got a long way to go.
I couldn't stay there long.
He talked with us for a long time.

§ 12. Special attention should be paid to a striking point in the use of English adjectives and adverbs: what a Russian student of English would expect to find expressed by an adverb modifying the predicate verb (Cf. Он *внимательно* оглядел комнату.) is replaced in English by an adjective modifying a noun in the sentence.

e.g. He gave a careful look round the room. (= He looked round the room carefully.)
He pays us occasional visits. (= He visits us occasionally.)
His friends shrugged cynical shoulders. («•= His friends shrugged their shoulders cynically.)

PREPOSITIONS

§ **1.** Prepositions are structural words which are used with a noun (or a noun-equivalent, e.g. a pronoun or an *ing-form)* to show its relation to some other word in the sentence (a verb, another noun, an adjective and occasionally an adverb).

e.g. **The face of his visitor** was **so distasteful to him** that he could scarcely bear to **look at it**
The stream **was very shallow because of the drought** but still it was active, **hurrying over the pebbles.**
The question, **thrown at her** so vehemently, **took from her the power of thought for a moment.**
They **agreed to his proposal independently of each other.**

Prepositions may be single words, e.g. *in, for, below, behind, across, inside, within,* etc., and also phrases consisting of more than one word, e.g. *because of, thanks to, due to, in front of, owing to, but for,* etc. Besides, there are a large number of combinations in English based on the pattern **preposition + noun + preposition** (e.g. *in addition to, on top of, on account of, in view of, in accordance with, in contrast with, with respect to,* etc.). They are on the way to becoming prepositions.

Note. Some ing-forms are also used as prepositions, e.g. *concerning, including,* etc.

§ 2. Prepositions may have a lexical meaning of their own.

e.g. Her sister appeared, carrying a wine-glass in which there was a raw egg, **with** a little sherry **on** it.
The path felt springy **beneath** his feet.
He dropped **into** a chair **beside** his mother.
She arrived **before** lunch.

Prepositions may indicate position in space or direction (e.g. *on, in, under, over, at, near, to, into, out of, from, towards,* etc.), time (e.g. *after, before, during, for, in, on, at,* etc.), various abstract relations (e.g. *by, with, at, on, for, against, because of, instead of, owing to, according to,* etc.).
Most prepositions are polysemantic.

e.g. I've been here **for** two weeks.
He's brought a letter **for** you.
Did you pay him **for** his work?
I was punished **for** my little joke.
They went out **for** a walk.
They sent **for** a doctor.
The letters MP stand **for** *Member of Parliament.*

But the meaning of prepositions is often weakened and sometimes becomes even difficult to trace.

e.g. There is a man waiting **for** you in your office.
The success of the operation depends entirely **on** your consent.
Who is responsible **for** this decision?
There is nothing wrong **with** him.

§ 3. The choice of prepositions is determined by different factors. Sometimes it is quite free, i.e. it entirely depends on the meaning the speaker wishes to convey.

e.g. There was a photograph of a young girl **on** his desk.
There was a photograph of a young girl **in his desk.**
There was a photograph of a young girl over his desk.
There was a photograph of a young girl **under his desk.**

But more often the choice of the preposition is determined by the head-word.

e.g. No one could **account for his objection to** our **plan.**
He should be ashamed **of** himself.
You shouldn't rely **on** him.
Who is going to look after your children while you are away?
Your brother was **cruel to** him.
I've been **dependent on** both of you so **long.**
She was **treated for** diabetes.
He was **proud of** his elder son.
Everyone is conscious **of** the change in the man.

He is quite **good at** painting.
There is no **point in** arguing.

It is in this case that the meaning of the preposition often becomes weakened.

The choice of the preposition may also depend on the noun that follows the preposition.

e.g. Who was the first to speak **at the** meeting?
He went there **on business.**
He is now **on a concert tour** in Europe.
I'm planning to finish it **in February.**
He woke up **at 8 o'clock.**
We discussed it **in detail.**
No one could help him **under the circumstances.**

In this case the preposition and the noun often become set phrases (e.g. *in the evening, at dawn, by day, by taxi,* etc.). The meaning of the preposition is also weakened here.

§ 4. Although prepositions serve to express various relations between the noun (or noun-equivalent) following it and other words in the sentence, they sometimes get separated from the noun (or noun-equivalent). This occurs in:

a) **special questions,**

e.g. What are you looking **for?**
Who(m) did you speak **with?**
What conclusion did you come **to?**

b) certain **subordinate clauses,**

e.g. What he is waiting **for** is not likely to happen.
That is what he wanted to begin **with.**
I know who(m) he is worried **about.**
I'm expecting a letter my plans for the future depend **on.**

c) certain **passive constructions,**

e.g. He loved the dogs and they were taken good care **of.**
They found him so ill that a doctor was immediately sent for.
His marriage was very much talked **about.**

d) certain functions of **the infinitive or infinitive phrase,**

e.g. He hated to be made fun **of.**
When he retired he went to live in Dorset, in a charming place his wife had bought for him to retire **to.**

You have a lot to be thankful **for.**
You've done nothing to be ashamed **of.**
There is nothing more to worry **about.**

Sometimes one and the same noun is associated with two or more different prepositions. The noun itself need not be repeated after each preposition and is usually placed after the last one.

e.g. It is a book **for** and **about children.**
The pronoun *much* is used **of** and **with uncountable nouns.**
He cared **for** and looked **after his ageing mother.**

It follows from the above examples that the prepositions in this case are retained by the preceding head-word.

§ 5. The prepositions *of, by* and *to* may become entirely devoid of lexical meaning and serve to express mere grammatical relations. This occurs in the following constructions:

e.g. Anne was the wife **of** a miner.
They were followed by their two daughters.
They offered the job **to** Hawkins.

The prepositions are said to be **grammaticalized** in this case.

CONJUNCTIONS

§ 1. Conjunctions are structural words that serve to connect words or phrases as well as clauses or sentences (see the examples below).

Conjunctions may be single words (e.g. *and, as, because, but, or, though, while,* etc.)> phrases consisting of more than one word (e.g. *in order that, on condition (that), in case, as soon as, as long as, for fear (that), as if, as though,* etc.) and also correlative conjunctions, i.e. conjunctions that are always used in pairs (e.g. *as...as, both.,.and, either...or, not only...but also,* etc.).

Note. Some ***ing-forms*** and participles are also used as conjunctions (e.g. *supposing, seeing, given* (= on condition, if), *providing* or *provided).*

§ 2. Conjunctions have a lexical meaning of their own.

e.g. He came to see me because he felt happy.
He came to see me **though** he felt happy.
He came to see me **when** he felt happy.
He came to see me if he felt happy.

Note. The lexical meaning of the conjunction *that* is vague. It serves to introduce different kinds of clauses.

e.g. **That I** was not going to be popular with the other children soon became clear to my parents, *{subject clause)*
The probability is that he refused to cooperate, *(predicative clause)*
He believed **that** his father was an innocent man. *(object clause)*
I was sure **that** many would follow his example, *(object clause)*
My father then sold everything **that** he might have the money for my education, *(adverbial clause of purpose)*
He was so shabby **that** no decent landlady would take him in. *(adverbial clause of result)*
He agreed with the assertion **that** his results fell short of the requirements. *(appositive clause).*

§ 3. According to their role in the sentence, conjunctions fall into two groups: **coordinating conjunctions** (e.g. *accordingly, and, besides, both...and, but, either,..or, hence, likewise, moreover, nevertheless, or, still, therefore, yet,* etc.) and **subordinating conjunctions** (e.g. *after, as, as,..as, as long as, because, before, if, since, so that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, whether,* etc.).

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences which are independent of each other.

e.g. His light-brown hair was **fine and thick.**
She took **a piece of cake and a cup of tea.**
She **flung the door open and entered.**
She felt jealous because there was someone who knew **what was so closely connected with her father and what she herself had not known.**
Meg ordered a fresh pot of tea and they settled down to discuss the new complication.
Just now **I** can't think **of anything but of how you were made to suffer.**
She looked scornful but she was secretly pleased.
She could no longer **think clearly or speak with decision.**
She was furious at me, yet I didn't care.
It was hard to get the story clear from her cousin's answers, nevertheless she found out everything.

Subordinating conjunctions serve to join a subordinate clause to the principal clause.

e.g. **When** the play was over he asked her **if** she would let him see her home.
He felt marvellously happy as **though** everything he did were a marvel.
The two girls were silent **till** he left the room.
He winked at me as he passed.
The old man said to the boy: "**If** you don't **like** me you may go home **whenever** you choose."

Subordinating conjunctions may occasionally introduce a word or a phrase within a simple sentence.

e.g. **When a child,** he often had to run errands for his elders.
His father was sharp with his children, **while at home.**
He promised to sell the car **if necessary.**

There was a dry, pungent smell in the air, as though of dry vegetation, crisped by the sun.
He looked happy though somewhat tired.

Note. It should be pointed out that a number of conjunctions (a) have homonyms among prepositions (b) and adverbs (c).

e.g. a) He had not heard himself called that name since his mother died.
b) Everything has gone wrong since that night.
c) He had his last meal in the restaurant car and hasn't had anything to eat since.

a) He found himself in his mother's arms before he saw her.
b) I talked to him **before** the conference.
c) I've never seen him so angry before.

a) They spoke little **until** they reached the less busy road.
b) He stayed up **until** dawn, reading and writing.

a) After he had taken all the things out, she started the car.
b) **After** lunch they all went to their rooms.

INTERJECTIONS

§ 1. Interjections are words expressing emotions, such as surprise, anger, pleasure, regret, indignation, encouragement, triumph, etc. They are used as exclamations.

§ 2. Some interjections are special words which are not associated with any other parts of speech, e.g. *oh* , *ah* , *eh* , *aha* , *alas* , *fie* , *humph* , *hum* , *phew* , *pshaw* , *pooh* , *tush* , *bravo* , *hurrah* , etc.

Some of these interjections serve to express quite definite feelings. Thus *alas* is a cry of sorrow or anxiety; *bravo* is a cry of approval, meaning 'well done, excellent'; *hurrah* is a cry of expressing joy, welcome; *fie, pooh* and *pshaw* express contempt; *aha* expresses triumph.

Other interjections, according to the tone of the voice, may express emotions of different character, e.g. *ah* may show sorrow, surprise, pity, pleasure, etc.; *oh* is an exclamation of surprise, fear, pain, etc.; *phew* may express relief, astonishment or contempt; *eh* — surprise or doubt; *tush* — contempt or impatience; *humph* — doubt, disbelief or dissatisfaction.

§ 3. There are a number of words which belong to different other parts of speech but which are also used as interjections, e.g. *bother, come; damn; hear, hear; now; there, there; well; why,* etc. We even find phrases used as interjections, e.g. *dear me; dear, dear; goodness gracious; confound it; hang it; for shame; well, I never,* etc.

Some of them, like interjections proper, serve to express quite definite feelings. For example, *bother; oh, bother* are exclamations of impatience; *goodness gracious, goodness me* are exclamations of surprise; *damn, damn it all, damn you, confound you* and *hang it*

are used to express anger, annoyance; *for shame* serves as a reproof for not being ashamed of one's actions, behaviour; *well, I never* expresses surprise and indignation at the same time; *hear, hear* is used as a form of cheering, usually to express approval, but it may also be used ironically; *there, there* is used to soothe a person (e.g. *There, there, you haven't really hurt yourself}.*

Other interjections of this kind may express quite different feelings, according to the tone of the voice or the context.

Thus *dear, dear* or *dear me* or *oh, dear* express sorrow, impatience or wonder; *why* may be an expression of surprise or protest, as in: *Why, it's quite* easy!

Come or *come, come* indicate either encouragement or blame, as in: *Come, cornel Don't be so foolish!* or *Come, comel You don't expect me to believe it*\

Now and *now, now* can in different cases serve a different purpose: *Now listen to* met means I *beg you to listen to me; Oh, come now!* expresses surprise, reproof, disbelief. *Now, now* or *now then* are meant as a friendly protest or warning.

Well, depending on the sentence in which it is used, may express a variety of emotions. In *Well, who would have thought it?* it serves as an expression of surprise. In *Well, here we are at* ***last!***
it expresses relief. *Well* serves to express expectation in *Well* ***then?,*** *Well, what about* ***it?;*** resignation in *Well, it can't be helped,* concession in *Well, it may be true,* etc.

Note. Imitation sounds such as *mew, cock-a-doodle-doo, bang* and the like cannot be treated as interjections since they do not serve to express any feeling.

§ 4. Interjections are independent elements which do not perform any of the syntactic functions in the sentence. They are usually sentence-words themselves and may be used parenthetically.

e.g. "Oh," he exclaimed, unable to suppress his emotion.
"H'm," said Mr Fox thoughtfully.
The great poet said: "The tragedy of our age is that aesthetic values do not keep pace with social — and, **alas,** technical — developments."
"Did you notice the stink in the hall?" "**Well,** not particularly."
"**Phew!** Three times I was nearly sick."
"Marian is going to see her old nurse, Nannie Robeson, in the afternoon." "**Confound** Nannie Robeson! Marian's always going there."
Oh, pooh, look at these stockings!
Now, Marilyn, you don't know what you are doing.
Well... let's walk up there then.
You're about to make a confession to me. **Well,** don't do it. I don't want to hear.

Some interjections may be connected with a word in the sentence by means of a preposition.

e.g. **Hurrah for** Jojo and Ed!
Alas **for** poor Tommy!

Note. Interjections should be distinguished from such one-word sentences as *Helpl Silencel Nonsense]* The latter are notional words, not mere exclamations expressing emotions.

NOTES ON THE SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE OF THE SENTENCE

The Structure of the Simple Sentence

All words in a sentence perform definite syntactic functions. As a rule, every English sentence contains words or groups of words functioning as **the** subject and **the** predicate. Grammatically, these functions are independent and equally significant in the sentence. For that reason they are called the **principal parts (members)** of the sentence.

Words performing all other functions in the sentence depend either on the subject (and together they form **the** subject-phrase of the sentence) or on the predicate (together they form **the predicate-phrase** of the sentence).

A sentence which has both the subject and the predicate is known as a two-member sentence. Most English sentences are two-member ones.

Sentences which consist of only the subject or only the predicate are termed one-member sentences. There are not many one-member sentences in English. We find among them:

1) sentences with a verb in the Imperative mood (e.g. *Keep clear of the road: Step aside, please.)*

2) some exclamatory sentences (e.g. *What a nice view! How cold!)*

3) questions expressing suggestion (e.g. *Why not give him a telephone call? What about having a cup of tea?)*

4) sentences expressing confirmation or negation (e.g. *Yes. No.)*

5) some formulas of courtesy (e.g. *Hello! Good-bye! See you to night.)*

Sentences built up of only the subject and the predicate are called **unextended** sentences (e.g. *The rain* **has stopped.** ***It*** **is cold.)**

Sentences in which, besides the principal parts, there are words performing other (secondary) functions are called **extended** sentences (e.g. *Edward was* **most** *anxious* **to hear all the news about his family.).**

For practical purposes of learning English, it is necessary and sufficient to distinguish the following syntactic functions within a simple sentence.

I. The Subject

The subject is a word or a group of words which names the person, object or phenomenon the sentence informs us about. It may be expressed by a noun, a pronoun, a substantivized adjective, a numeral, an infinitive and an ing-form.

e.g. The stranger came early in February.
Hospitality was a passion with him.
You're not a bad fellow.
This is my son Henry.
Someone was singing an Italian tune.
Much depends on the letter.
What has become of him?
It has been raining since the morning.
It's hard to forget one's past.
The young often complain that **the elders** do not understand them.
Two of the letters were from my uncle.
The Dutch are famous for their tulips.
The **extraordinary** always excites curiosity.
To know all about English is one thing; **to know** English is quite another.
Watching TV has become his favourite pastime.

II. The Predicate

The predicate is a word or a group of words that informs us of what is happening to the person, object or phenomenon indicated as the subject in the sentence.

The predicate differs from all the other parts of the sentence in that it relates the information contained in the sentence to reality, i.e.

it *is* the means of expressing predication and modality for the whole sentence. For that reason there is only one part of speech that can function as predicate — it is the verb in one of its finite forms.

A finite verb may be used in this function alone or combined with other parts of speech. Depending on the structure, predicates are divided into the following kinds:

1) simple verbal predicates — they consist of only a notional verb (in any tense, aspect, voice or mood form),

e.g. His words **frightened** me.
I've given her every chance.
The heavy luggage **had been put** in a dry place.
I **shouldn't think** the idea so unreasonable.

To this kind also belong predicates expressed by phraseological units and set phrases which are treated as verb equivalents in this book.

e.g. They **are having breakfast** now.
I took a walk as far **as the river.**
She amuses herself at our expense.
They **have been taking care** of your children long enough.

2) **compound nominal predicates —** they consist of a link-verb and a predicative (= a nominal part) commonly expressed by a noun or an adjective. Other parts of speech may also be sometimes found in the function of predicative (see below).

The link-verb expresses all the verbal characteristics of the predicate whereas the nominal part is the main bearer of meaning. The most commonly occurring link-verbs are *to be, to become, to get, to grow, to look, to seem, to turn.*

e.g. **He was a mining engineer** by profession.
The leaves **are turning yellow.**
Dave **looked surprised.**

3) compound verbal predicates — they consist of a finite form and a verbal or an adjective. The meaning of the first component is very pale. It mainly serves as a finite verb and usually expresses the speaker's attitude or indicates the position/motion of the subject. The meaning of the verbal or the adjective is quite prominent and determines the meaning of the whole unit.

As the first component of a compound verbal predicate we find:

a) modal verbs *(can, may, must, be to, have to, shall, should, will, would, ought to, need, dare),*

e.g. You **oughtn't to go back** on your word.
You **should have gone** to the concert.
He had to tell the story to his room-mate.
She **must have regretted** doing **it.**

b) verbs of seeming *(to seem, to appear),*

e.g. He **seemed to have heard** the news.
For a moment she **appeared to be hesitating.**

c) verbs of unexpected occurrence *(to happen, to turn out, to chance, to prove),*

e.g. They **happened to meet** at the bus-stop.
He **turned out to have** no feelings for his nephew.

d) some verbs of position and motion *(to stand, to sit, to lie, to be in/out/away, to come, to go),*

e.g. He **sat staring** at the letter.
The boys **have gone fishing.**
Mother is **out shopping.**
They stood motionless with their backs to the wall.

III. The Predicative

A predicative (= the nominal part of a compound nominal predicate) may be expressed by a noun, an adjective, **a** numeral, a pronoun, an infinitive, an ing-form and sometimes an **adverb.**

e.g. He was not **an artist,** but he liked to create artistic things.
It was getting **dark.**
Henry, as usual, looked **reserved.**
The book is very **amusing.**
We were **six** in the room.
This suit-case is **mine.**
My first thought was **to ask** him for support.
My job was **getting** it **all** done in time.
Everybody is in.

IV. The Second (Subsequent) Action Expressed by a Verbal

Verbals in this function indicate a second action accompanying the action of the predicate verb. If transformed, the two actions would form homogeneous predicates connected by the conjunction *and.*

A second action may be expressed by an infinitive, an *ing* form and a participle.

e.g. He woke up to see his wife sitting by his bed. (= He woke up and saw...)
He walked down the path humming a tune. (= He walked... and hummed...)
Having locked the office he started for home. (= He locked... and started...)
Dressed, he stood staring at the fire. (= He was dressed and stood...)

V. The Subjective Predicative

Words in this function occur after a limited number of verbs in the Passive Voice (see "Verbs", §§ 192, 221, 248; "Nouns", § 21; "Adjectives", § 7). They modify the subject of the sentence, forming with it a syntactic complex, often known as the complex subject.

A subjective predicative may be expressed by a noun, a noun introduced by *as,* an adjective, an infinitive, an *ing-iorm* and a participle.

e.g. He *was appointed* secretary of the committee.
He *was regarded* as a promising young writer.
The box *was found* empty.
He *was heard* to mention it.
The children *were seen* running down the lane.
The note *was found* pinned to the door.

VI. The Objective Predicative

Words in this function occur after a limited number of verbs in the Active Voice (see "Verbs", §§ 193, 222, 249; "Nouns", § 21; "Adjectives" § 7). They modify the object of the sentence, forming with it a syntactic complex, often known as the complex object.

An objective predicative may be expressed by a noun, a noun introduced by *as,* an adjective, an infinitive, an *ing-form* and a participle.

e.g. They *appointed him* secretary of the committee.
We *regarded him* as a promising young writer.
I *found the box* empty.
We *thought the game* dull.
They *heard him* mention it.
He *saw the children* running down the lane.
She had *her hair* cut very short.

VII. The Object

Objects are words which modify verbs and adjectives. They complete their meaning indicating the person, object or phenomenon which the action of the predicate verb affects.

Objects may be expressed by a noun, a pronoun, a substantivized adjective, an infinitive and an *ing* form. There are three kinds of objects:

1) direct — a prepositionless object immediately following the predicate,

e.g. I miss the opera here.
I heard him on the radio.
We did not find anyone there.
I found it difficult to cope with the task.
Do you want to speak with me?
It pained him to think of it.
I'm extremely sorry to disturb you.
It was foolish to speak like that.
They found it difficult to walk in the deep snow.
I usually avoid asking him questions.
She was busy packing upstairs.
It was pleasant lying on the warm sand.
I thought the book worth reading.

2) indirect — a prepositionless object placed between the predicate verb and the direct object and indicating the person who is the receiver of the action.

e.g. They offered Ed a new job.
I lent him my car.

3) prepositional — an object introduced by a preposition.

e.g. He had been waiting **for Nora** a long time.
That doesn't depend **on** me, you know.
He was afraid **of dogs.**
Do you believe **in the supernatural?**
He is keen **on collecting** shells.
He thought **of** going **away** for the week-end.
He was used **to having** an early breakfast.

VIII. The Adverbial Modifier

Words in this function modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs, specifying the circumstances of a happening.

Adverbial modifiers may be expressed by an adverb, **a** noun with a preposition, an infinitive, an *ing-iorm* with a conjunction or a preposition, a participle with a conjunction, an adjective with a conjunction and an absolute construction.

According to their meaning, adverbial modifiers are sub-divided into:

1) **adverbial modifiers of place and direction,**

e.g. He found himself **in a lonely street.**
The procession moved slowly **towards the embankment.**
He'll be here tomorrow.

2) adverbial modifiers of time,

e.g. **I'll** give you a telephone call **tonight.**
Bring him back **on Sunday.**
He kept silent a long time **before answering.**
When tired, he has his supper in his room.

3) **adverbial modifiers of frequency,**

e.g. He **seldom** spoke with such frankness.
She has music lessons **twice a week.**

4) **adverbial modifiers of degree,**

e.g. He came back home **pretty** late last night.
The night was very still.
He knows his subject **perfectly.**

5) adverbial modifiers of manner,

e.g. She was crying **bitterly.**
He came here **by taxi.**
He opened the door **with difficulty.**
They walked very **fast.**
The bus passed us **without stopping.**

6) adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances,

e.g. **It** is very romantic to take a walk **by moonlight.**
I don't feel like going out **in this weather.**
She looked up at him, **her** face **smiling happily.**
He lived all by himself in an old house on the river, **with all his family gone and forgotten.**
I looked round the room, **the** sense **of being watched acute again.**

7) adverbial modifiers of description,

e.g. Fay's eyes continually moved in his Father's direction, **as though seeking his approval.**
The shop was freshly painted, **with a large green awning to protect the window.**
He stood there very quietly, **his hand outstretched.**

8) adverbial modifiers of purpose,

e.g. **I** did my best **to prevent** her from making a mistake.

9) adverbial modifiers of cause,

e.g. Our flight was delayed **owing to the storm.**

10) adverbial modifiers of comparison,

e.g. She sat **still like a statue.**
He was as ugly **as a monkey.**
I've got a more difficult problem to solve than **find** a new house.

11) adverbial modifiers of consequence,

e.g. He had to read only the first ten pages **to know** what the book was about.
He was clever enough **to understand** it.
I was too tired **to go** for a walk.

12) **adverbial modifiers of concession,**

e.g. When he returned his wife was still at the table, **though preparing to go.**
Whatever the reason, she should have come.
Though tired, he agreed to show us the garden.

13) adverbial modifiers of condition,

e.g. He said he would do it **if necessary.**
But for the rain, I'd have gone off an hour ago.
To look at her, you wouldn't believe she was a famous actress.

14) adverbial modifiers of exception,

e.g. He had no choice but **to obey** the **orders.**

IX. The Attribute

Words in this function modify nouns (and sometimes pronouns) giving them some kind of characteristic.

Attributes may be expressed by an adjective, a pronoun, a noun in the genitive or common case, a noun with a preposition, an infinitive, an ing-form, a participle and, occasionally, an adverb.

Depending on the closeness of the syntactic ties between the attribute and its noun, we distinguish **close** and **loose attributes.** Close attributes form a tight sense unit with their nouns. Loose attributes are less tightly connected with their nouns. Adding more information to or explaining what is being said in the sentence, they are regarded as a more independent member of the sentence and, hence, often separated by a comma from the rest of the sentence.

1) Close attributes,

e.g. A large cat jumped down the **window** seat.
They gave **each** child a **big** apple.
I'd like **another** cup of tea.
I borrowed **two** pounds from **Jane's** brother.
I saw by **their** faces that they had learned something **new.**
It was an act **of despair** on her part.
She admired his way **of doing** things.
He is not a man **to** rely **on.**
The clouds were lit by the **setting sun.**
She saw the **lighted** windows **of the cottage.**
It was a pleasure **to listen** to **him.**
It was no use **talking** to her.
The then headmaster introduced the rule.

2) **Loose attributes,**

e.g. Happy and carefree, the children ran down the **hill.**
You behave like a schoolboy **afraid of** his teacher.
Painted green, the house was almost invisible on the forest-covered hill.
Craig took the baby out of the pram and lifted it high in the air. The baby, **trying** to tug at his moustache, crowed gleefully.

X. The Apposition

Words in this function modify nouns, explaining and specifying their meaning by giving them another name.
Appositions are usually expressed by nouns.

e.g. Ann, **the daughter** of the landlady, was always ready to baby-sit for us.
I asked Miss Grey, **a neighbour and an old friend of mine,** to dinner.
The Glory, **a British steamship,** was to arrive on Monday morning.

XI. Independent Elements of the Sentence

Independent elements of the sentence are not directly connected with any part of the sentence — they express the speaker's attitude to or comment on what is being said in the sentence as a whole. In this function we usually find parenthetic expressions, viewpoint, attitudinal and formulaic adverbs.

e.g. **To tell the truth, I** didn't like her at first.
It isn't quite correct, **strictly speaking.**
She **will probably** tell you about it herself.
It was a rainy day but **fortunately** it was not cold.

Historically, the king's death was a minor event, but it became widely known owing to its tragic circumstances.
Will you **kindly** keep me informed?

Syntactic Complexes

The subject-predicate relationship may be found in an English sentence not only between the grammatical subject and the finite predicate but also in some phrases consisting of at least two elements — a subject and a predicative. Such phrases, usually known as syntactic **complexes,** differ from the real subject and the predicate of the sentence in that they lack a finite verb and therefore what is expressed in them cannot be directly related to reality. It is done indirectly — by means of the phrase being syntactically connected with the predicate proper.

Syntactic complexes may be of the following kinds:

I. **The Complex** Object — a syntactic construction which is lexically dependent and found after a limited number of verbs in the Active Voice (see "Verbs", §§ 193, 222, 249; "Nouns", §21; "Adjectives", § 7). The complex object consists of a noun in the common case or an indefinite pronoun or a personal pronoun in the objective case serving as an object in the sentence, and a predicative which may be expressed by a noun, an adjective, an adverb, an infinitive with or without the particle *to,* an *ing-form* and a participle.

e.g. His humour made *him* **a** welcome **guest.**
When they came they found *the house* empty.
I don't want *any light* **on.**
Why don't you get *somebody* **to explain** it to you?
I watched *her* **move** away from us.
I felt *him* looking at me now and again.
I had never before seen *the game* **played.**

II. The Complex Subject — a syntactic construction which is lexically dependent and found with a limited number of verbs in the Passive Voice (see "Verbs", §§ **192,** 221, 248; "Nouns", § **21;** "Adjectives", § 7). The complex subject consists of a noun in the common case, an indefinite pronoun or a personal pronoun in the nominative case serving as the subject of the sentence, and a (subjective) predicative which may be expressed by a noun, an adjective, an adverb, an infinitive, an ing-form and a participle.

e.g. **Bob Skinner** was made *the leader* of the team.
The door was painted *green.*
Everybody was found *in.*
They were expected *to agree.*
The children were left *playing* on the floor.
The car was last seen *parked* at the hotel.

III. The Prepositional Infinitive Phrase — a syntactic construction which consists of a noun in the common case, an indefinite pronoun or a personal pronoun in the objective case, and a predicative expressed by an infinitive. The whole of the phrase is joined to the rest of the sentence by a preposition. Usually it is the preposition *for,* but sometimes the choice of the preposition is determined by the verb the phrase depends on. (See also "Verbs", § 166.)

e.g. He held out the papers **for me to** see.
He was looking **for someone to help** him.
Her whole life had been spent listening to **other people talk.**
They appealed **to him to** give **up** the idea.
I arranged **with the woman** downstairs **to keep** the place clean.
You can rely **on Father to forget** nothing.

Prepositional infinitive phrases may perform different functions in the sentence.

e.g. **For him to swear** was such a rarity that David was not only shocked but thoroughly startled, *(subject)*
All he wanted was **for me to get out** of his sight, *(predicative)*
We were waiting **for the train to arrive,** *(prepositional object)*
The boy stood aside **for** us **to** go by. *(adverbial modifier of purpose)*
I was too young **for them to tell** me the truth, *(adverbial modifier of consequence)*
It was an easy plan **for Roger to fulfil,** *(attribute)*

IV. The ing-Complex — a syntactic construction which consists of a possessive pronoun or a personal pronoun in the objective case

or a noun in the common or genitive case, and a predicative expressed by an *ing-form.* (See also "Verb", § 166.)

The ing-complex may perform different functions in the sentence.

e.g. At first she hadn't been sure that his coming here had been a good thing, *(subject)*

The only thing I am afraid of is the family being too sure of themselves, *(predicative)*

That's a risk I just can't think of your taking, *(prepositional object)*

He could not approve of Guy's hiding himself away, *(prepositional object)*

Not a day had passed without that young man coming to at least one meal, *(adverbial modifier of attending circumstances)*

Of course you understand that after John breaking his appointment I'm never going to speak to him again, *(adverbial modifier of time)*

I ought to have realized the possibility of such a thing happening, *(attribute)*

V. The Absolute Construction — a syntactic construction which also consists of at least two elements — a subject and a predicative, but differs from the other syntactic complexes in that its grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence is much looser. It is often marked off by a comma. Absolute constructions function as adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances and description and may be joined to the sentence either asyndetically or with the help of the preposition *with* or *without.*

The first element of the absolute construction is usually a noun or a pronoun; the second element may be expressed by an infinitive, an *ing-iorm,* a participle, a noun with or without a preposition, an adjective or an adverb.

e.g. With nothing to do, the actors stood about and made small talk.

She ran up the stairs, her heart thumping painfully.

I wouldn't dare go home without the job finished.

He sat motionless, his hands over his eyes.

I can't sleep with the radio on.

The Structure of the Composite Sentence

A composite sentence consists of two or more simple sentences joined together. The component parts of a composite sentence are called clauses. The relationship between the clauses may be that of coordination and subordination.

In the case of coordination we have a compound sentence whose clauses are independent of each other syntactically. They may be joined by some coordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and, but, or, yet, for,* etc.) or asyndetically.

e.g. He was very busy now and they saw few of their friends.

I haven't got much news to convey but there are some things to add.

I began to miss London, yet I was not coming back.

You can boil yourself an egg, or I'll make you a cheese sandwich.

He asked for food — there was none. My parents are quite young, they live their own life.

In the case of subordination, one of the syntactic functions within a simple sentence is expressed by a clause thereby forming a complex sentence.

Cf. I know the girl's name, *(object)*

I know what the girl's name is. *(object clause)*

She learned to play tennis at school, *(adverbial modifier of time)*

She learned to play tennis when she went to school, *(adverbial clause of time)*

The basic structure is called the principal clause; the clause performing some syntactic function within the principal clause is termed a subordinate clause.

Structurally and semantically, subordinate clauses are subordinated to principal clauses and may be joined to them by means of conjunctions, conjunctive words, asyndetically and sometimes by means of the sequence of tenses.

Conjunctions (a) differ from conjunctive words (b) in that the former are not members of either the principal or subordinate clause while the latter perform some function within the subordinate clause.

e.g. a) I know **(that) he is** right.
I was out **when** he came.
She had only a cup of tea **because** she was not hungry.
b) He knew **who** had brought the letter.
They knew **when I** would come.
He showed me the watch **that** he was given as a birthday present.

Subordinate clauses may perform various functions within the principal clause. In comparison with the corresponding members of the simple sentence they can be said to be more expressive since they have a finite form in their structure.

For practical purposes of learning English, it is necessary and sufficient to distinguish the following kinds of subordinate clauses:

1) subject clauses which perform the function of subject and may be introduced by the conjunctions *that, if, whether* and such conjunctive words as *who, what, which, when, why, how* and others.

e.g. **That you may meet him at the party** is quite possible.
What I need now is someone to do the job.

2) predicative clauses which perform the function of predicative and may be introduced by the same conjunctions and conjunctive words as subject clauses (see above).

e.g. His only desire was **that his family shouldn't interfere with his plans.**
The question was **why no one had heard the shot.**

3) object clauses which modify verbs and adjectives as objects to them and may be introduced by the same conjunctions and conjunctive words as subject clauses (see above).

e.g. I thought **(that) they were joking.**
We were sorry **(that) we had missed Father by a few minutes.**
It was announced over the radio **that the flight was delayed.**
It was urgent **that we should take a decision.**
It is very lucky **that you're calling me now.**
I wish **you hadn't asked me that.**
He found it important **that they should start on the job right away.**
They took it for granted **that his theory was correct.**
Nobody knew **what she meant.**
He could not understand **why they insisted on such a decision.**
Time will show **if (whether) he is right.**
It was not clear **what had happened** and **who was injured.**

4) adverbial clauses which function as adverbial modifiers to verbs and adjectives within the principal clause and may be of the following kinds:

a) **adverbial clauses of time** which are introduced by the conjunctions *when, while, as, until, till, before, after, since, as soon as, as long as* and some others,

e.g. **When they reached the village,** Jane got out of the taxi and looked about her.
I won't leave **until you come.**

b) adverbial clauses of place and direction which are introduced by the conjunction *where,*

e.g. They stopped **where the road turned to the river.**

c) adverbial clauses **of** cause which are introduced by the conjunctions *because, as, since* and some others,

e.g. He was glad to talk to **her because it set her at ease.**

d) adverbial clauses of purpose which are introduced by the conjunctions *so that, that, in order that, lest,*

e.g. He spoke loudly and clearly **so that all could hear him.**

e) adverbial clauses of condition which are introduced by the conjunctions *if, in case, unless* and some others,

e.g. **If we start off now,** we'll arrive there by dinner time.

f) **adverbial clauses of concession** which are introduced by the conjunctions *though, although, even if, even though* and *wh-pro*-nouns, ending in *-ever,*

e.g. **Although it was very late,** she kept the dinner warm on the stove.
Even **if the fault** is **all his, I** must find a way to help him.
Whatever happens, she won't have it her own way.

g) **adverbial clauses of consequence** which are introduced by the conjunctions *that, so ... that, such ... that,*

e.g. He was **so** embarrassed **that he could hardly understand her.**

h) adverbial clauses of comparison which are introduced by the conjunctions *than, as, as...as, not so (as)...as, as if* and as *though.*

e.g. He now took better care of his old father **than he had ever done it before.**
Her lips moved soundlessly, **as if she were rehearsing.**

5) attributive clauses which modify nouns within the principal clause and are introduced by the conjunctive (relative) words *that, who(m), which, whose, as, when, where* and some others as well as asyndetically (see also "Nouns' § 15),

e.g. I know a man **who can help us.**
We caught a breeze **that took us gently up the river.**
All the presents **(that) he had given her** were in their usual places.
Where is the letter **(which) I gave you to read?**

6) appositive clauses which modify nouns within the principal clause and are introduced by the conjunction *that.* In form they look like attributive clauses but in content they are similar to object clauses because they explain and specify the meaning of the noun they refer to. It should be borne in mind that only a limited number of abstract nouns can be modified by appositive clauses (for the lists of such nouns see "Verbs", §§ 137-138, 204, 230),

e.g. I had the impression **that she was badly ill.**
We turned down his suggestion **that we should take a boarder.**
The thought **that she was unhappy** kept him awake all night.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
abide	abode, abided	abided
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awakened	awoken
be	was, were	been
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten, beat
become	became	become
befall	befell	befallen
beget	begot	begotten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereaved, bereft	bereaved, bereft
beseech	besought, beseeched	besought, beseeched
beset	beset	beset
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bid	bade, bid	bidden,bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blended, blent	blended, blent
bless	blessed, blest	blessed, blest
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
build	built	built
burn	burnt, burned	burnt, burned
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
cleave	cleaved, clove, cleft	cleaved, cloven, cleft
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forbid	forbade, forbad	forbidden
forecast	forecast	forecast
forego	forewent	foregone
foresee	foresaw	foreseen
foretell	foretold	foretold
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
learn	learnt, learned	learnt, learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
He	lay	lain
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mislay	mislaid	mislaid
mislead	misled	misled
mistake	mistook	mistaken
misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood
mow	mowed	mown, mowed
outdo	outdid	outdone
outgrow	outgrew	outgrown
overbear	overbore	overborne
overcast	overcast	overcast
overcome	overcame	overcome
overdo	overdid	overdone

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
overhear	overheard	overheard
overtake	overtook	overtaken
overthrow	overthrew	overthrown
partake	partook	partaken
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
read	read	read
rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt
recast	recast	recast
relay	relaid	relaid
rend	rent	rent
retell	retold	retold
rid	rid, ridded	rid, ridded
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared	shorn,sheared
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone, shined	shone, shined
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank,sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slam
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	**slit**
smell	smelt, smellcd	smelt, smelled
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped, speeded	sped,speeded
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled
spin	spun,span	spun
spit	spat, spit	spat, spit
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt, spoiled	spoilt, spoiled
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	staved,stove	staved, stove
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove, strived	striven, strived
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	thrived, throve	thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden, trod
undergo	underwent	undergone

Infinitive	*Past Indefinite*	*Participle*
understand	understood	understood
undertake	undertook	undertaken
undo	undid	undone
upset	upset	upset
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	wedded, wed	wedded, wed
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
withhold	withheld	withheld
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written