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ВЫСШЕЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЕ

A NEW UNIVERSITY ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Edited by A. V. Zelenshikov, E. S. Petrova

ГРАММАТИКА СОВРЕМЕННОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Под редакцией А. В. Зеленицкова, Е. С. Петровой

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учебных заведений*

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В данной книге, являющейся учебником нового типа, представлен университетский курс грамматики английского языка. Вопросы практического узуса (Textbook) рассматриваются с позиций современной лингвистики. Отмечаются многие явления морфологии и синтаксиса, до сих пор не получившие адекватного описания, а также различия между британским и американским вариантами английского языка. Упражнения (Exercises) ориентированы на современное состояние английского языка и составлены в соответствии с требованиями отечественной и зарубежной методики преподавания и тестирования языковых знаний.

Для лиц, профессионально занимающихся английским языком: студентов-филологов, аспирантов, преподавателей.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Настоящий учебник предназначен для студентов I-III курсов филологических факультетов университетов и содержит сведения по всем основным разделам грамматики английского языка. Учебник рассчитан на тех, кто уже обладает определенными навыками работы с языком и стремится усовершенствовать свои знания в области английской грамматики.

Цель учебника – дать возможность студентам практически овладеть сложными грамматическими структурами английского языка на основе современных базовых теоретических положений, принятых в учебнике.

Основным отличием данного учебника от большинства имеющихся учебников и пособий по грамматике является его ориентированность на системное изложение грамматического материала, учитывающее как единство содержания, формы и функции рассматриваемых языковых единиц, так и многочисленные особенности их реального использования в речи.

Стремлением связать практический курс грамматики с современной лингвистической теорией объясняется нетрадиционное описание таких частей речи, как прилагательное, наречие, числительное, местоимение и модальные глаголы, тщательное и более подробное, чем обычно, описание существительных и артиклей. Так как употребление языковых единиц тесно связано с тем или иным регистром речевого общения, авторы сочли необходимым указывать наиболее ясные случаи принадлежности языковых единиц к определенному коммуникативному стилю.

Так, например, рассматриваются многочисленные грамматические, pragmaticкие и, что особенно важно, социолингвистические аспекты функционирования местоимений, сопоставляются особенности использования числительных в английском и русском языках, во многих случаях подчеркивается различие между британским и американским вариантами английского языка. Прилагательные и наречия получают, с точки зрения авторов, более адекватное грамматическое описание, основанное на семантико-сintаксических характеристиках этих частей речи. При описании системы модальных глаголов в английском языке авторы опираются на такие понятия, как «внутренняя» и «внешняя» модальность и на особенности употребления глаголов в «дескриптивных» и «креативных» контекстах. Авторы отдают дань традиции, включая (правда, с оговоркой) сочетания некоторых модальных глаголов с инфинитивом в состав сослагательного наклонения.

Отдельные главы отводятся общему описанию глагола и его категорий: видовременной системы, залога и наклонения. Глаголы классифицируются как по семантическим, так и по сintаксическим основаниям, причем особое внимание уделяется специфике глагольного управления в английском языке. Неличные формы глагола и их употребление, всегда вызывающее понятное затруднение у студентов, также занимают в учебнике отдельную

главу. Из служебных частей речи отдельно рассматриваются только предлоги; союзы включены в описание сложного предложения, а частицы — в раздел, посвященный наречиям.

Особое внимание уделяется структуре английского предложения: рассматриваются способы построения различных коммуникативных типов простого предложения, формы отрицания, описываются типы и способы выражения главных и второстепенных членов предложения; уточняются критерии выделения различных типов сложносочиненного и сложноподчиненного предложений, подробно описываются особенности их организации и употребления.

Вместе с тем, там, где это было возможно, авторы воздерживались от привлечения широких теоретических обоснований и надеются, что необходимые лингвистические сведения студенты получают из лекций по теоретической грамматике английского языка.

Принимая во внимание, что учебник предназначен для использования, в основном, в русскоязычной среде, авторы сочли необходимым во многих случаях использовать русские соответствия для объяснения грамматических явлений английского языка. Изложение материала иллюстрируется многочисленными примерами, взятыми преимущественно из оригинальных источников и демонстрирующими особенности употребления тех или иных языковых единиц в современной английской речи.

Общая практическая направленность учебника позволила включить в его содержание отдельную часть, в которой приводятся упражнения по всем описанным в учебнике разделам английской грамматики.

Авторы выражают благодарность рецензентам доктору филологических наук Т. П. Третьяковой и кандидату филологических наук О. Е. Филимоновой за ценные советы и замечания, многие из которых были учтены при окончательной подготовке рукописи к печати. Ответственные редакторы учебника благодарны одному из авторов — Е. Г. Хомяковой — за общую идею создания подобного учебника и помочь в координации творческих усилий всего авторского коллектива. Особая благодарность — нашему английскому коллеге, Питеру Джоунзу, взявшему на себя труд прочитать учебник и отметить те положения, которые нуждались в более простой и ясной формулировке.

Авторы будут признательны всем, кто выскажет свои критические замечания по поводу содержания и практической полезности данного учебника.

Textbook

Morphology
Syntax

Part I

MORPHOLOGY

1. NOUNS

In the prevailing Modern English terminology the terms "noun" and substantive are used as synonyms. According to an earlier view, however, the term noun was understood to cover all nominal parts of speech, including substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, thus corresponding to the Russian term *имя*.

Later, classical grammar tended to include nouns in the limited sense of the word, noun-pronouns, such as *I, they*, noun-numerals, such as *three* in *three of us*, and gerunds, under the common designation noun-words as opposed to adjective-words and verbs.

1.1. DEFINITION

As any part of speech, the noun, or substantive, is established on the basis of semantic (notional), morphological, and syntactic criteria. Thus, nouns have been notionally defined as names of things, persons and places. This semantic definition is clearly inadequate because it excludes, for example, a number of words which denote abstract ideas but behave grammatically and morphologically in the same way as names of things: *occupation, friendship, movement, existence*, etc. In more general terms, the noun may be taken to be a name of something that is viewed as substance or an object.

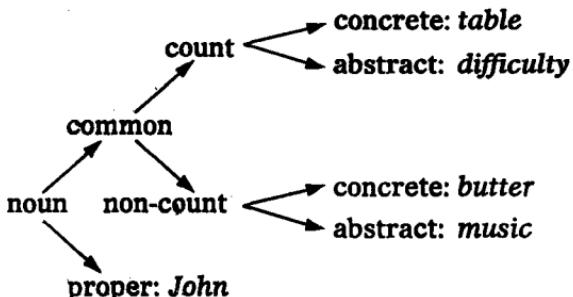
The morphological characteristics of nouns include two categories: the category of number (singular and plural) though some nouns may lack either the singular or the plural form; and the category of case (common and genitive). The grammatical category of gender is now considered extinct for it is hardly ever expressed by grammatical means.

The syntactic properties of nouns can be subdivided into two types: their methods of combining with other words, and their functions in the sentence. Nouns combine with other words to produce noun phrases.

As head of a noun phrase, a noun combines with determiners (*the boy; these few books*), a preceding adjective (*large room*), or occasionally with a following adjective (*time immemorial*), with a preceding noun in either the common case (*iron bar*) or in the genitive case (*father's room*). Occasionally a noun may combine with a following or preceding adverb (*the man there; the then president*). It may also combine with prepositions (*in a house*) and it may be postmodified by a prepositional phrase (*the roof of a house*) or a relative clause (*the man I met yesterday*). In a sentence a noun (noun phrase) may function as subject, object, predicative, attribute or adverbial modifier; it is also used as vocative (direct address).

1.2. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

There exist various classifications of nouns based on different principles. For practical reasons the author follows the classification of S. Greenbaum, R. Quirk (*A Student's Grammar of the English Language*. London, 1990).



Semantically, all nouns fall under two main groups: proper nouns and common nouns; both proper and common nouns may refer to something animate or inanimate.

1. A proper noun is the name of someone or something that is usually thought of as unique: *Peter, London, England*.

2. A common noun is a name given either to an example or a class of things or notions: *table, flower, air, water, idea*.

The distinction into count nouns and non-count (mass) is fundamental in English. Nouns typically used as count include the class names of:

persons, animals, plants, etc.: *friend, cat, bird, rose;*
concrete objects having shape: *ball, car, hat, house;*

units of measurement, society, language, etc.: *metre, hour, dollar*; the individual parts of a whole: *part, element, atom, piece, drop*; abstractions thought of as separate wholes: *family, word, idea, scheme*.

Nouns normally used as non-count include the names of:

solid substances and materials: *earth, bread, rice, cotton, nylon*; liquids, gases, etc.: *water, oil, tea, air, oxygen, steam, smoke*; many abstractions: *equality, honesty, ignorance, peace, safety*.

Cutting across the grammatical count/non-count distinction there is a semantic division into concrete (material) and abstract (immaterial) nouns, though concrete nouns are mainly count and abstract mainly non-count.

1.3. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN

According to their morphological structure nouns fall into three groups: simple nouns, derivative nouns and compound nouns.

1. Simple nouns consist of only the root which very often coincides with the word; the usual or most favoured phonetic shape is one single stressed syllable: *bus, bear, land, glass, wife*, etc. Simple nouns are undecomposable, having neither suffixes nor prefixes.

2. Derivative nouns have affixes (prefixes or suffixes or both): *worker, kindness, brotherhood, misdemeanour, ingratitude*, etc.

Some word-building suffixes are unambiguous, i.e. a word containing one of them is sure to belong to the class of nouns; among them is the suffix *-ity* in *scarcity, necessity, peculiarity, monstrosity*, etc. Other suffixes are ambiguous: the morpheme is not in itself sufficient to point to a particular part of speech but leaves some room for a choice which has to be made by other criteria. Thus, the suffix *-ment* leaves open the choice between noun and verb (*instrument — to instrument, implement — to implement*), while the suffix *-ful* can form a noun (*handful, spoonful, mouthful*) or an adjective (*useful, beautiful, careful*).

Productive noun-forming suffixes are:

- er: *worker, writer, builder, joiner*;
- ness: *tenderness, redness, madness*;
- ist: *novelist, dramatist, columnist*;
- ism: *heroism, capitalism, nationalism*;
- ess: *actress, waitress, hostess*.

Unproductive suffixes are:

- hood: *childhood, manhood;*
- ance: *importance, arrogance;*
- dom: *kingdom, freedom;*
- ence: *reference, dependence;*
- ship: *friendship, relationship;*

There exists a correspondence between the lexico-grammatical meaning of suffixes and certain subclasses of nouns. Some suffixes mark abstract nouns: -age, -ance/-ence, -ancy/-ency, -dom, -hood, -ation, -ment, -ness, etc. while others distinguish personal nouns: -an, -arian, -er, -or, -ician, -ist, etc. Feminine suffixes may be classed as a subgroup of personal noun suffixes; these are few and non-frequent: -ess (*duchess*), -ine (*heroine*), -ette (*coquette*).

3. Compound nouns are the words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. They usually have one main stress; the meaning of a compound is very often idiomatic in character, so that the meaning of the whole is not a mere sum of its elements. The main types of compound nouns are:

- a) nouns with a stem modified by another noun stem; this is a most productive type (*sunbeam, snowball, film-star*);
- b) nouns consisting of a verb stem and a noun stem; verbals often occur as the first element (*searchlight, reading-hall, dining-room*);
- c) nouns consisting of an adjective stem and a noun stem (*blackboard, blackmail, bluestocking*);
- d) a very large and productive group of nouns derived from verbs with postpositives, or more rarely, with adverbs (*blackout, breakdown, make-up, set-back*).

There are no clear rules to tell when the compound noun is written as a single word, with a hyphen or as two (or more) words. Most grammar books state that a good modern dictionary is the only reliable guide.

1.4. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN

The syntactic functions of the noun are determined by its categorial meaning.

1. Most common syntactic function of nouns is that of the subject of the sentence, since the referent of the subject is the person or thing immediately named:

*The bungalow was very silent.
The rain had ceased and the night was starry.
Mary shook her head.
There was not a cloud in the sky.*

2. The function of the object is also typical of the noun as the substance word:

*He read the letter slowly and carefully.
I have to show Dr. Fench his room.
She turned and looked at Guy.*

3. Other syntactic functions, i. e. predicative, attribute, adverbial modifier and vocative, although performed by the noun with equal ease, are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality as such. It should be noted that, while performing these non-substantive functions, the noun differs from the other parts of speech used in similar sentence positions.

As **predicatives**, nouns are preceded by link verbs:

*He is a doctor.
She turned out a perfect hostess.*

As **attributes**, they are followed by other nouns or preceded by a preposition:

*He was a country doctor.
She wore a large straw hat.
The tune was coming from behind the closed doors of Mr. Curry's bedroom.
Will you give me a sheet of paper?
The letter from her sister reassured her.*

In **noun + noun** structures, the first noun-attribute is normally singular in form even if it has a plural meaning: *a shoe shop* (a shop that sells shoes), *a horse race* (a race for horses), *a trouser pocket* (a pocket in a pair of trousers). In most **noun + noun** structures, the main stress is on the first syllable: *'mineral water*, *a 'history book*. However, there are many exceptions: *a garden 'chair*, *a fruit 'pie*, etc. Some nouns, however, have the plural -s even when they are used attributively to modify other nouns: *a clothes shop*, *a customs officer*, *a savings department*. In general, the use of plural modifiers is becoming more common in British English. American English often has singular forms where British has plurals:

British English
a greetings card
a drinks cabinet
the arrivals hall

American English
a greeting card
a drink cabinet
the arrival hall

With toponyms, there is a tendency to use proper nouns, not adjectives, attributively: *Paris girls, California wines*.

The noun is also used as an **appositive**, which is a special kind of attribute used to characterize* or explain the word modified by giving the person or thing another name. The appositive can be close: *Uncle Roger, Aunt Molly, Doctor Crocus, Professor Brown*, or loose: *This is Anthony Brewster, an Englishman*.

As **adverbial modifiers**, nouns are chiefly parts of prepositional phrases:

She sat quietly at the table, a little dazed.

After dinner we had coffee in the library.

The noun is also the regular form of direct address, or **vocative**; this is an independent element of the sentence structure used to get someone's attention:

Andrew, where are you?

How do you do, Miss Wigg.

Common nouns in address take no article:

Good night, mother.

Operator, could you put through a call to New York, please?

1.5. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE NOUN

The Modern English noun has two grammatical categories — **number** and **case**; it does not have the category of grammatical gender.

1.5.1. The Category of Number

The English number system comprises **singular**, which denotes one thing, person, idea, etc., and **plural**, which denotes more than one thing, person, idea, etc. Semantically, as some linguists point out, the question of enumeration does not seem to be a very important one. More important is, perhaps, the need to distinguish between **individual** (or **discrete**) and **mass** (or **non-discrete**) objects. This is a distinction that English makes quite clearly by means of the category of countability, with the noun classes of **countables** and **uncountables**, or **count** and **mass**.

* In British English, the sound [aɪz] at the end of many verbs may be spelt -ise or -ize: *realise/realize, emphasise/emphasize, characterise/characterize*. In American English -ize is the preferred spelling.

Count nouns denote objects that can be counted, while non-count nouns are names of objects that cannot be counted. Count nouns like *bottle*, *chair*, *man*, *word*, *remark* refer to individual countable entities that cannot be viewed as an undifferentiated, indivisible mass. Non-count nouns like *grass*, *warmth*, *humour* denote, by contrast, an undifferentiated mass or continuum. Formally, the two classes are clearly distinguished. Count nouns may occur in the singular with the indefinite article or *one* and may have a separate plural form which may be preceded by *How many* or by a numeral higher than *one*: *How many pets have you got? — Two cats, three dogs and a guinea-pig.* Mass nouns may occur with no article or with the indefinite quantifier *some*. They cannot be preceded by *one*, they cannot have a separate plural form, but they can be preceded by *How much*: *How much petrol does this car use?*

The semantic difference between the two classes is clear enough too. Count nouns “individuate”, i. e. they indicate individual specimens; mass nouns refer to a quantity that is not individuated in this way¹.

Some nouns, e. g. *cake*, *fish*, *stone* belong to both classes, combining the characteristics of count and non-count nouns. Thus, *stone* can be viewed as the non-count material constituting the entity — a stone — which can be picked up from a pile of stones and individually thrown.

Nouns with dual class membership often manifest considerable difference in meaning; this corresponds broadly to concreteness or particularization in the count usage and abstractness or generalization in the non-count usage.

Count	Non-count
<i>Do me a favour. Never mention his name.</i>	<i>He would do anything to find favour in your eyes.</i>
<i>It was an unpleasant experience, so he didn't feel like speaking of it.</i>	<i>She has had a good deal of experience in this kind of work.</i>
<i>She was a beauty in her youth.</i>	<i>She had beauty in her youth.</i>
<i>Will you give me a light, please?</i>	<i>All plants need light.</i>

Names of substances can also function as count nouns, singular and plural, when they refer to a kind of substance or a part of a whole, as in *Buy me a coffee* (i. e. a cup of coffee), *Buy me a beer* (i. e. a glass of beer). Expressions like *two coffees*, *two butters* are considered to be informal.

Almost all mass nouns can be made into count nouns if a unit of measurement is implied (*three beers, please*) or we're talking about sorts or types.

¹ The noun *weather*, normally non-count, takes a plural form in *go out in all weathers*. *Money*, normally mass, takes a plural form *moneys* in legal language, with the meaning “sums of money”.

Similarly, count nouns that refer to animals may function as mass nouns to indicate the meat; we find not merely familiar usages such as *chicken*, *rabbit*, *fish* but can also freely form mass nouns *elephant*, *crocodile*, etc. to refer to the meat. In many cases this type of distinction between count and mass is achieved by separate lexical items: (a) *sheep* — (some) *mutton*, (a) *calf* — (some) *veal*, (a) *pig* — (some) *pork*. A word normally used as a count noun, i. e. *onion* can be used as a mass noun when it refers to the substance which the thing is composed of, as in *This soup tastes of onion*.

There are corresponding count nouns for some non-count nouns:

Non-count	Count
<i>bread</i>	<i>a loaf</i>
<i>clothing</i>	<i>a garment</i>
<i>laughter</i>	<i>a laugh</i>
<i>luggage</i>	<i>a suitcase, a trunk</i>
<i>money</i>	<i>a coin, a note</i>
<i>permission</i>	<i>a permit</i>
<i>poetry</i>	<i>a poem</i>
<i>work</i>	<i>a job</i>

1.5.1.1. Variable Nouns

Regular Plural

English count nouns have two forms, singular and plural. The vast majority of nouns occur with either singular or plural number, and normally have a plural form which is built up by means of the inflection, or ending, -s: *room* — *rooms*, *motel* — *motels*, *jeep* — *jeeps*, or -es: *ax* — *axes*, *bench* — *benches*. This is the regular plural.

In pronunciation, the voiceless [s] is added to any base (singular form) ending in any voiceless sound except a sibilant: *desks* [desks], *cats* [kæts], *jeeps* [dʒɜ:pɪs].

The voiced [z] is added to any base ending in any voiced sound except a sibilant: *boys* [bɔɪz], *friends* [frendz], *dogs* [dɒgz].

The syllable [ɪz] is added to any base ending in a sibilant: *buses* [bʌsɪz], *matches* [mætʃɪz], *judges* [dʒʌdʒɪz], *bushes* [buʃɪz].

Singular nouns ending in the voiceless fricative -th have a regular plural form if there is a consonant before the -th: *length* — *lengths* [lenθs], *birth* — *births* [bə:θs]. If a vowel precedes the -th, the plural is often regular too, as in *cloth* — *cloths* [klɔθs], *death* — *deaths* [deθs], *faith* — *faiths* [feiθs]; however, in a few cases a voiced fricative [ð] in the plural is followed by [z]: *mouth* — *mouths* [mauðz], *path* — *paths* [pa:ðz]. In several cases there are both [s] and [z] plurals: *bath*, *oath*, *sheath*, *truth*, *wreath*, *youth*, e. g. *truth* — *truths*

[tru:θs] or [tru:ðz]. The voiceless [s] in *house* becomes [z] in the plural: *houses* [haʊzɪz].

Some plural forms create significant spelling difficulties.

1. When a noun ends in the letter -y preceded by a consonant letter, -y is changed into -i and -es is added: *country* — *countries*, *fly* — *flies*, *enemy* — *enemies*, *cry* — *cries*. Proper names retain -y in the plural form: *Mary* — *Marys*, *Kennedy* — *the Kennedys*.

If the final -y is preceded by a vowel it remains unchanged and only -s is added: *day* — *days*, *key* — *keys*.

2. When a noun ends in -s, -ss, -ch and -x, the inflection -es is added: *bus* — *buses*, *class* — *classes*, *bush* — *bushes*, *bench* — *benches*, *watch* — *watches*, *box* — *boxes*.

3. -es is also added to nouns ending in -o preceded by a consonant: *echo* — *echoes*, *potato* — *potatoes*, *hero* — *heroes*, *Negro* — *Negroes*, *tomato* — *tomatoes*, *torpedo* — *torpedoes*, *veto* — *vetoes*.

Piano, *photo*, *solo*, *kilo* have plurals in -s: *pianos*, *photos*, *solos*, *kilos*.

With some nouns plurals ending in -os and -oes are equally possible: *cargo* — *cargos/cargoes*. It also applies to *archipelago*, *banjo*, *buffalo*, *commando*, *tornado*, *volcano*.

When the final -o is preceded by a vowel, only -s is added: *cuckoo* — *cuckoos*, *radio* — *radios*.

4. The following nouns ending in the voiceless fricative [f] have voiced plurals spelt -ves: *calf*, *elf*, *half*, *knife*, *life*, *loaf*, *self*, *sheaf*, *shelf*, *thief*, *wife*, *wolf*, e. g. *half* — *halves* [ha:vz].

Voiceless plurals are found with: *belief*, *chief*, *proof*, *roof*, *safe*, e. g. *chief* — *chiefs* [tʃi:fs].

Both voiced and voiceless plurals are possible with: *dwarf*, *handkerchief*, *hoof*, *scarf*, *wharf*, e. g. *hoof* — *hooves*, *hoofs*.

Irregular Plural

A number of nouns form their plural by means of vowel mutation: *foot* — *feet*, *goose* — *geese*, *tooth* — *teeth*, *man* — *men*, *woman* — *women*, *louse* — *lice*, *mouse* — *mice*.

The plural ending -men occurs in words like: *fireman* — *firemen*, *gentleman* — *gentlemen*, *Englishman* — *Englishmen*. These do not form pairs in pronunciation distinguishing between singular and plural, while with *woman* — *women* the pronunciation differs in both syllables: ['wumən] — ['wimɪn].

The plural is regular in: *Germans*, *Romans*, etc. and personal names like *the Bowmans*, *the Freemans*.

The -en plural occurs in three nouns: *ox* — *oxen*, *child* — *children* (with vowel change [tʃaɪld] — [tʃɪldrən]), *brother* — *brethren* (not blood relations but fellow members of a religious society).

The noun *penny* has two plural forms: *pennies* when referring to individual coins and *pence*² which survives only to indicate a total amount as in *The fare is now tenpence*. *Tenpence* may refer to one silver coin or to ten individual pennies, i. e. coins worth a penny each.

Zero Plural

Some nouns have identical forms for both singular and plural. Thus, there is no separate plural form for nouns denoting certain animals, birds and fish: *deer*, *grouse*, *mackerel*, *plaice*, *salmon*, *sheep*, *trout*. Thus, it is possible to say *That is a deer*, *a sheep*, etc. or *These are deer*, *sheep*, etc.:

This sheep looks small.

All these sheep are mine.

Both regular and zero plural is used with *antelope*, *reindeer*, *fish*, *flounder*, *herring*. The zero plural is more common in contexts of hunting (*We caught only a few fish*), whereas the regular plural form is used to denote different individuals or species: *the fishes of the Mediterranean*.

The Plural of Compound Nouns

Compounds consisting of two or more elements form the plural in various ways. The most usual one is to make the final element plural: *bookcase* — *bookcases*, *grown-up* — *grown-ups*, *stand-by* — *standbys*, *boy friend* — *boy friends*.

So also: *assistant director* — *assistant directors*, *fountain pen* — *fountain pens*, *breakdown* — *breakdowns*, *pullover* — *pullovers*, *headache* — *headaches*, *take-off* — *take-offs*, *forget-me-not* — *forget-me-nots*, etc.

In a number of compounds the first element is made plural: *passer-by* — *passers-by*, *runner-up* — *runners-up*, *court martial* — *courts martial*, *notary public* — *notaries public*, *man-of-war* — *men-of-war*, *mother-in-law* — *mothers-in-law*, but also *mother-in-laws* informally.

When the first component is *man* or *woman*, the plural is expressed in both the first and last element: *manservant* — *menservants*, *woman doctor* — *women doctors*, *gentleman farmer* — *gentlemen farmers*, *woman driver* — *women drivers* but: *lady driver* — *lady drivers*.

The first component is always singular in: *man-holes*, *woman-haters*, where emphasis is on *holes* and *haters* rather than on *man* and *woman*.

Foreign Plurals

Foreign plurals occur in a number of words borrowed from Latin, Greek, French etc., though there is a strong tendency to use the reg-

² *Pence* has also become a singular noun.

ular -s plural in everyday language and to restrict the foreign plural to scientific contexts.

1. Latin nouns in -us.

The foreign plural in -i pronounced as [ai] or [i:] only: *stimulus* — *stimuli* (also *bacillus*, *locus*, *nucleus*).

Only regular plural (-uses): *bonus* — *bonuses* (also *campus*, *chorus*, *circus*, *genius*, *virus*, etc.).

Both plurals: *cactus* — *cacti/cactuses* (also *focus*, *fungus*, *nucleus*, *radius*, *terminus*, *syllabus*).

The plural forms of *corpus* and *genus* are *corpora* and *genera*.

2. Latin nouns in -um.

Usually foreign plural in -a, pronounced [ə]: *curriculum* — *curricula* (also *addendum*, *bacterium*, *erratum*, *stratum*).

Only regular plural: *forum* — *forums* (also *stadium*, *ultimatum*).

Both plurals, normally regular: *aquarium*, *medium*, *memorandum*, *symposium*. The plurals *media* (with reference to press and radio) and *strata* (with reference to society) are sometimes used informally as singular. The technical singular *datum* is rather rare while *data* is used both as a mass noun and as count noun plural: *The results of the experiment are still uncertain: there is/are not enough data yet.*

3. Latin nouns in -a.

Only foreign plural in -ae pronounced as [ai] or [i:]: *alumna* — *alumnae* (also *alga*, *larva*).

Only regular plural form in -s: *antenna*, *formula*, *nebula*, *vertebra*, *dogma*.

Formulas is being increasingly adopted, with *formulae* [-i:] reserved for scientific contexts; *antennas* prevails in general use and electronics with *antennae* [-i:] in biology.

4. Nouns of Greek origin may also have foreign plurals only: *basis* — *bases*, *analysis* — *analyses* (also *axis*, *crisis*, *diagnosis*, *ellipsis*, *parenthesis*, *thesis*), *phenomenon* — *phenomena*, *criterion* — *criteria* or regular plurals: *demon* — *demons*, *electron* — *electrons*. Informally, *criteria* and *phenomena* are sometimes used as singulars.

5. French nouns ending in -eau, pronounced [əu] retain their original plural, e. g. *bureau* — *bureaux*, *tableau* — *tableaux* (also *plateau*, *portmanteau*), beside the commoner -s but the plurals are mainly pronounced as regular [z], irrespective of spelling.

1.5.1.2. Invariable Nouns

Unlike variable nouns occurring with both singular and plural number, invariable nouns are used only in the singular or only in the plural. The singular uncountable nouns, usually referred to as singu-

laria tantum, are modified by *much* and *little* and take the finite verb in the singular while the plural uncountable nouns referred to as **pluralia tantum** take the finite verb in the plural.

Singularia tantum

Singular invariable nouns occur in the singular only. Here belong non-count nouns, concrete (*gold, furniture, iron, bread, cheese, grass, oil, wine, tea, coffee, etc.*) and abstract (*advice, behaviour, education, homework, information, generosity, luggage, knowledge, importance, permission, progress, scenery, weather, traffic, etc.*). It should be noted that virtually all non-count nouns denoting substances can be treated as count nouns when used to distinguish between classes of objects:

There are several French wines available. (= kinds of wine)

This is a tea I greatly enjoy. (= kind of tea)

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: *the snows of Kilimanjaro, the sands of the Sahara, the waters of the Mediterranean, the blue skies of Italy.*

Special attention should be paid to invariable nouns ending in -s used as singular only with a singular verb.

1. The noun *news*:

This is very good news.

Bad news travels fast.

No news is good news.

2. Names of some diseases and abnormal states of body and mind: *measles, German measles, mumps, rickets, shingles, creeps* (some speakers also accept a plural verb, however):

Measles is a catching disease while rickets is not.

3. Names of sciences and subject names in -ics: *classics, linguistics, mathematics, phonetics, etc.* usually take a singular verb:

Ethics is a science of moral principles and rules of conduct.

When a word of this type is not used to refer directly to a discipline of study, it can take a plural verb and be preceded by a plural demonstrative:

The acoustics in this room are far from perfect.

These statistics are unreliable.

George's mathematics is /are not so good as it was / were.

4. Names of some games: *billiards, bowls* (esp. BrE), *darts, dominoes, draughts* (BrE), *checkers* (AmE), *fives, ninepins*:

In England bowls is played on flat greens or on sloping (crown) greens.

Darts is a traditional English game which presumably developed from archery.

5. Some proper nouns: *Algiers, Athens, Brussels, Flanders, Marseilles, Naples, Wales; the United Nations and the United States* have a singular verb when considered as units:

The United States has immense mineral wealth.

There are a number of nouns ending in -s used as singular with reference to one unit, or as plural with reference to more than one:

barracks	gallows	golf-links
bellows	gasworks	headquarters
innings	means	species
kennels	series	crossroads.

We must find a means (= a way) of solving our problem.

There are several means (= ways) of solving it.

He gave one series/two series of lectures.

Pluralia Tantum

A number of nouns in English occur in the plural only. To this group belong the following nouns.

1. Nouns denoting articles of dress, tools and instruments consisting of two equal parts: *trousers, pants, breeches, trunks, pyjamas* (BrE), *pajamas* (AmE), *drawers, braces, suspenders, tights, knickers*; *scissors, spectacles, glasses, tongs, pincers, binoculars, tweezers, pliers, shears*, etc. These are called summation plurals and are used with a plural verb or in the construction *a pair of* and may be preceded by the plural demonstrative:

*These trousers are too long for me, give me another pair, please.
Is there a decent pair of scissors in this house? — Take these,
they are quite sharp.*

2. Miscellaneous nouns ending in -s used only with a plural verb, not with a numeral. In some cases, however, there are also forms without -s with different meaning and use: *amends (make every/all possible amends)*, *annals, archives, arms* (= weapons, as in *arms depot*), *arrears, ashes* (= human remains, but *tobacco ash*), *auspices, banns* (of marriage), *belongings, bowels, clothes* (cf. *cloths*, plural of *cloth*), *congratulations, credentials, contents* (but *the silver content of the coin*), *customs (customs duty)*, *dregs (coffee dregs)*, *earnings, goods (a goods train)*, *lodgings, looks* (= appearance), *manners* (= behaviour), *odds (in betting)*, *outskirts, premises* (= buildings), *quar-*

ters (= lodgings), remains, savings, shortcomings, surroundings, thanks, valuables.

Note the difference:

May I have a look at your letter?

How much do you pay for board and lodging?

She's beginning to lose her looks.

Come round to my lodgings and we'll have a party.

1.5.1.3. Collective Nouns

Collective nouns present certain difficulties in singular/plural pronoun substitution and subject/predicate concord. They denote a number or collection of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit. This group contains both count (*army, group, class, etc.*) and non-count (*aristocracy, clergy, gentry, etc.*) nouns. Often a special group noun is used with names of certain kinds of objects: *an army of soldiers, a crowd of people, a herd of cattle, a flock of sheep, a crew of sailors, a gang of thieves, etc.*

Collective nouns fall under the following sub-groups.

1. Nouns used in the singular only denoting a number of things collected together and regarded as a single object: *machinery, foliage, jewellery (jewelry AmE), etc.* They take singular pronoun substitutes and the verb of a sentence is in the singular:

The autumn foliage is beautiful.

Machinery new to the industry in Australia was introduced for cultivating land.

2. Nouns which are singular in form though plural in meaning (unmarked plurals): *cattle, folk, people, police, poultry, vermin.* These nouns take plural pronoun substitutes and occur with a plural verb:

These cattle are on the way to the market.

The poultry are in the yard.

Vermin are harmful animals or insects.

The police (= policemen) were checking all the cars entering the city.

Police (= policemen) are controlling the crowds.

Reference to individual members of the group is made thus: *a hundred head of cattle, twenty police or twenty policemen, fifty people.*

It should be noted that *people* is normally not a group noun but the plural of *person*; when used in the sense of "nation", it takes a regular plural: *the peoples of the world.* *Folk*, meaning "people", may occur in the singular and informally in the plural (*folks*), but only with a plural verb: *Some folk(s) are...*

3. A number of collective nouns take as pronoun substitutes either singular (*it*) or plural (*they*) without change of number in the noun, i.e. the noun remains singular while the verb may be either in the singular or in the plural:

The audience is/are enjoying the show.

The government never makes/make up its/their mind(s) in a hurry.

Modern English prescriptive grammar books specifically recommend consistent usage within the same sentence or two. Cf.: *Our team plays best on its own ground* (singular) and *Our team play best on their own ground* (plural).

Among collective nouns of this type, there are many denoting classes, social groups or referring to a group of people having a special relationship with one another, or brought together for a particular reason. Three subclasses may be distinguished here:

- a) specific: *army, clan, class, club, committee, crew, crowd, family, flock, gang, government, group, herd, jury, majority, minority;*
- b) generic: *the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the clergy, the elite, the gentry, the intelligentsia, the laity, the proletariat, the public;*
- c) unique: *(the) Congress, Parliament, the Vatican.*

In sentences with collective nouns, the choice between singular and plural verbs is based on a difference in attitude, i.e. whether the group denoted by the collective noun is being considered as a single undivided body, or as a collection of individuals. Thus, the singular must be used in sentences like: *The audience was enormous* where the non-personal collectivity of the group is stressed. The plural is more likely in sentences like: *The audience were enjoying every minute of it*³.

Notes

1. Distributive Plural. To talk about several people each doing the same thing, English prefers a plural noun for the repeated idea; plural forms are almost always used in this case with possessives:

The students should hand in their essays now.

Eighty-six people lost their lives in the air-crash.

2. Repeated Events. In descriptions of repeated single events, singular and plural nouns are both possible. When no details are given, plural nouns are more natural:

She often gets headaches.

When details of the time or situation are given, singular nouns are often used:

She often gets a headache when she's been working on the computer.

To refer to the time of repeated events, both singular and plural forms are commonly used:

She doesn't look her best in the morning(s).

He's in the habit of dropping in for dinner on Sunday(s).

³ In British English the plural verb appears to be more common with collective nouns in speech than in writing; in American English, the singular verb is preferred.

3. Generalizations and Rules. In generalizations and rules, singular and plural nouns are both possible:

A present participle is used in a progressive verb form.

Present participles are used in progressive verb forms.

Mixtures of singular and plural forms are possible:

Subjects agree with their verb.

1.5.2. The Category of Case

The category of case expresses relations between objects and phenomena denoted by nouns in a sentence. It is manifested by a noun inflection though it may also be a "zero" inflection.

In English the category of case has become the subject of lively controversy in linguistics. It has been discussed extensively by scholars, and the opinions on this subject differ widely.

The widely accepted view is that English nouns have two cases. The category of case is expressed by the opposition between the form in -'s, usually called the possessive (genitive) case and the unmarked form of the noun, usually called the common case.

Another view is that English has more than two cases. Thus, in accordance with the theory of prepositional cases, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations are treated as morphological case forms, e.g. the construction *to + noun* is regarded as the dative case of the noun. Obviously, on this interpretation the number of cases in English would become indefinitely large, which would mean abandoning a morphologically based conception of case and would lead to a confusion between morphological and syntactic phenomena.

A third view is that there are no cases at all in the English noun system. This viewpoint presents the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. On this view, the form called the genitive case by force of tradition, would be, in fact, a combination of a noun with a postpositional particle.

The present review will proceed from the assumption that the English noun has a two-case system: the unmarked common case (*man*) and the marked genitive case (*man's*).

1.5.2.1. The Formation of the Genitive

The genitive case is formed by means of the inflection -'s which is added to singular nouns and to irregular plural nouns. It is pronounced as [s] after any voiceless sound except a sibilant: *student's* [stju:dənts], *Nick's* [nɪks], [z] after any voiced sound except a sibilant: *friend's* [frendz], *Mary's* [mæriz], *children's* [tʃildrənz] and [ɪz] after a sibilant: *witch's* [witʃɪz], *George's* [dʒɔ:dʒɪz].

The apostrophe is added only to regular plural nouns (*boys'*, *soldiers'*) and to Greek names in -s of more than one syllable: *Archimedes'* [a:kɪ'mi:di:z] *Law*, *Sophocles'* *tragedies*, *Euripides'* [ju:'rɪpɪdɪ:z] *plays*.

With other proper names ending in -s there is vacillation both in pronunciation and spelling, but most commonly the spelling is the apostrophe only while the pronunciation is [ɪz]. Thus, *Burns'* (or less commonly, *Burns's*) is pronounced [bə:nzɪz]. Cf. also *Dickens'* *novels*, *Jones'* *house* etc. where the pronunciation is [zɪz].

With compounds, the inflection -'s is added to the final element: *my brother-in-law's children*, *my brothers-in-law's children*.

1.5.2.2. *The Use of the Genitive*

The genitive case is used to express a variety of ideas: possession, relationship, physical features and characteristics, non-physical qualities and measurements.

The -'s genitive mainly occurs with animate nouns denoting personal names (*Jane's brother*, *Mr Wilson's library*, *George Washington's statue*), personal nouns (*the student's answer*, *the girl's letter*) and animals with personal gender characteristics mostly domestic, or those that are credited with some intelligence (*the dog's tail*, *the cat's paw*, *the elephant's trunk*).

The -'s genitive is not normally used with inanimate nouns. Instead, the noun is modified by an *of*-phrase: *the colour of the dress*, *the leg of the chair*, etc. However, some nouns denoting lifeless objects regularly occur with the -'s genitive and there is tendency to use the -'s forms even more extensively.

The -'s genitive is optional with collective nouns that refer to a group of people: *the government's policy*, *the team's victory*, *the committee's meeting*, *the nation's social security*, etc.; with geographical and institutional names: *Africa's future*, *Moscow's traffic*, *America's resources*, *the school's history*, *the university's buildings* etc.; with nouns considered to be of special interest to human activity: *the earth's surface*, *nature's sleep*, *the sun's rays*, *science's influence*, *the mind's general development*, etc.

The -'s genitive tends to be obligatory with temporal nouns that refer to the length of duration of an event, and some substantivized adverbs: *a moment's thought*, *a week's holiday*, *a day's rest*, *a year's work*, *today's business*, *yesterday's news*, *an hour and a half's drive*, *a month or two's time*.

Note the parallel structures:

*I've got three weeks' holiday
in August.*

*I need eight hours' sleep
every night.*

*I've got a three week holiday
in August.*

*I need an eight hour sleep every
night.*

The -'s genitive is also common with nouns denoting distance and measure and also some miscellaneous nouns: *a mile's distance*, *a shilling's worth*, *a room's interior*, *a book's title*, *the work's popularity*, *the engine's overhaul life*, etc.

Some freely formed phrases seem to prove that it is not absolutely necessary for a noun to denote a living being in order to be capable of having an -'s form. There is a considerable number of fixed expressions in which all kinds of nouns occur in the -'s genitive: *the ship's crew*, *the ship's doctor*, *a needle's point*, *duty's call*, *keep someone at arm's length*, *keep out of harm's way*, *do something to one's heart's content*, *be only a stone's throw away*, *be at one's wit's end*, *for goodness' sake*, etc.

With some nouns, both the -'s genitive and the of-phrase are used to express possession:

<i>the Earth's gravity</i>	— <i>the gravity of the Earth</i> ,
<i>the Queen's arrival</i>	— <i>the arrival of the Queen</i> ,
<i>the plan's importance</i>	— <i>the importance of the plan</i> ,
<i>Syria's history</i>	— <i>the history of Syria</i> .

In place names like *Cologne Cathedral* or *Birmingham Airport*, the noun + noun structure is normal.

The -'s genitive is generally used to talk about parts of people's or animals' bodies: *a man's hand*, *a cat's tail*. But to talk about parts of non-living things, the noun + noun structure or the of-phrase is used: *the car door*, *a table leg*, *the roof of the house*. Note that for words like *top*, *bottom*, *front*, *back*, *side*, *edge*, *inside*, *outside*, *beginning*, *middle*, *end*, *part*, the of-structure is usually preferred: *the top of the hill*, *the end of the book*, *the bottom of the glass*. There are, however, a number of common exceptions: *the water's edge*, *the mountain top*, etc.

The of-structure can refer to something that is used by a person or animal; the first noun refers to the user: *children's clothes*, *women's magazines*, *a bird's nest*. British and American English sometimes differ. Cf.:

British English	American English
<i>a baby's bottle</i>	<i>a baby bottle</i>
<i>a doll's house</i>	<i>a doll house</i>
<i>a baby's pram</i>	<i>a baby carriage</i>

The -'s genitive is also used for products from living animals: *cow's milk*, *lamb's wool*, *sheep's wool*, *a bird's egg* (but: *camel hair*). Note that when the animal is killed to provide something, the noun + noun structure is generally used: *calf skin*, *fox fur*, *chicken soup*, *tortoise shell*.

The noun + noun structure is normally used to describe what objects are made of: *a silk scarf*, *a stone bridge*, *an iron rod*, *a gold ring*. In older English, the of-structure was more common in this case (e.g.

a scarf of silk, a bridge of stone), and it is still used in some metaphorical expressions:

He has a heart of gold.

She rules her family with a rod of iron.

A few pairs of nouns and adjectives are used as modifiers with different meanings; while the noun simply names the material something is made of, the adjective has a metaphorical meaning: Cf.:

*a gold watch — golden dreams,
silk stockings — silken hair,
a lead pipe — a leaden sky,
a stone roof — a stony silence.*

But *woollen* and *wooden* just mean "made of wool/wood".

The meaning and functions of the genitive case require special consideration.

1.5.2.3. *The Dependent Genitive*

A noun in the genitive case generally precedes another noun which is its head word. This is called the **dependent genitive**; the actual relation between the notions expressed by the two nouns largely depends on their lexical meaning.

The dependent genitive may be of two kinds.

1. The specifying genitive denotes a particular person (or thing). It has the following meanings:

- possessive genitive (the "have" relation): *Dr Brown's son* (Dr Brown has a son);
- subjective genitive (the subject-verb relation): *his parents' consent* (his parents consented);
- objective genitive (the verb-object relation): *the prisoner's release* (they released the prisoner).

There is considerable overlap in the uses of the specifying -'s genitive and the *of*-phrase caused by their functional and semantic similarity: *the children's father — the father of the children, my sister's room — the room of my sister*. With proper names, however, the genitive case is the rule: *Peter's birthday, Susan's address*.

The genitive case is preferred for the subject-verb relation, and the *of*-phrase for the verb-object relation: *Livingstone's discovery* (that is Livingstone discovered something) but: *the discovery of Livingstone* (which would usually mean that somebody discovered Livingstone).

It should also be noted that if both the subject of an action and its object are mentioned, the former is expressed by a noun with -'s preceding the name of the action and the latter by an *of*-phrase following it, as in: *Coleridge's praise of Shakespeare*. The same applies to the

phrases in which the object is not a living being, as in: *Einstein's theory of relativity*, *Shakespeare's treatment of history*.

The genitive case is common in headlines for reasons of brevity; it also gives prominence to the noun modified. Cf.: *Hollywood's (or Hollywood) Studios Empty* and *The Studios of Hollywood Empty*.

2. The descriptive (classifying) genitive refers to a whole class of similar objects: *a women's college* (a college for women), *a doctor's degree* (a doctoral degree/a doctorate), etc. Unlike the specifying genitive, the descriptive genitive cannot be replaced by an *of*-phrase.

It is worth mentioning that combinations like *an officer's cap* can be interpreted in two different ways. It may mean "a cap belonging to a certain officer", and that is the usual possessive meaning, or it may mean "a cap of the type worn by officers", and this is the descriptive meaning. Only the context will show what is meant; outside the context both interpretations would be equally justified.

1.5.2.4. *The Group Genitive*

The inflection *-'s* may be added not only to a single noun but also to a whole group of words if it forms a close semantic unit. Various patterns can be found in this construction. Thus, in *Smith and Brown's office* not only Brown, whose name is immediately connected with the *-'s*, but also Smith is included into the possessive relation. Cf. also: *Jack and Jill's wedding*, *Mr and Mrs Carter's house*, *Mary and John's children*.

Other examples include:

- *the Chancellor of Exchequer's speech*, *the Oxford professor of poetry's lecture*, where the *-'s* inflection is added to the final element of the postmodifying prepositional phrase rather than to the head noun itself;

- *someone else's house*, *somebody else's turn*, *nobody else's business*, etc., where the word immediately preceding *-'s* is an adverb which could not by itself stand in the genitive case, so *-'s* here belongs to the group *someone else*, etc. as a whole;

- *an hour and a half's break*, *a week or so's sunshine* where coordinators (*and*, *or*) are involved.

The group genitive is not normally acceptable after a clause, though in colloquial use one may hear examples like: *Old man what-do-you-call-him's house has been painted* or *The blonde I had been dancing with's name was Bernice*. Such constructions may not be frequent but they do occur.

1.5.2.5. *The Independent Genitive*

A noun in the genitive case may be used without a head word. This is called the independent genitive, or the genitive with ellipsis:

I went to the baker's.

We spent a week at our uncle's.

The term "genitive with ellipsis" was suggested on the assumption that the -'s form is an attribute to some noun which is supposed to be self-evident, and may be omitted: *I went to the baker's shop*, *We spent a week at our uncle's house*, etc. However, certain linguists find this interpretation doubtful.

The independent genitive is typical of expressions relating to premises or establishments. Thus, in *Let's meet at Andrew's tomorrow*, the phrase *at Andrew's* would normally mean "where Andrew lives", even though the hearer might not know whether the appropriate head noun would be *house*, *apartment*, or *flat*. It is important, however, that *hotel room* (where Andrew could only be staying not living) is excluded. By contrast, *I shall be at the dentist's* would refer to the dentist's professional establishment, and the same applies to proper names where they refer to commercial firms, bars and restaurants:

Let's have lunch at Johnny's.

The genitive -'s is normal in relation to small one-man businesses (*I buy my meat at Brown's*). The genitive meaning of nouns denoting large businesses is expressed in writing by moving the apostrophe (*at Macys'*).

Ellipsis is much more evident in sentences like:

John's was a clever remark, too.

This book is Susan's.

My house is bigger than Nick's but his car is newer than Sam's.

His memory is like an elephant's.

Another kind of independent genitive is the double genitive, where an *of*-phrase is combined with the -'s genitive to form a noun phrase with postmodification: *a tragedy of Shakespeare's*. There are some limitations which affect the choice of the noun with the -'s genitive inflection and the head noun preceding the *of*-phrase. The noun in the genitive case must be both definite and personal while the head noun must have indefinite reference:

A friend of the bride's has just called. (but not *the friend of the bride's*)

A daughter of Mrs. Brown's has arrived. (but not *the daughter of Mrs Brown's*)

This is a poem of Byron's. (= one of Byron's poems)

He is a relative of Mrs Bennet's. (= one of Mrs Bennet's relatives)

The double genitive implies non-unique meaning, i. e. that Byron wrote several poems, and Mrs Bennet has several relatives.

The double genitive is obligatory when the speaker wishes to use several modifiers (including *a*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*) in the same noun phrase:

This new car of Bill's must have cost a lot.

That beautiful speech of your husband's caused quite a sensation.

1.5.3. Gender

English makes very few gender distinctions. Gender applies only to certain gender-sensitive pronouns, where the categories of masculine/feminine and personal/non-personal can apply (see 3. The Pronoun). Nouns, adjectives and articles have no gender distinctions, although in a small number of words the feminine suffix -ess marks a noun having female reference. The category of gender is chiefly expressed in English by obligatory correlation of nouns with the third person pronouns. These serve as specific gender classifiers of nouns. Since nouns have no grammatical gender, the choice of pronoun substitutes *he*, *she* and *it* is based on natural distinctions of meaning. The choice between *he* or *she*, for example, is almost entirely determined by sex. Thus, *he* refers to a man or a male animal; *she* — to a woman or a female animal; *it* — to an inanimate object or an animal which is not regarded as either male or female; the plural pronoun *they* is not gender specific.

The pattern of pronoun substitution is determined by the lexical meaning of the noun.

1. Animate personal nouns may refer to males or females. Some of them are morphologically marked for gender: *actor* — *actress*, *duke* — *duchess*, *emperor* — *empress*, *god* — *goddess*, *host* — *hostess*, *prince* — *princess*, *waiter* — *waitress*. *Steward* and *stewardess* are being replaced by other terms such as *flight attendant*. -Ess is practically the only gender-forming suffix in Modern English; note also *hero* — *heroine*, *usher* — *ushermate*.

Some optional feminine forms (*poetess*, *authoress*) are now rare, being replaced by the dual gender forms (*poet*, *author*). A *mayor* can be a man or a woman; in Britain a *mayoress* is the wife of a male mayor. Others are morphologically unmarked for gender and have no overt marking that suggests morphological correspondence between masculine and feminine: *bachelor* — *spinster*, *brother* — *sister*, *father* — *mother*, *gentleman* — *lady*, *king* — *queen*, *man* — *woman*, *monk* — *nun*, *uncle* — *aunt*.

2. Animate personal nouns may refer to both male or female. Here belong *artist*, *cook*, *doctor*, *enemy*, *fool*, *foreigner*, *friend*, *guest*, *musician*, *neighbour*, *parent*, *person*, *servant*, *student*, *teacher*, *writer*, etc.

When used with specific reference such nouns take pronoun substitutes in accordance with the biological sex of the person referred to:

I met a handsome student and he...

I met a beautiful student and she...

When there is no need to make a distinction of sex, the masculine reference pronoun is generally used. This is the case when such nouns are used generically and neither sex is relevant:

The artist, painter, poet, or musician, by his decoration, sublime or beautiful, satisfies the aesthetic sense; he lays before you also the greater gift of himself.

However, such usage is regarded as sexist by many people and there is a tendency to avoid sex indicators in contexts of this type as marks of masculine bias in Modern English. There are different ways to do this, the expression *he or she* (sometimes written as *s/he*) becoming increasingly common, or authors may use *she* throughout as the gender-neutral pronoun:

What is new to the discourse is not necessarily new to the hearer; he or she may already have prior knowledge to the entity in question.

If a speaker evokes an entity in a discourse, s/he first hypothesizes the information-status of that entity in the hearer's mind.

In an informal style, the plural 3rd personal pronoun *they* is often used to mean "he or she", especially after indefinite words like *somebody, anybody, nobody, person*:

Anyone who wants to write non-sexist English will need to have their wits about them.

Other ways of expressing male or female reference are: *boy friend, girlfriend, man student, woman student, boy scout, girl scout, lady cashier, female patient. Lady* is used out of exaggerated politeness; *female* is used in an official, scientific or clinical context. Generally speaking, this dual class is on the increase, but the expectation that a given activity is largely male or female determines the frequent use of sex markers: *a nurse*, but *a male nurse, an engineer* but *a woman engineer*. There is a marked preference for gender specified reference.

The wide selection of pronoun substitutes with the noun *baby* (*he / she / it*) should not be understood to mean that all of these apply in all contexts. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby as *it*, but it is quite possible for somebody who is not emotionally involved with the child, especially when the sex is unknown or unimportant. Cf.: *Don't wake the baby. — He's too old to be a baby and The baby was crying in its cot.*

Some words ending in *-man* (e. g. *chairman*, *fireman*, *spokesman*) have no common feminine equivalent. As many women dislike being called *chairman* or *spokesman*, these words are now often avoided in references to women or in general reference to people of either sex. In many cases, *-person* is now used instead of *-man*:

A spokesperson said that the Minister does not intend to resign.

In some cases, new words ending in *-woman* (e. g. *spokeswoman*) are coming into use. But the general tendency is to avoid what is called sexist usage and to choose words, even for men, which are not gender-marked (e. g. *supervisor* instead of *foreman*, *ambulance staff* instead of *ambulance men*, *fire-fighter* instead of *fireman*). It is worth noting that though *man* and *mankind* have traditionally been used to refer to the whole of the human race, some people find this usage sexist and use terms such as *people*, *humanity*, or *the human race* instead. Note also the increasingly common use of *synthetic fibres* instead of *man-made fibres*.

3. In names of higher animals (animate non-personal nouns) sex distinctions are chiefly made by people with a special concern — horse and cattle-breeders, veterinarians, trainers, etc. Sex reference is expressed morphologically in *lion* — *lioness*, *tiger* — *tigress*, or lexically in: *buck* — *doe*, *bull* — *cow*, *cock* — *hen*, *dog* — *bitch*, *stallion* — *mare*. When no sex distinction is made or known, the pronoun substitute *he* is more usual than *she* with animals like *cat* or *horse*.

Generally, masculine or feminine reference pronouns are used for animals when they are thought of as having the personal qualities of human beings (especially with family pets):

Have you given the dog his morning meal?

It is otherwise used for animals when their sex is unknown or unimportant:

The dog was barking in its kennel.

4. Names of lower animals and inanimate nouns do not differ in the patterns of pronoun substitution, e. g. both *snake* and *box* take *it* and *which* as pronouns. Sex differences can, however, be indicated by a range of gender markers for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant: *she-goat*, *he-goat*, *male-frog*, *hen-pheasant*. This kind of personifying transposition affects not only animate but also a wide range of inanimate nouns and is regulated in everyday language by cultural and historical traditions. Compare the use of *she* in reference to ships, vehicles, weaker animals, etc. and the use of *he* in reference to stronger animals or phenomena suggesting crude strength and fierceness, etc. A personal substitute *he* or *she* with inanimate objects expresses an affectionate attitude to entities referred to:

What a lovely ship. What's she called?

The proud owner of a sports car may refer to it as *she* (or perhaps *he* if the owner is female).

With names of countries the pattern of pronoun substitution depends on their meaning. As geographical units they are treated as inanimate nouns:

Looking at the map we see France here. It is one of the largest countries in Europe.

As political, economic or cultural units the names of countries often take a feminine reference pronoun:

France has been able to increase her exports by 10 per cent over the last six months.

England is proud of her poets.

In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns taking a plural pronoun substitute:

France have improved their chance of winning the cup.

2. ARTICLES

The article is a structural word specifying the noun. Articles in English are the most common noun determiners. Linguists recognized long ago that the article is essentially a functional element, acting to link the sentence to the situation of communication. Most recent accounts treat the article in terms of its role in reference to things, people, events, etc.

There are two articles in English: the definite article and the indefinite article. The definite article indicates definite reference; it expresses the identification⁴ or individualization of the referent denoted by the noun it determines. The indefinite article indicates indefinite reference; it is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun it determines to a certain class of similar objects.

2.1. ARTICLES WITH COMMON NOUNS

2.1.1. The Use of Articles with Concrete Count Nouns

2.1.1.1. *The Indefinite Article*

The indefinite article has the forms *a* and *an*: *a* is used before a noun beginning with a consonant sound, *an* before a vowel sound. The indefinite article has developed from the Old English numeral *ān* (*one*), and as a result of its origin it is used only with nouns in the singular.

The main function of the indefinite article is to indicate indefinite reference. It means that at the moment of speech identification is impossible or unnecessary, either for both the speaker and hearer or for the hearer only:

I must just telephone from the station. — Who to? — A girl I was going to meet.

⁴ By identification we mean the ability of the hearer / reader to understand which particular person or thing is meant by the speaker in the given situation.

The indefinite noun phrase (NP) here suggests that the speaker has someone definite in mind, but the person's identity is not yet known to the hearer.

Unlike definite NPs, or definite descriptions, which tell the hearer how to identify the object referred to, indefinite descriptions contain no instruction which tells the hearer which particular object is meant. The definite article is used if the hearer is meant to identify the object which the speaker is referring to as one that is known to him or has already been mentioned. Conversely, the indefinite article indicates that the hearer is not meant to identify the object the speaker is referring to on the basis of the shared speaker/hearer knowledge or from prior mention. The indefinite description serves only to indicate the class of objects to which that object belongs.

1. The indefinite article in its main classifying function is used to show that the speaker is characterizing a person, object or event only as a specimen of a certain class of things. The classifying indefinite article is mostly found with predicative and appositive nouns:

I'm a critic and I'm a novelist.

His father was a good soldier.

The cook, a bulky man who looked as though he enjoyed his own cooking, scarcely looked around.

He owes his curious name to his father, a well-read man.

Predicative and appositive nouns in the plural generally take no article:

They were extraordinarily nice, healthy children.

Then we were joined by two women, acquaintances of Charles and Ann.

The indefinite article is also used in predicative and adverbial phrases with *like* and *as*:

*She looked like a boy with her head turned shamefacedly away.
I was trembling like a leaf.*

The solid appearance of Julius in the same room was as decisive as a dinner bell.

With plural nouns no article is used:

We stood looking at each other like children.

2. The indefinite article is used in its nominating function when the speaker wants to name an object or to state what kind of object is meant. With plural nouns no article is used:

Then Robert Strickland struck a match and lit a cigarette.

The night before, he had met an explorer, an actor, and a Marine sergeant at a party.

Sheets, shirts, pillow-cases, and night-dresses flapped and danced in the thin breeze.

The indefinite article is often found with noun objects and in comparison:

We must send him a telegram.

She has a son and a daughter.

But he is much more to me than a model or a sitter.

He was a little round man, with a vest and apron, with pale, hairy ears and a long, nervous nose.

My room had a high ceiling and a tall four-poster bed which should have had curtains around it to cut off the draft.

3. The indefinite article is used by the speaker to name an object which is usually new to the hearer. This is the so-called first-mention function of the indefinite article. It serves to introduce some new information, i. e. a new element of the sentence which is important and attracts attention, thus becoming the centre of communication and acquiring strong stress:

One morning a new man was sitting at the table.

A car was coming.... At the wheel sat a young man, his hair blown back by the wind.

In Russian, which has no article, the centre of communication containing new information is usually marked by word order and also stress:

К окну подошла девочка. — A girl came up to the window.

Девочка подошла к окну. — The girl came up to the window.

В комнату вбежал мальчик. — A boy rushed into the room.

Мальчик вбежал в комнату. — The boy rushed into the room.

We often find the indefinite article in introductory sentences which generally occur at the very beginning of a story:

One fine day a cock and a hen set off together to the woods to look for hazel nuts.

Once upon a time a fox went up to a stork and said...

These sentences are always followed by further information about the person or object introduced:

A crow, perched in a tree with a piece of cheese in his beak, attracted the eye and the nose of a fox. "If you can sing as prettily as you sit," said the fox, "then you are the prettiest singer within my scent and sight."

A certain is less indefinite than *a (an)*. In *A certain peasant had three sons*, which might be the beginning of a story, *certain* suggests

that the story-teller has someone definite in mind, but that the man's identity is not yet known to the audience.

As the indefinite article often introduces new information, it is widely used in existential sentences in which something is presented as existent, or present:

Beyond glassy mountains and beyond silken meadows stood a dark forest.

We ate in the dining room, and there was a clean tablecloth.

4. Owing to its origin in the numeral *one*, the indefinite article always implies the idea of "oneness" which may be made more prominent. The original numerical meaning is generally found:

a) with nouns denoting time, measure, and weight:

We stared intently at her for a minute or two;

We've only been here just under a week, my wife and I;

b) with the numerals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and the nouns *dozen* and *score*:

I've told you a hundred times that you mustn't trust that man, Billy;

c) after the negative *not* (*not a word*, *not a trace*, *not a thought*):

Not a word was spoken in the parlour;

d) in some set phrases (*at a time*, *at a gulp*, *at a draught*):

He picked up his drink and drank it off at a gulp;

e) between two noun groups in expressions denoting prices, salaries, speeds, etc.:

90 pounds a week,

12 hours a day,

150 kilometres an hour.

5. In discussing the use of article it is essential to make a distinction between **specific** and **generic** reference. If we say *Two tigers are sleeping in the cage*, the reference is specific, since we have in mind specific specimens of the class "tiger". If, on the other hand, we say *A tiger is a wild animal* or *Tigers are wild animals*, the reference is generic, since we are thinking of the class "tiger" without reference to specific tigers.

Sentences with the generic indefinite article express a generalization: what is said about one specimen of a class can be applied to all the specimens of the class. The meaning of the article with singular nouns here is close to *every*/*any*. With plural nouns neither the article nor *some* is used. Such instances are often referred to as **general**, or **universal descriptions**:

An artist should create beautiful things, but should not put anything of his own life into it.

If a man is a gentleman, he knows quite enough, and if he is not a gentleman, whatever he knows is bad for him.

Young men want to be faithful, and are not; old men want to be faithless, and cannot; that is all one can say.

Real friends should have everything in common.

Generic reference is used to denote what is normal or typical for members of a class; thus it is often to be found in proverbs and sayings:

A cat has nine lives.

A bad penny always comes back.

A creaking gate hangs long.

A drowning man clutches at a straw.

Good fences make good neighbours.

Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

2.1.1.2. The Definite Article

The definite article has one graphic form *the*, which is pronounced [ðɪ] before a vowel and [ðə] before a consonant sound. It has developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun *sē* and in some cases this demonstrative meaning can be found in Modern English.

The definite article indicates definite reference which can be specific, unique or generic.

Specific Reference. One of the chief functions of the definite article is to indicate specific reference, i. e. to show that the speaker is referring to a particular example (person, object or event) or to particular examples, of a class of things as distinct from the other members of the same class.

Definite noun phrases, or definite descriptions are said to contain an instruction which tells the hearer what particular object is meant. The hearer is supposed to identify the object the speaker is referring to by means of the given definite NP either because it has been previously mentioned or because its identity is made clear by the context of utterance, or because the speaker and hearer have certain shared knowledge which serves to make the reference unambiguous.

1. The pragmatic presupposition concerning the ability of the hearer to identify the object referred to can result from the extralinguistic context/situation in which the utterance is made.

Definite NPs with specific reference frequently occur when the speaker is referring to some object or person that he or she assumes the hearer can identify in the environment they share:

There's someone at the door. Didn't you hear the bell?— Perhaps it's the milkman. No, it's the postman.

Mr Turner is in the garden, watering the flowers.

Shall I draw the curtains? It would make it more cheerful like. Lombard stared up at the sky. The clouds were beginning to mass themselves together. The wind was increasing.

Thus, it should be noted that the definite article is often used by reason of locality, i.e. with reference to objects that surround the speaker or the people or things described by him — either indoors (*the window, the door, the wall, etc.*) or out-of-doors (*the street, the trees, the leaves, the birds, etc.*).

After the party, Roy and I walked in the garden. The breeze had dropped, and on the great beeches no leaf stirred.

The definite article is also used with nouns denoting objects that are normally found in a particular place. Their presence is simply taken for granted. Thus, at home we may hear *Have you fed the dog?* or *I'll put the kettle on and make you some tea.* When we are talking about the theatre or the cinema, we say *I couldn't find my seat and asked the attendant to help me.* In a cafe or restaurant we say *Let's call the waiter.*

With sentences like *Pass me the book* we have what might be called a **visible situation** use: the definite NP refers to something visible to both the speaker and hearer. The utterance is made in a situation when the description used is applicable to one referent only.

Sentences like *Beware of the dog* or *Don't feed the pony* as a sign on a gate would function as an **immediate situation** use; the referent is in the situation in which the act of reference occurs, but it is not necessarily visible to the parties. The definite article informs the hearer of the existence of a dog or a pony and instructs him to use the situation to find them.

The **larger situation** use is where a definite NP serves as a first-mention of some object in the village, country etc., where the reference occurs. Members of a community share a body of knowledge of entities existing within the bounds of that community; this knowledge enables the inhabitants of the same village to speak of *the pub, the church*; fellow Englishmen to speak of *the queen, the prime minister* without ambiguity. The hearer identifies the referent of the definite NP by relying either on specific or on general knowledge about the referent:

It must have gone ten o'clock and people were coming out of the public house.

He had a serious disagreement with his uncle, and went off to dine at the golf club.

The house was a bare three minutes from the station.

2. The ability of the hearer to identify the referent of the definite NP can also result from the linguistic context which serves to point out a particular person, object or event, as distinct from all others of the same class.

The appropriate knowledge, assumed by the speaker, can be given to the hearer in the preceding portions of the discourse, which accounts for an anaphoric use of the definite article in which the definite NP recalls some antecedent in the discourse:

Presently he took out a cigarette, but his eyes fell on the "No smoking" sign, which was universally disregarded, and he returned the cigarette to its pack.

The antecedent is not necessarily lexically identical to the anaphoric NP:

Shortly before Christmas Dick Stroeve came to ask me to spend the holiday with him. He had a characteristic sentimentality about the day and wanted to pass it among his friends with suitable ceremonies.

Nor even is it necessarily another NP:

When he kissed her, it was without passion. The kiss lasted only an instant.

Fred travelled to Munich... . The journey was long and tiring. He waits till she is seated; she is aware of the politeness.

Associative anaphora is probably the most frequent use. Once reference has been made to *a book* (or *the book*), one can go on to speak of *the author*, *the content*, etc. The associations must be known to both the speaker and hearer, e. g. *a house — the roof, the windows, the size, etc.; a wedding — the bride, the cake, etc.*:

We would go on between the fields until we hit a town. The houses would be lined up along the street, under the trees, with their lights going out now, until we hit the main street.

The bus was nearly empty. He checked the route with the driver.

He struck a match. Her face looked soft in the light.

Identification can also rely on various kinds of limiting modifiers in pre- and postposition to the NP. Prepositive limiting modifiers include adjectives, numerals, pronouns, and common and proper nouns.

A. Adjectives in the superlative degree are commonly preceded by the definite article:

He had been a great fencer, before the war, the greatest fencer in Italy.

You strike me as being one of the sanest and most level-headed girls I've come across.

She was the most active of us.

Most in combination with an adjective can express not only the superlative degree of a quality but a high degree as well in which case it has the same meaning as very, exceedingly, and the NP is used with the indefinite article — a most clever man, a most interesting theory:

Caroline found that the old maid was a most devoted daughter and sister.

Note the use of articles in some structures with most. When definite reference is made to people or things the noun is used with the definite article and most is followed by the preposition of:

Most of the gentlemen looked both angry and uncomfortable.

In the case of indefinite reference, most, not most of is used:

Most people hold the same opinion as you do.

B. Ordinal numerals:

But you should not say the great romance of your life. You should say the first romance of your life.

However, when ordinal numerals are not used to indicate order but have the meaning of one more or another, the NP is used with the indefinite article:

Two people would have to hold the chair, and a third would help him up on it, and a fourth would hand him a nail, and a fifth would pass him up the hammer, and he would take hold of the nail and drop it.

Note that nouns modified by cardinal numerals are used without any article:

There were four tables, his own, one from which breakfast was being cleared away and two occupied ones.

The use of the definite article is determined by the context / situation:

Emily Brent looked at Vera Claythorne. Vera Claythorne looked at Miss Brent. The two women rose.

Note the following difference: the second chapter but chapter two; the third page but page three.

C. Limiting adjectives and the identifying pronoun same also particularize the reference of the noun: the main reason, the precise rea-

son, the only occasion, the same student, the wrong answer, the right way, the very person. Here also belong *central, principal, coming, following, present, former, latter, necessary, next, so-called, usual*, and some others:

They were staying at the same hotel, and he quickly told her all about himself.

I thought I had come into the wrong house.

He is the sole judge in such matters.

An only child is to be regarded as a set phrase:

He found a lot of advantages in being an only child.

Note that the definite article is often used with *wrong* even when it does not make sense to talk about only one wrong possibility:

Try not to get into the wrong train again.

If he gives the wrong answer, they'll fire him.

In these examples there may be more than only one wrong train or wrong answer. However, there are some cases where the indefinite article is used:

We must have taken a wrong turn.

The same is often used without a following noun:

The same can be said about most people.

Next and *last* are commonly used in time expressions without *the: next week, last month.*

When a singular noun is modified by the pronoun *other*, the definite article is used if there are only two objects of the same kind:

He pulled on the other glove and said he would run along to his office.

A plural noun modified by *other* is used with the definite article if there is a definite number of objects divided into two definite groups. Otherwise no article is used:

My mother needed me more than the other members of the family.

I was thinking of other people in the same position.

The rule holds good when *other* is used as a noun.

Her hands lay on her lap motionless, one in the other.

He went across the hall into the dining room. The others went upstairs, a slow unwilling procession.

D. Attributive proper nouns in the common case: the Pushkin Theatre, the Tretyakov Gallery:

The sailor led him back to the little irregular square by the Medici Palace.

The Pulkovo Observatory is over a hundred years old.

Note that if the noun is modified by a proper noun in the possessive form, no article is used: *Pushkin's short tragedies; Tretyakov's devotion to art.*

E. Nominal modifiers: *the colour red, the name Algernon, the number seven:*

The Colour Purple by Alice Walker has won the Pulitzer Prize and the American Book Award for Fiction.

Postpositive limiting modifiers include prepositional phrases and relative clauses.

A. Prepositional of-phrases may serve as limiting or particularizing attributes:

It's as plain as the palm of my hand.

I despise you from the bottom of my heart.

Quite often, however, prepositional of-phrases do not have any limiting meaning. They are then used with the indefinite article and denote material: *a ring of gold, a dress of black silk;* content: *a cup of tea, a bottle of wine, a pack of cigarettes;* quality and measure: *a distance of two miles, a speed of 60 miles per hour, a temperature of 20°;* composition: *a group of boys, a flock of birds, a herd of sheep;* age: *a man of forty;* size: *a girl of average height, a building of enormous size.* The indefinite article is also used in structures like *a devil of a boy, a wild cat of a woman, etc.:*

He was terribly thirsty and asked for a glass of water.

He lived at a distance of two miles from the sea.

He was not only a man of deep feeling but also a man of passionate pride.

It should be noted that most of these of-phrases can acquire the limiting meaning in context, which accounts for the use of the definite article:

She took the cup of coffee he offered her with a strained smile of thanks.

The expressions like *a/the type of, a/the sort of, a/the kind of, a/the variety of* are followed by a noun with no article; the use of articles with *type, sort, etc.* is determined by the context:

She was a curious sort of girl.

It's just the kind of job that would suit me.

He was the sort of man you could rely on, but he was not the sort of man you could love.

Sometimes, however, the noun in such structures is used with the indefinite article:

What kind of a woman do you take me for?

B. A limiting (particularizing) attribute can be expressed by an attributive restrictive clause (see also 15.2.4. Attributive Clauses).

Unlike the non-restrictive, or descriptive, clause that describes the antecedent, or gives additional information about it, the restrictive clause restricts the meaning of the antecedent, pointing out one particular object or a group of objects. Cf.:

A red sports car, which seemed to be doing at least a hundred miles an hour, shot past us.

Be careful. The car that overtook us a few minutes ago has now been stopped by the police.

In the first sentence, the non-restrictive clause gives additional information about the antecedent, and this additional element is separated from the rest of the sentence by a break in intonation and by commas in writing. The restrictive clause in the second sentence, on the other hand, has a purely identifying function, singling out the referent of the antecedent in the given situation. There is no pause between the restrictive clause and the rest of the sentence and it is not separated by a comma from the principal clause because of its close connection with it.

Nouns modified by restrictive attributive clauses are used with the definite article:

Where is the book (which / that) I bought this morning?

Is that the man (who / whom / that) I saw in the morning?

Can you show me the house that / which Shakespeare lived in?

The use of the restrictive attributive clause implies the idea of «*тот* самый, *который*», «*именно тот / этот*». Non-restrictive attributive clauses do not seem to affect the choice of the article which is determined by other factors (the context and other attributes). The same article would be used if there were no descriptive clause:

She told me that she had discovered a wonderful young man, who was going to help her in the East End.

In Russian, the antecedent in this case can be modified by the words «*такой, который*», «*такого рода / типа, который*».

It should be noted that, since the difference between descriptive and restrictive clauses lies in their functions, there is a possibility of one and the same clause unit being used in both capacities, depending on the context. Cf.:

*At last we found a place where we could make a fire.
The place where we could make a fire was not a lucky one.*

To the category of attributive clauses belongs also a vast set of appositive clauses that disclose the meaning of the antecedent in the context. The antecedent is usually an abstract count noun like *fact*, *idea*, *question*, *plan*, *suggestion*, *feeling*, *sense*, etc. Appositive clauses are generally introduced by the conjunction *that*, occasionally by the conjunction *whether* or the connectives *how* and *why*. Appositive clauses chiefly function as limiting modifiers and therefore the antecedent is used with the definite article:

He was under the impression that an attempt was going to be made to convict him.

That is the reason why so few people come here.

However, the noun is sometimes used with the indefinite article:

I have a feeling that he is bringing trouble and misery with him into the house.

Unique reference. The definite article can also indicate unique reference. Identification is based on the uniqueness of an object or event. The group of nouns with unique reference is rather limited: *the sun*, *the moon*, *the stars*, *the sky*, *the earth*, *the world*, *the Universe*, *the planets*, *the equator*, *the north pole*, *the south pole*, *the solar system*, *the weather*, *the devil*, *the pope* and some others:

Have you ever seen the sun, the moon, and the stars in the sky together?

Driving west you were driving against the sun.

It should be noted that identification does not entirely depend on the uniqueness of these objects since they can be easily identified by the context/situation in the environment they share:

The sun was setting, the sky to the west was streaked with red and orange.

In some respects, unique nouns are like proper nouns, which also typically refer to only one entity or set of entities. There is a tendency to use a capital letter with some of them, especially *devil*, *earth*, *equator*, *north pole*, *south pole* and *pope*:

Talk of the Devil and he is sure to appear.

When a particular feature of the entity in question is stated, the indefinite article is used and the noun is usually modified by a descriptive attribute:

Over Kingsmarkham they could see the patches of sky showing between the great banks of cumulus, a fresh bright sky that was almost green.

A pearl-white moon smiled through the green trees.

Note the indefinite article in *It's a small world — Mup mecen. Earth* is very often used without an article, especially after the preposition *on: the smallest nation on earth.*

Generic reference. The generic definite article indicates reference to a whole class of referents; it is used to denote a genus taken as a whole, or a thing taken as a type:

The cuckoo is a lazy bird.

The horse and mule live for forty years.

The compass was invented in ancient China.

The tragedy and the comedy first appeared in Greece.

1. Only a semantically limited group of nouns tends to be used generically. We find here mainly names of animals, plants, professions and occupations, scientific terms and some other semantic groups:

There was nothing of the artist in her.

The rogue, like the artist and perhaps the gentleman, belongs to no class.

When the noun *man* is used with generic reference there is no article:

I wonder who it was who defined man as a rational animal. It was the most premature definition ever given. Man is many things, but he is not rational.

The man is never used for generic reference. *A man* is sometimes used, but this often sounds old-fashioned. The noun *woman* with generic reference is used with the definite article or, occasionally, without any article:

He had always been interested in that mysterious being — the woman.

That awful memory of woman! What a fearful thing it is.

Generic NPs are mainly characteristic of scientific and literary prose where there is a need for generalization. In some contexts both universal and generic NPs can be used; though they seem to be interchangeable, there is still some difference between them. Thus, we can say *The tiger is a wild animal* and *A tiger is a wild animal*. The universal indefinite NP presents the referent of the noun as an individual specimen of a class while the generic definite NP denotes the whole class, especially when used to distinguish one class from another:

The housewife has a harder life than the office-worker.

It is possible to replace *the housewife* by *a housewife* or *housewives* in the above sentence, with appropriate grammatical changes

elsewhere in the sentence, but the sentence with the generic definite NP follows a pattern commonly used when a generalization is made about a whole class of people, animals, plants or inanimate objects. Thus, the indefinite article is not possible in the following examples:

The cat has been a domestic animal for thousands of years.
The olive grows only in warm countries.

2. Generic reference is also indicated by the use of the definite article with substantivized adjectives and -ed participles. The semantic group of adjectives thus substantivized is very limited. The following singular non-personal abstract adjectives are often used after the definite article: *evil, bizarre, inevitable, possible, unbelievable, exotic, new, ridiculous, unexpected, impossible, obvious, sublime, unknown, incredible, old, supernatural, unreal, unthinkable*:

Politics is the art of the possible.
He always had a love for the concrete.
They must have had very fair notions of the artistic and the beautiful.

Plural personal (*the French* = the French nation; *the rich* = those who are rich) adjectives and participles most frequently used in this way are: *aged, elderly, needy, starving, blind, free, old, strong, brave, handicapped, oppressed, uneducated, dead, homeless, poor, unemployed, deaf, hungry, powerful, weak, disabled, injured, rich, wealthy, educated, living, sick, wounded, young*:

The old could not help the young.
The strongest have their hours of depression.
The Spanish and the Portuguese developed the caravel for coastal trade in the Atlantic.

3. The definite article indicates generic reference when it is used with collective nouns: *the aristocracy, the bourgeoisie, the police, the nobility, etc.*:

He is probably a member of the aristocracy.
The class struggle between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat found no reflection in Thackeray's novels.

Generic reference is also indicated when the definite article is used with plural count nouns when the idea of collectivity is definitely emphasized, suggesting "the whole body of": *the Russians, the Germans, the Americans, the Catholics, the peasants, the workers, the Tories, the Liberals, the Impressionists, etc.*:

The Italians are a wonderfully hospitable people.
Until about 1920, the two main parties were the Conservatives and the Liberals, but during the period following the First

World War, the Labour party replaced the Liberals as the second main party.

The generic definite article is found with names of nationalities, representatives of political parties, classes, social groups and religious beliefs only when the whole body is meant; when separate, individual representatives are referred to, no article is used:

"Do you know why Americans like fried stuff?" John asked.

"Do you notice the way Italians drive?" Maurice asked. "Well", Jack said, "It's better than the way Frenchmen drive".

2.1.2. The Use of Articles with Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns fall into two large categories: abstract count nouns and abstract non-count (mass) nouns. The dividing line between count and mass nouns is not always easy to draw. Among abstract nouns there are many with dual class membership. They often have considerable difference in meaning. Cf.:

<i>travel faster than sound</i>	— <i>hear an irritating sound,</i>
<i>Beauty is to be admired</i>	— <i>She was a beauty,</i>
<i>speak with decision</i>	— <i>make a difficult decision,</i>
<i>walk in silence</i>	— <i>speak after a long silence.</i>

Abstract count nouns (e. g. *answer, belief, doubt, effort, fact, opinion, idea, job, lie, plan, question, visit*) can be used both in the singular and in the plural. The use of articles with abstract count nouns is practically the same as with concrete count (class) nouns:

What if it's a lie?

You could have a very happy life with her.

He always has such brilliant ideas!

The child knew the story/the stories she told.

Abstract non-count nouns (e. g. *anger, chemistry, impatience, jealousy, modesty, pride, relief, violence*) are used in the singular only.

1. When abstract non-count nouns have generic reference, they are used without any article. This is the case when a certain quality (state, action) as such is meant:

Experience is the power of wisdom.

Knowledge is power.

She had attached herself to youth and hope and seriousness and they had failed her more than age and despair.

Abstract nouns with generic reference are often used in attributive and adverbial prepositional phrases after *of, with, in*:

*A sudden feeling of uneasiness came over him.
She was fighting down the rising feeling of panic.
Four pairs of eyes were on him, black with suspicion and accusation.
He turned round in annoyance, and then walked away.*

The tendency to use the noun in attributive and adverbial prepositional phrases without an article is so strong that even count nouns may have no article in these functions: *a man of principle, a woman of feeling, a carpet of colour*, etc.

Generally, no article is used when the abstract noun is modified by a descriptive attribute:

*His mouth fell open and he stared at her in startled amazement.
His small clear voice was heavy with passionate determination.
There was a look of mingled ferocity and stupidity about him.*

We find no article if the attribute qualifies the noun from the point of view of **nationality** and **geography**: *English literature, French poetry, Russian painting, Moscow time; time: modern physics, contemporary art, ancient sculpture; degree and authenticity: great value, perfect surprise, sheer delight, complete satisfaction, infinite fatigue, real importance, genuine sorrow:*

*For once he showed real irritation.
It gives me great pleasure.
When I heard the news, I felt perfect relief.*

The definite article is used when these nouns are also modified by the limiting of-phrase: *the English literature of the 19th century, the French poetry of that period*, etc.

2. Abstract non-count nouns can be used with the indefinite article when they are modified by descriptive attributes which bring out a special aspect of the quality, feeling, state, etc. expressed by the noun. This use of the indefinite article may be called **aspective:**

*She looked several years younger and there was a new dignity about her.
In a wild relief he put his hands to his face.
Then the two women smiled at each other with a curious tenderness.*

Some grammarians point out that the use of the indefinite article in such cases seems to be optional and depends on the intention of the speaker to lay particular stress on the special aspect (**некий, какой-то**) expressed by the attribute modifying the noun. The indefinite article seems to be obligatory when the abstract noun is modified by the adjectives *certain, curious, peculiar* or by a descriptive attributive clause:

You have a curious influence over me.

The girl interrupted him with a certain impatience in her voice.

He had a patience which amazed his friends.

His face had a calmness that was new to her.

The use of the indefinite article when the abstract noun has no attribute is rare:

When I arrived that afternoon it was to find them waiting for me and I sensed an impatience in them both.

3. Abstract nouns in specific use take the definite article. Identification is based on the linguistic context or the situation of utterance.

Identification can be made by something already said, i. e. by prior mention:

I feel just a little giddy... I will just sit here quietly till the giddiness wears off.

When the definite article is used anaphorically, the antecedent need not necessarily be a word (a noun, an adjective or a verb) of the same root with the abstract noun. The definiteness can be clear from the prior context as a whole:

*She shuddered, took a step forward, collapsed on the floor...
And then the faintness came over her once more — waves upon waves of sickness.*

A moment afterwards the lights suddenly went out. In the darkness we felt lost.

Identification can also be made by something about to be said. This is the case when the abstract noun is modified by some limiting attribute in post-position. The definite article indicates that the abstract notion is used in a limited sense: it denotes a particular instance of the notion expressed by the noun. The particularizing attribute can be presented in different ways:

a) by a limiting of-phrase; cf.:

Your lack of imagination (generic reference) is going to make you absolutely a sitting target.

A criminal of the imagination of U. N. Owen (specific reference) can run rings round you any time he — or she — wants to.

I was wrapped in the security of childhood.

I was torn between the fear of hurting a nice woman's feelings and the fear of being in the way.

b) by a restrictive attributive clause:

*I couldn't help showing the resentment which flared up within me.
His apologetic laugh did not disguise the pleasure that he felt.*

Identification can result from the whole situation of utterance:

And how did you like the music?

The weather is changing for the better.

He felt no inclination to sleep. The menace was very near now.

4. Some abstract nouns are never used with the indefinite article: *weather, money, news, work, luck, fun*, and some others:

It was raw weather.

What wretched weather we are having!

Cf.: *What's the weather like today?*

The weather will clear.

I've got bad news for you.

Bad news travels fast.

Cf.: *What's the news?*

The news is very depressing today.

He started work at six.

It was weary, weary work.

Cf.: *I was trying not to think about the work I was set to do⁵.*

At first I found it difficult to understand English money.

That's hard luck.

We hid his watch for fun.

The rule applies also to the following nouns of verbal character denoting action or process: *advice, applause, assistance, admiration, guidance, information, permission, progress, recognition, research* and some others:

I'm not the man to give you advice.

If you want to leave early, you have to ask for permission.

They'll tell you all you want to know. They'll give you plenty of information.

Cf.: *With the permission of Madden, he took her little car and sped towards Eldorado.*

The information they received allowed them to prepare a new defence position.

5. Some syntactic structures affect the use of articles. Such nouns as *pity, pleasure, comfort, relief, shame* and some others generally tend to be non-count, but in certain constructions they are regularly used with the indefinite article:

a) structures with the formal *it* as subject:

It's a shame to act like this.

It's a pleasure to see you.

⁵ Note that the noun *work* can be used with the indefinite article in the meaning of "a thing made", "a book or piece of literary or musical composition", "a literary or other product of", "a specimen of": *Miss Tray says the portrait was the best thing she had ever done. That means it was a really great work.*

b) structures with the exclamatory *what*:

What a pity!
What a relief!

2.1.3. The Use of Articles with Concrete Non-Count Nouns

Most concrete mass nouns do not have plural forms and are never used with the indefinite article. Yet the English language makes it possible to view the same object from the point of view of both count and mass, as in the case of *cake*; cf.: *I'd like a cake*; *I'd like some cake*. There are many nouns with dual class membership which often have considerable difference in meaning in the two classes. Cf.:

read an evening paper — *wrap up a present in brown paper*,
see two little lambs — *eat New Zealand lamb*,
press clothes with an iron — *use tools made of iron*.

1. When concrete mass nouns have generic reference, they are used without any article. This is the case with mass nouns referring to the whole class, e. g. when a particular material is used in an indefinite or unidentified amount:

This is lead, not silver.
Blood is thicker than water.
It was not built of brick or lofty stone, but of wood and plaster.
On the journey he drank tea, but in the cabin it was thick coffee with sugar and tinned milk.

Concrete mass nouns take no article when they are modified by descriptive attributes:

He sat there for a long time, drinking cup after cup of strong black tea.
The men moved heavily as though they were walking in thick mud.

Names of material can change their meaning and become count nouns when particular types, units or measures are meant:

They are now serving very bad teas at the club.
"And now," announced Vernier, "the king of wines. There never was a better wine than Chambertin, and there never was a better Chambertin than nineteen-eleven."
If you want to please the boy, buy him an ice.
Jim talks a lot about the wine he drank, but if you ask me, he'd rather have an ice-cream soda.

There are different conventional units and containers for different drinks and substances: e. g. for whisky the usual container is a glass but the quantity varies. So *a whisky* means a small glass, not a bottle. A *beer* can mean a glass, can, or bottle of beer. The nouns most frequently used in this way are: *beer, coke, rum, vodka, brandy, gin, sherry, whisky, coffee, lager, tea, yoghurt*:

What would you like? — A lager would be delicious.

Note that this use is restricted to pubs, cafés and restaurants. For example, you might ask for two teas in a café, but people in their own home would probably say, *Would you like some tea?* or *Would you like a cup of tea?* rather than *Would you like a tea?*

2. In specific use, i. e. when a definite part of the substance is meant, concrete mass nouns take the definite article. Identification is based on the linguistic context or situation of utterance and can be made by something already said (by prior mention):

Here's a glass, some water and three coins. Watch! I pour the water into the glass, then drop the coins one by one into the water.

She brought him milk to drink, and food; he couldn't touch the food, but he drank the milk greedily.

I walked into the dining room, gave Caroline the accustomed peck on the cheek, and sat down to eggs and bacon. The bacon was rather cold.

Identification can also be made by something about to be said when names of material are modified by a particularizing attribute in the form of a prepositional phrase or an attributive clause:

The water in this glass has now turned pink.

The wine on the table was served in pretty glasses.

"This Montrachet," he said, as he poured the fragrant golden wine that accompanied the lobster, "beats any other wine in the world."

The master... having scooped up an immense spoonful of the fat which had dripped drop by drop from the roasting birds, poured it tenderly over them.

Identification can result from the whole situation of utterance:

Pass me the salt, please.

Let's start our breakfast. The coffee will be cold.

Vera and Emily Brent were busy, Miss Brent was raking out the stove. Vera was cutting the rind off the bacon.

Summing up the most important rules regulating the use of articles with **common nouns** we can say the following.

The indefinite article is mainly used with count nouns (concrete and abstract) to indicate indefinite reference.

The indefinite article in its main **classifying** function is mostly found with predicative and appositive nouns; with plural nouns no article is used.

The indefinite article in its **nominating** function is often found with noun objects in comparison; with plural nouns *some* or no article is used.

The indefinite article often occurs with noun subjects in introductory sentences to name a person or object which is usually new to the hearer, and in existential sentences in which something is stated as present, or existent.

The original numerical meaning of the indefinite article is generally found with nouns denoting time, measure and weight, some numerals and in certain set phrases.

Sentences with the generic indefinite article express some generalization implying that what is said about one representative of a class can be applied to all the specimens of the class.

The definite article is widely used with all types of common nouns, count and mass.

The chief function of the definite article is to indicate specific definite reference. Identification can be based on linguistic context. This includes the so-called "prior-mention", or anaphoric use of the definite article, when the definite NP recalls some antecedent, and various kinds of limiting modifiers in pre- and postposition to the NP: adjectives in the superlative degree, ordinal numerals, limiting adjectives; prepositional *of*-phrases and limiting (restrictive) attributive clauses, etc.

Identification can also result from the situation in which the utterance is made, including those cases when the speaker refers to some object he assumes the hearer can identify in the environment they share, or when the speaker and hearer have shared knowledge which serves to make the reference unambiguous.

The definite article can indicate generic reference of count nouns; it is used to denote a genus taken as a whole, a thing taken as a type, a genre. Mass nouns with generic reference take no article.

2.1.4. The Use of Articles with Predicative and Appositive Nouns

1. As a rule, predicative and appositive nouns are used with the classifying indefinite article which shows that the speaker is characterizing a person (object or event) as a specimen of a certain class of thing. With plural nouns no article is used:

She is really an excellent creature — but a complete fool, as I said.

I had several companions and they have all been complete fools.

Within a fortnight the first visitor arrived in the person of Mrs Jacob Stendhal, a woman of considerable importance in this particular section.

2. If there is a limiting modifier, predicative and appositive nouns are used with the definite article:

He is the only person here with medical knowledge.

Philip had been the hero of his childhood.

Across from him sat Delaney, the producer of the picture.

For some days Hotchkinson, the solicitor to whom Eden had deputed the case, sent me no news.

3. If predicative and appositive nouns denote a position (rank, state, post or occupation) which is unique, i. e. can be occupied by only one person at a time, either no article or the definite article is used:

Mr Henderson is manager, not under-manager any longer.

Doris was secretary to a member of parliament.

His ideal was professor Edward Edwards, head of the Department of Chemistry.

Half a mile from the cottage there was a school — the Gables — where Harold Stackhurst, the headmaster, and several other teachers, taught the students and prepared them for various professions.

The definite article tends to be left out in sentences like:

It was nearly 40 years before she became Queen.

When he was President, he often longed for more privacy.

As some grammars point out, it would be unnatural to put in the definite article and say *She became the Queen* or *When he was the President*, though the article can be used when the noun is followed by *of*. Note that when talking about a person rather than describing someone's role you need an article:

The Queen is strongly against the project.

4. Variants are possible with predicative nouns after the verbs *appoint*, *choose* and some others. Cf.:

They appointed him a member of the delegation.

They appointed him secretary of the new committee.

They chose him as chairman of the Society.

He was elected (the) President of the country.

Note the absence of article in set expressions with the verb *turn*: *turn traitor*, *turn miser*, *turn pirate*.

5. The nouns *son* and *daughter* predicatively and appositively used, generally take the definite article when modified by an *of*-phrase if they express mere relationship:

She is the daughter of a doctor.

If the idea that there are several sons and daughters in the family is emphasized, the structure *one of* is commonly used:

She is one of the doctor's daughters.

When the stress is laid on the social position of the person in question, no article is used with appositive nouns::

Margaret, daughter of a history professor, was working as secretary to a Labour member.

6. No article is used in structures with *enough* where predicative nouns acquire an adjectival character, denoting a certain characteristic of the person in question:

Surely Bolla isn't fool enough to believe that sort of stuff?

7. The article is also omitted when predicative nouns are used in clauses of concession with inverted word order:

Child as he was, his judgement was sound.

8. If the appositive noun denotes a well-known person or work of art, the definite article is generally used:

John Galsworthy, the famous English writer, was of a Devonshire family.

But if the person or work of art is not widely known, the indefinite article is used.

"Pericles", a comedy by Shakespeare, is hardly ever staged.

2.1.5. The Use of Articles in some Set Expressions

2.1.5.1. Nouns in Set Expressions Used with the Indefinite Article

<i>to be at a loss</i>	растеряться, быть в замешательстве
<i>to be/get in a fury (in a rage)</i>	быть/прийти в бешенство
<i>to fly into a passion</i>	прийти в бешенство
<i>to have a good time</i>	хорошо провести время
<i>it is a pleasure</i>	приятно
<i>it is a shame</i>	стыдно
<i>all of a sudden</i>	неожиданно
<i>a great/good deal of (with non-count nouns)</i>	много
<i>a great many (with count nouns)</i>	много
<i>to take a fancy to</i>	увлечься, проникнуться симпатией

<i>to take an interest in</i>	интересоваться
<i>in a low/loud voice</i>	тихо/громко
<i>to have a mind to do something</i>	склоняться что-л. сделать
<i>to put an end to</i>	положить конец
<i>to come to an end</i>	закончиться

2.1.5.2. Nouns in Set Expressions Used with the Definite Article

<i>to tell/speak the truth</i>	говорить правду; по правде говоря
<i>in the original</i>	в оригинале (подлиннике)
<i>on the whole</i>	в целом
<i>to play the piano / the violin</i>	играть на рояле / на скрипке
<i>the other day (referring to the past)</i>	на днях
<i>on the one hand</i>	с одной стороны
<i>on the other hand</i>	с другой стороны
<i>to take the trouble to do something</i>	потрудиться
<i>to be on the safe side</i>	на всякий случай
<i>at the beginning</i>	в начале
<i>at the end</i>	в конце
<i>in the singular</i>	в единственном числе
<i>in the plural</i>	во множественном числе
<i>in the distance</i>	вдали
<i>to be on the point of</i>	собираться сделать что-л.
<i>to be in the habit of</i>	иметь привычку
<i>it is out of the question</i>	об этом не может быть и речи

2.1.5.3. Nouns in Set Expressions Used without an Article

<i>at night</i>	ночью
<i>at sunrise</i>	на рассвете
<i>at sunset</i>	на закате
<i>at peace</i>	в мире
<i>at work</i>	за работой
<i>at hand</i>	близко, под рукой
<i>at first sight</i>	с первого взгляда
<i>to keep house</i>	вести хозяйство
<i>to make haste</i>	торопиться
<i>to make use of</i>	использовать
<i>from time to time</i>	время от времени
<i>from head to foot</i>	с ног до головы

<i>from morning till night</i>	с утра до ночи
<i>to give/get, ask for/ permission</i>	дать/получить/просить разрешение
<i>to take notice on</i>	замечать
<i>to catch sight of</i>	увидеть
<i>by name</i>	по имени
<i>by mistake</i>	по ошибке
<i>by chance</i>	случайно
<i>by land</i>	сушей, по суше
<i>by sea</i>	морем
<i>by air</i>	по воздуху
<i>to go to sea</i>	стать моряком
<i>on deck</i>	на палубе
<i>to take offence</i>	обидеться
<i>to take care of</i>	заботиться

2.1.6. The Use of Articles with some Semantic Groups of Nouns

2.1.6.1. Articles with Names of Seasons and Parts of the Day

1. Names of seasons (*spring, summer, autumn, winter*) and parts of the day (*day, night, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, dawn, sunrise, sunset* and the like) take no article when used predicatively:

It was summer/autumn/morning/evening/night.

No article is used when such nouns are modified by the adjectives *early, late, broad, high*, which do not describe any season or part of the day but indicate the time more precisely:

It was early morning/spring.

It was late evening/autumn.

It was high noon. It was broad day.

2. When the names of seasons and parts of the day are modified by a descriptive attribute, they are used with the indefinite article:

It was a fine clear morning. We had a short summer this year.

It was a foggy evening in November.

He returned on a bright January morning.

3. The definite article is found with names of seasons and parts of the day in specific use, i. e. when some particular day, night, summer or spring is meant:

On the evening of departure the whole village turned out to give us the promised farewell dinner.

I shall not forget the evening I spent with him.

By the summer of 1943, Penny felt as though the war had been going on for ever.

In all these sentences the nouns in question have a limiting modifier. The nouns in the following sentences are made definite by the situation of utterance:

The day was hot and muggy.

The night was warm and beautifully still.

She went to Scotland for the summer.

He cleaned the barn for the winter.

Note the absence of articles in the following structures:

Night/morning came at last.

Day/dawn was breaking when we set out.

Night/twilight was falling quickly.

4. The use of articles with names of seasons seems to be optional in combination with such verbs as *come*, *approach*, *pass*, *be over*, *come to an end*, *set in* and some other phrases. In such instances reference can be made to a particular season (specific use) or to any season in general (generic use):

(The) winter came early that year.

(The) summer was over but we had not heard from him yet.

In those parts (the) spring usually sets in early.

(The) winter is very long here.

The definite article is also optional in adverbial prepositional phrases:

In (the) autumn young Ben was to go to a prep school.

5. There are a number of prepositional phrases in which either the definite article or no article is used: *in the morning*, *early in the morning*, *in the evening*, *in the daytime*, *in the afternoon*, *in the night*, *all through the day*, *through the autumn*, *for the winter*, *during the summer*, *at night*, *at dawn*, *before dawn*, *after sunset*, *from morning to night*, *late at night*, *day after day*, *night after night*.

2.1.6.2. Articles with Names of Meals

1. Names of meals (*breakfast*, *lunch*, *dinner*, *supper*, *tea*) usually take no article:

Dinner is ready.

Breakfast tomorrow will be at 8 o'clock.

They finished supper in silence.

2. When names of meals are modified by a descriptive attribute, they are used with the indefinite article:

*I saw to it that he had a good dinner.
He ordered a modest lunch.
I want you to have a nice breakfast.*

3. When a particular meal is meant the definite article is used. Specific reference is made clear by the context or situation:

*He was eating greedily the lunch his mother had given him.
The dinner was very sound.*

4. Names of meals may denote dinner party, tea party, etc., thus becoming count nouns; the use of articles is then the same as with other count nouns:

Why not give a dinner in his honour?

We had a dinner last night.

She... began to dress for the dinner to which she had been invited.

2.1.6.3. Articles with the Nouns SCHOOL, COLLEGE, PRISON, JAIL, CHURCH, HOSPITAL

These nouns are used without any article when the general idea of these places is meant, i. e. the purpose they are used for. Thus we say *A child goes to school; A student goes to university/college; A criminal goes to prison, etc.*:

Why aren't the children at school today? (as pupils)

Mrs Kelly goes to church every Sunday. (for a religious service)

Ken's brother is in prison for robbing. (he is a prisoner)

Two people were injured in the accident and were taken to hospital. (as patients)

Cf.: *Mr Kelly went to the school to meet his daughter's teacher.*

Excuse me, where's the university, please?

The workmen went to the church to repair the roof.

Ken went to the prison to visit his brother.

Nora is now working as a cleaner at a hospital.

2.1.6.4. Articles with Names of Parts of the Body

Possessive pronouns, not articles, are generally used to modify nouns denoting parts of the body, personal belongings and the like:

The man stood frowning, his hands in his pockets.

She wore a string of pearls round her neck.

I sprained my ankle skiing in the mountains.

However, the definite article is used in prepositional phrases associated with the object or, in passive constructions, with the subject:

*The woman took the boy by the hand.
The dog bit her on the leg.
He was congratulated and slapped on the back.*

The definite article is also used when a touch, blow or pain is referred to:

She had a pain in the side.

2.1.6.5. Articles with the Names of Specific Periods

Names of decades, centuries, and historic periods referring to only one particular period have the definite article: *the nineteen-eighties, the twentieth century, the iron/bronze age*:

Her best novels were written in the eighties of the nineteenth century.

Past, present and future generally take the definite article:

I'm not making any plans for the future now; I only think about the present or remember the past.

Present and future can be used after at and in respectively without any article:

Try to remember it in future.

It's not possible to grant your request at present, I'm afraid.

In American English *in the future* is more common than *in future*.

2.1.6.6. Articles with Names of Media and Communications

When referring to radio or television as a form of entertainment or communication we can use the definite article or no article:

People are strongly influenced by the press, the television and the radio in their judgements and attitudes.

I just heard him speaking on the radio.

He has acquired great popularity as a preacher on radio.

It's not so easy to write plays for television.

The abbreviations TV and telly can be used in the same way, although TV tends to occur without an article in this sense:

What's on TV?

The definite article is always used in *to listen to the radio* but not in *to watch television (TV)*.

When *telephone* or *phone* refers to a means of communication, the definite article is used:

A large part of a secretary's day is spent on the telephone.
I haven't seen him for ages, but I'm regularly on the phone with him.

No article is used in the expressions *by telephone* and *by phone*.

When *radio*, *television (TV)* and *telephone (phone)* denote actual objects, they behave like other class nouns:

There's a nice photo of her on the television / on the TV.
I used to have a radio in the kitchen but I never remembered to turn it on.

She reached for the telephone and dialled her daughter's number.

The newspapers and *the papers* are used to refer to newspapers as a form of media; the meaning is similar to *the press*:

What will happen to her if the story appears in the papers?

Note the use of *the paper* to mean newspapers generally, not one particular newspaper:

This is what we read in the paper.

The definite article is generally used with *cinema* and *theatre*:

She lives in the country now but comes to London every week or so to go to the cinema or the theatre.

However, the article can be dropped to refer to these institutions as art forms or professions:

Cinema is different from theatre in several ways.

2.1.7. The Place of Articles

In the vast majorities of cases the article is placed at the beginning of the NP it modifies. However, there are instances where the position of the article is different.

1. The definite article follows the attribute expressed by *both*, *all* and *double*:

She closed both the shutters.
I offered him double the price but he refused.
To music she gave all the hours she could spare.

2. The definite and indefinite articles follow *half* and *twice*:

It took him half an hour to get there.
I'm ready to pay twice the price.

3. The indefinite article follows *quite*, *such* and *what*:

It took us quite a long time to talk him out of it.
She is such a bore!

4. The indefinite article is placed in mid-position between the adjective and the noun after *so*, *too* and *as*:

It was unlikely that so large a family would all go bankrupt.
That was too easy a way out.
He had given his guests as good a time as he could.

5. The indefinite article either precedes or follows *rather*:

She seemed to take rather a fancy to me.
Mrs Todgers was a lady, a rather bony hard-featured lady.

2.1.8. Leaving out Articles

1. Articles can be left out in notes, notices, instructions, signs, labels, newspaper headlines, telegrams, etc., which are to be shortened for reasons of space:

Fax specification immediately.
Private road.
File not found.
Leader makes statement.
Terrorists gun down priest.

2. No article is used in double expressions, i. e. before two (or more) nouns referring to a human couple, or to a pair of inanimate objects or to a larger group, particularly after prepositions; note that the nouns often contrast in meaning:

The independent allowances for husband and wife will both be available.
They kept the treasure under lock and key, day and night.

3. When two nouns, both acting as head of a noun group, are joined together with *and* or *or*; the second noun can be without its article (definite or indefinite):

She took great pride in the beauty and cleverness of her only child.
You can order traveller's cheques through a local bank or travel agent.

It is not obligatory to leave out the second article, but, as some grammar books point out, the two nouns must be closely related in meaning. Thus, sentences like *There was a matchbox and jacket on the table* would be regarded as ungrammatical.

4. In informal spoken English, articles are left out in introductory phrases like *Fact is... Truth is... Thing is... Trouble is...*:

Truth is, I can't stand the sight of her.

5. Common nouns used to address a person or an animal take no article.

Very well, doctor, I'll follow all your instructions.

Some vocatives sound familiar or peremptory:

That's right, girl!

Come here, young man!

2.2. ARTICLES WITH PROPER NOUNS

Proper nouns are individual names of specific people (*Paul, Shakespeare*), countries and cities (*England, Paris*), months and days of the week (*August, Monday*) and so forth. The main classes of proper nouns are: personal names, calendar items and geographical names.

2.2.1. Personal Names

1. Normally, a personal name, being the name of someone imagined as unique needs no determiner:

Anthony shrugged his shoulders.

Philip Lombard grinned.

Family relations with unique reference (*Mother, Mummy, Mom, Father, Daddy, Dad, Uncle, Aunt, Grandmother, Grandfather, baby, nurse, cook*) behave like proper nouns. They are treated as such by the members of the family and are usually written with the capital letter:

"I'd like to see Mother," said Emily.

Cf.: *The father was the tallest in the family.*

Personal names with appositive titles take no article: *Lord Byron, Professor Higgins, Dr Watson, President Lincoln, Colonel Brown*. No article is used in combinations like *Aunt Polly*.

2. The definite article is used:

a) with a family name in the plural denoting the whole family:

The Forsytes were resentful of something, not individually, but as a family.

We had dined with the Quaifes several times before.

b) when names of persons are modified by a particularizing attribute (a limiting of-phrase or a restrictive attributive clause):

This Pat wasn't at all like the Pat of his memories.

This was not the Simon he had known so long.

- c) when names of persons are modified by descriptive attributes indicating a permanent quality of the person in question:

At that moment they were interrupted by the gentle Mrs Shobbe.

No article is used when names of persons are modified by the adjectives *little, old, young, dear, poor, honest*:

Old Jolyon invited him in, but Young Jolyon shook his head.

- d) when the speaker wishes to emphasize that the person named is the very one that everybody knows:

You say Shakespeare lived here. Do you mean the Shakespeare or somebody else? (The definite article here is strongly stressed and pronounced [ði:]).

Who is this? — Good heavens, don't you know? It is the great Einstein!

3. The indefinite article is used:

- a) to indicate that one member of the family is meant:

His mother was a Devereux: Lady Margaret Devereux.

When a Forsyte was engaged, married or born, the Forsytes were present;

- b) to indicate a certain person, normally unknown to the hearer:

At a table in a corner the Colonel was introduced to a Mrs Bilst and a Mrs Peek.

I'm spending the day with a Miss Warren.

4. Proper names can be converted into common nouns indicating concrete objects or someone having characteristics of the person named. In this case they take the article according to the general rule:

Lanny has sold them an especially fine Goya.

Bert Smith had a Volvo, and he drove swiftly and well.

If you are a Napoleon, you will play the game of power; if you are a Leonardo, you will play for knowledge; the stakes hardly matter.

"I don't pretend to be a great painter," he said, "I'm not a Michael Angelo, no, but I have something."

2.2.2. Geographical Names

1. Names of continents, countries, states, cities and towns are normally used without articles. No article is used either when they have premodifying adjectives as in:

(North) America	(modern) France
(South) Africa	(old) England
(Central) Australia	(ancient) Rome
(Medieval) Europe	(industrial) Staffordshire

2. Some names of countries, provinces and cities are traditionally used with the definite article:

<i>the Argentine</i> (but Argentina)	<i>the Ukraine</i>
<i>the Lebanon</i>	<i>the United States of America</i>
<i>the Netherlands</i>	<i>the Crimea</i>
<i>the Senegal</i>	<i>the Caucasus</i>
<i>(the) Congo</i>	<i>the Ruhr</i>
<i>the Tyrol</i>	<i>the Hague</i>

3. Geographical names modified by particularizing attributes (a limiting *of*-phrase or a restrictive attributive clause) are used with the definite article:

Did he quite understand the England of today?

The Philadelphia into which Frank Cowperwood was born was a city of two hundred and fifty thousand and more.

This is the booming, rapidly expanding London of the 1860's.

4. The indefinite article is found when a geographical name is modified by a descriptive attribute bringing out a certain aspect:

You haven't come to a very cheerful England.

5. Names of oceans, seas, rivers and lakes usually take the definite article:

<i>the Atlantic</i> (Ocean)	<i>the Mediterranean Sea</i>
<i>the Pacific</i> (Ocean)	<i>the Black Sea</i>
<i>the Indian Ocean</i>	<i>the Red Sea</i>
<i>the Baltic</i> (Sea)	<i>the Volga</i>
<i>the Thames</i>	<i>the Amazon</i>
<i>the Baikal</i>	<i>the Ontario etc.</i>

No article is used when names of lakes are preceded by the noun *lake*: *Lake Baikal*, *Lake Ontario*, *Lake Ladoga*.

6. Names of deserts are generally used with the definite article: *the Sahara*, *the Gobi*, *the Kara-Kum*.

7. Names of mountain chains and groups of islands are used with the definite article: *the Alps*, *the Andes*, *the Urals*; *the Bermudas*, *the Canaries*, *the West Indies*, etc.

8. Names of mountain peaks and separate islands are used without articles: *Elbrus*, *Everest*, *Mont Blanc*; *Madagascar*, *Sicily*.

9. Note the pattern *the + common noun + of + proper noun* in: *the Cape of Good Hope, the Gulf of Mexico, the Gulf of Finland, the City of New York, the Bay of Biscay, the Lake of Geneva*, etc.

10. Names of universities where the first part is a place-name usually have two forms: *the University of London* (which is the official name) and *London University*. Universities named after a person have only the latter form: *Yale University, Brown University*.

2.2.3. Calendar Items

1. Names of months and days of the week generally take no article: *May, April, September, Monday, Wednesday, Friday*:

Slowly, slowly, the hours passed. Wednesday dragged on, and it was Thursday.

2. Names of days are used with the indefinite article when one of many Mondays, Fridays, etc. is meant. Cf.:

We met on Friday. — Мы встретились в пятницу.

We met on a Friday. — Мы встретились однажды в пятницу.

This was May; a Friday noon.

3. When names of months and days of the week are modified by a descriptive attribute, they are used with the indefinite article:

A cold May is the usual thing in these parts.

4. When the nouns in questions are modified by a particularizing attribute, the definite article is used:

Are you really getting married? — Yes. The first Saturday in May. Mrs Trotwood came on the Friday when David was born.

2.2.4. The Use of Articles with Miscellaneous Proper Names

1. Names of streets and parks are generally used without articles: *Oxford Street, Regent Street, Fleet Street, Wall Street, Pall Mall, Piccadilly; Trafalgar Square, Russell Square, Piccadilly Circus; Hyde Park, Central Park, Memorial Park*. Names of some streets are traditionally used with the definite article: *the Strand, the High Street*.

Names of locations and buildings that are used to refer metaphorically to political institutions stay as they are: *Whitehall, Downing Street, Westminster* (cf. also: *Washington, the Kremlin*).

Names of squares and parks in foreign countries are often used with the definite article: *the Red Square, the Gorky Park*.

2. Names of theatres, museums, picture galleries, concert halls, cinemas, clubs and hotels tend to be used with the definite article:

the Bolshoi Theatre, the Opera House, the Coliseum Theatre; the British Museum, the Oriental Arts Museum, the Hermitage; the National Gallery, the Tate (Gallery), the Tretyakov Gallery; the Festival Hall, the Albert Hall, the Carnegie Hall; the Empire, the Odeon, the Dominion; the National Liberal Club, the Rotary Club; the Ambassador Hotel, the Continental Hotel, the Savoy, the Ritz.

3. Some grammarians point out a growing tendency not to use articles with names of airports and railway stations: *London Airport, Moscow Airport, Victoria Station*.

4. Names of ships and boats are used with the definite article: *the Titanic, the Sedov*.

5. Names of newspapers and magazines are generally used with the definite article: *the Times, the Guardian, the Lancet, the Language*; some of them have no article: *Punch, Newsweek*.

6. Names of territories consisting of a word combination in which the last word is a common noun are generally used with the definite article: *the Lake District, the Yorkshire Forests, etc.*

7. Names of well-known organizations are typically used with the definite article which they keep when they are abbreviated: *The United Nations (the UN), the BBC, the Labour Party, the FBI, the EC*. If the abbreviation is pronounced as a word, there is no article: *NATO [nɔ:tou], UNICEF [ju:nisef]*.

Businesses and chains of shops are referred to with no article: *General Motors, Sony, Woolworths, Shell, Nissan, Singapore Airlines*.

If a word like *company* is used, then the definite article often occurs: *the Bell Telephone Company*.

8. Names of most political or government bodies and institutions have the definite article: *the House of Commons, the House of Lords, the House of Representatives, the Senate, the Department of Trade and Industry, the State Department, the Cabinet, the Bundestag*. The words *Parliament, Congress*, and the names of councils (*Kent County Council, Leeds City Council*) are used without articles.

9. Names of musical groups can have either no article or the definite article: *Queen, the Beatles, Dire Straits, the Supremes, Fleetwood Mac, the Rolling Stones, the Shadows, the Eurythmics, the Doors*.

10. Names of sporting events usually have the definite article: *the Olympic Games, the World Cup, the Superbowl, the Cup Final, the Boat Race, the Grand National, the British Open*, etc.

Names taken from the place where the event occurs are used with no article: *Wimbledon* (for tennis), *Ascot* and *Epsom* (for horse-racing events), *Henley* (for rowing).

11. Names of religious and other festivals take no article: *Christmas, Easter, Carnival, Corpus Christi, Ramadan, Midsummer's Day, Mother's Day, New Year's Day, Valentine's Day*.

There is no article in *Happy Easter!* The indefinite article is used in *I wish you a happy Easter* or *Did you have a good Easter?*

3. PRONOUNS

The status of the pronoun in the system of the parts of speech is a special one because some of the pronouns share the essential properties of nouns (e. g. *someone*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e. g. *this*). Since the categorial meaning of the pronoun is difficult to define, some scholars refuse to recognize pronouns as a separate part of speech and distribute them between nouns and adjectives. Most Modern English grammars, however, distinguish pronouns from both nouns and adjectives.

3.1. MEANING OF PRONOUNS

The meaning of pronouns is general and undetermined; their semantic interpretation depends on context. Pronouns point to things without naming them. This property is described as indication. Indication is considered to be the semantic foundation of another basic feature of pronouns: substitution. As substitutes, pronouns act as syntactic representatives of other parts of speech, taking on their meaning in context. This isolates all the heterogeneous groups of pronouns into a special set within the parts of speech.

3.2. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF PRONOUNS

In terms of form, pronouns fall into different types. Some of them are variable in form (*one/one's/ones*), and others are invariable (*something, which*). Variable pronouns express a number of grammatical categories. Some pronouns have the category of number, singular and plural (*this / these*), while others do not (*somebody*); some have the category of case (*she/her, everybody/everybody's*), while others have none.

In terms of their word-building structure, pronouns can have a base form consisting of a plain stem (*I, either, any, etc.*) or a derivational form, consisting of a stem and an affix (*theirs*). Two pro-

nouns have a **composite** structure (*each other, one another*). There are also **compound** pronouns, formed by putting together two stems (*everyone, something*, etc.). The combination of the negative pronoun *no* with the stems *-body* and *-thing* forms negative compounds. The negative pronouns *neither* and *none* are regarded as having a base form in present-day English, and the negative pronoun *no one* is either spelt as two words or hyphenated, being intermediate in structure between composite and compound pronouns.

3.3. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF PRONOUNS

Many pronouns function both as **determiners** modifying a noun (*this dog*) and as pronouns proper, or, without any noun (*which of the dogs*). Others can be determiners only (*every medal*) or substantives only (*he*). Thus, in a sentence, pronouns act as noun determiners or have the same syntactic functions as nouns:

Every cloud has a silver lining. (noun determiner)

Nobody wanted to leave. (subject)

Say something, please. (direct object)

What are you thinking about? (prepositional object)

He's a mere nobody. (predicative)

Besides, all *wh*-pronouns (*who, whose, what, which*), as well as the pronoun *that*, serve as **subordinators** (connectives) in complex sentences.

What can't be cured must be endured.

Many linguists share the view that no language variety is intrinsically superior to another.

There exist various classifications of pronouns. In the present outline, pronouns will be treated under the following headings.

Personal or central pronouns, with the subgroups of:

a) personal pronouns proper — *I, you, he, she, it, we, they;*

b) possessive pronouns — *my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs;*

c) reflexive pronouns — *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

Demonstrative pronouns — *this, that, these, those.*

Indefinite pronouns, with the subgroups of:

a) indefinite pronouns proper — *some, any, no; somebody, anybody, nobody; someone, anyone, no one, none; something, anything, nothing, one;*

b) distributive pronouns — *all, every, each, other, another, either, neither, both; everybody, everyone, everything.*

Reciprocal pronouns — *other, one another.*

Interrogative pronouns, which also function as relative words introducing phrases and clauses — *who, whose, what, which.*

3.4. GRAMMATICAL AND LEXICAL CATEGORIES OF PRONOUNS

3.4.1. The Category of Person

The grammatical category of person is peculiar to the central (i. e. personal, possessive and reflexive) pronouns. It is referred to as one of the shifter (or deictic) categories; the reference of deictic words varies in the process of communication with the shift of the speaker/ addressee and participant/non-participant roles. The central pronouns, expressing as they do the category of person, belong to deictic words, since their reference is determined by the act of communication: the first person denotes the speaker(s)/writer(s) of the utterance (*I, we*); the second person, the addressee(s), i. e. the hearer(s)/reader(s) (*you*) and the third person, a being/beings or thing(s) not involved in the act of communication (*he, she, it, they*). Besides, the referent of a third person pronoun can be determined by discourse, where the pronoun points back or forward to an antecedent expressed by a noun or another pronoun:

Elizabeth II was in her mid-twenties when she came to the throne.

When she came to the throne, Elizabeth II was in her mid-twenties.

These types of contextual reference, distinguished from deixis (or situational reference), are known as anaphoric and cataphoric reference, respectively. They are established not only by the third person central pronouns, but also by other subclasses of pronouns.

3.4.2. The Category of Number

The category of number is peculiar to the central, demonstrative and some of the indefinite pronouns. It is not expressed in the same way as in nouns. Most nouns take the ending *-s/-es*, which is affixed to the singular form, whereas plural central and demonstrative pro-

nouns are chiefly represented by suppletive (i.e. morphologically unrelated) stems: *my* — *our*, *that* — *those*.

The first person central pronouns have one singular form and one plural form for each of the subgroups: *I* — *we* (personal pronoun), *my* — *our* (possessive), etc.

The second person of personal (*you*) and possessive (*your*) pronouns is interpreted in actual utterances as either singular or plural and combines with a plural verb even though it may refer to one addressee: *You are a sensible man* — *You are sensible men*. The second person of reflexive pronouns, however, maintains the number contrast: *yourself* — *yourselves*.

The third person has three singular forms (*he*, *she*, *it*; *his*, *her*, *its*; *himself*, *herself*, *itself*) and one plural form (*they*; *their*; *themselves*) for each subgroup.

The indefinite pronoun *one* builds up the plural with the help of the inflection: *one* — *ones*. The plural form *others* correlates with two singular indefinite pronouns in substantive use, depending on the type of identification: *another* — *others* (indefinite identification) and *the other* — *the others* (definite identification).

3.4.3. The Category of Case

In present-day English, the category of case is a controversial issue. It is restricted to the sphere of nouns and pronouns. Linguists traditionally distinguish the **common case** contrasted to the **genitive case** in discussing nouns, and the **nominative case** contrasted to the **objective case** in discussing pronouns: *I* — *me*, *who* — *whom*. At the same time, the pronouns that convey a meaning similar to the genitive of nouns are regarded as a separate subclass, termed "possessive pronouns". However, the term "possessive pronoun" is not applied to the genitive or possessive form *whose* or to the inflected forms of indefinite or reciprocal pronouns, e.g. *each other's*, *one's*, *anybody's*, etc. Although this approach is somewhat inconsistent, it is widely accepted in practical grammars for teaching purposes.

The term "objective case" suggests that the form is limited to the syntactic function of object. This is true to the extent that a personal pronoun object is always in the objective case:

They offered me a ride.

We hope you will visit us soon.

However, the term "objective case" can be misleading. The case distinction between *who* and *whom* is not always maintained, because the use of the objective form *whom* is felt to be too formal:

Who did you go with? (informal)

With whom did you go? (very formal)

Besides, there are a number of syntactic positions where the choice between the nominative case and the objective case of personal pronouns seems to be determined by the register of communication (formal or informal) and perhaps some other factors rather than the function of the pronoun in the sentence.

1. The subject of an elliptical sentence and similar structures:

Who opened the door? — I did⁶ / I (rare) / Me (informal) — He did / Him (informal). (Note that He is not used as a short answer in similar contexts.)

He'll lend you a hand. — He won't! / Not him! (informal)

I'm tired. — So am I/(formal)/I, too. (formal) / Me too. (informal)

I don't know her name. — Neither do I / Me neither. (informal)

Get out of here now! — Who, me?

It's about time you got married. — Me, get married?

You are no older than she is / than she / than her. (informal)

You are as pretty as she is / as she / as her. (informal)

2. The appositive subject expressed by a coordinated phrase:

Could we talk about it, just you and I? / you and me? (informal)

My cousin and I, / My cousin and me (informal), we never agree on anything.

3. The subject (i. e. nominal) element of an absolute construction with or without a participle placed in final position:

It was hard to understand the lyrics of his song, he being an Irishman / him being an Irishman. (informal)

Sheila wants to marry a banker, and him at least sixty years old!

4. The predicative (after *It + be*) of complete and elliptical sentences:

Who's there? — It's I (formal) / It's me / (Only) me / Me, Jack.

It was Caroline. — Oh, she! / Oh, her! (informal)

I knew it was he (formal) / him (informal) by his handwriting.

5. The nucleus of a one-member sentence, combining with a limited set of attributes:

Poor me!

Silly us!

Good old him! (informal)

⁶ The variants which are not marked (formal), (informal) or otherwise are neutral, i. e. restricted to a particular register of communication, although some of them may be more typical of oral language and others more typical of written language.

6. The appositive first-person subject:

Me, I never lose my temper. (informal)

The objective case is clearly preferred to the nominative case in informal usage; moreover, in (5) and (6), the nominative case is not possible at all.

It can be assumed that the proximity factor largely accounts for the choice of the case form: where the pronoun immediately precedes or follows a finite verb with which it agrees in person and number (as in *as... as she is, so do I*, etc.), the nominative case is the only possible option; where the pronoun is moved farther away from its finite verb, it is likely to change into the objective case.

Besides, it could tentatively be suggested that nominative pronouns are generally unstressed (unless, of course, they receive special prominence) while objective pronouns can be both stressed and unstressed. Therefore, the choice of the objective case form allows making an emphasis on the pronoun.

This shows that the term "case", as applied to the present-day pronoun system in English, is largely conventional. It is not without reason that some modern grammars avoid using the term "case" and distinguish two sets of forms rather than two cases: the basic form and the object form of personal pronouns.

3.4.4. The Category of Gender

The category of gender shows whether a word denotes a personal or non-personal entity. Therefore, personal gender is contrasted to non-personal gender. With reference to pronouns, these terms may be somewhat confusing: for instance, *it*, which is grammatically a third person (i. e. personal) pronoun, has to be qualified as non-personal; at the same time, *who*, which is an interrogative/relative, not a personal pronoun, has to be described as expressing personal gender.

The category of personal gender implies a further opposition of the biological sex of the referent: female or male. Feminine gender expresses the female sex of the referent, and masculine gender expresses the male sex. The pronoun *it*, even though it occasionally refers to a living being (such as *a bird, a baby*, etc.) is neuter, i. e. unmarked as feminine or masculine. Sex distinctions are restricted to the third person pronouns: personal, possessive and reflexive.

The first and the second person central pronouns are inevitably personal, i. e. animate, though unmarked as feminine or masculine. The third person singular distinguishes between non-personal (*it*) and personal (*he, she*) gender, the latter forms marked by feminine/masculine gender contrast. The plural form, however, is gender-neutral (*they*).

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *what* are contrasted as expressing personal and non-personal gender, and so are *who* and *which* used as relative words, or subordinators. However, *whose* can be gender-neutral in the function of subordinator: *an old oak whose branch was broken by the storm*. Indefinite and negative pronouns in -one and -body are personal and those in -thing are non-personal. The indefinite pronoun *one* is personal (*One lives and learns; The little ones are in the nursery now*) unless it serves as a substitute word, or prop-word, used to avoid repetition (*Give me another crayon, a/the new one*). Other pronouns are unmarked for gender.

In Modern English, the category of gender is regarded as lexical or lexico-grammatical; the sex opposition is lexical. In the Russian language, the category of gender is grammatical, expressed by regular inflections and grammatical concord.

3.5. PERSONAL (CENTRAL) PRONOUNS

The pronouns which express the grammatical category of person fall into three subclasses: personal pronouns proper, personal possessive pronouns represented by two sets of forms, and personal reflexive pronouns. They have been termed central pronouns because they are marked by the largest number of grammatical oppositions and, therefore, constitute the core, or the centre, of the whole class of pronouns.

3.5.1. Personal Pronouns Proper

In present-day English, the personal pronouns do not form a morphologically unified system. Besides, their classification is asymmetric in that each of the three persons reveals its own set of grammatical and lexico-grammatical distinctions.

3.5.1.1. First Person

The first person, in contrast to the two other persons, denotes an active participant in the act of communication.

Case \ Number	Singular	Plural
Nominative case	I	we
Objective case	me	us

The pronoun *I*

The pronoun *I* (always capitalized in writing) is used by the speaker/writer for self-reference.

1. When it occurs in coordinated groups, it usually comes last (for reasons of politeness). A coordinated group incorporating *I* and one or more other elements is perceived as referring to the first person:

You and I can make a deal, can't we?

My daughter and I are both invited, aren't we?

2. The pronoun *I* combines with the plural form of the verb to be in contracted negative-interrogative structures and question tags:

Aren't I clever!

I'm still your wife, aren't I?

Although this use is generally acceptable, especially in BrE, some of the careful speakers tend to avoid it.

3. *I* is sometimes found in coordinated phrases in the function of object. This is considered incorrect in formal usage, although some of the educated speakers can be heard saying *between you and I*.

4. Note the variant use of personal and relative pronouns and verb forms in cleft sentences:

It is I who am responsible. (formal)

It is me who's responsible. (informal)

It's me that's responsible. (informal)

The pronoun *we*

The pronoun *we* is invariably used as the subject of a sentence and its basic meaning is "I and one or more others". *We* has a semantically dual nature, because it combines, by definition, reference to two opposites: "I" and "other(s)". It suggests that the speaker assumes authority to speak for others:

We (= my wife, my daughter and I) are moving house next week.

Linguists distinguish between **inclusive *we*** and **exclusive *we***, depending on whether or not *we* includes reference to the addressee. Cf.:

Shall we (= you and I) go now?

We (= Mary and I) are going out; would you like to join us?

The only structures in which the inclusive *we* is grammatically distinct are the question beginning with *Shall we?..* and the first person imperative (with the pronoun in the objective case), possibly with the corresponding question tag:

Let's (= Let us) take it easy for a while, shall we?

There are a number of special uses of *we*, both inclusive and exclusive, determined by the semantic duality of this pronoun.

1. The authorial *we*, which is found in academic writing:

As we saw in the previous chapter, Roman culture allotted a specific area to each Muse. (the inclusive authorial *we*)

We are about to demonstrate how both these methods can be implemented. (the exclusive authorial *we*)

The writer seeks to involve the reader in a joint mental effort, actually making a reference to the addressee or to himself/herself). However, the direct use of *you* would look too informal, and the use of *I* — too patronizing.

2. The editorial *we*, suggesting the idea of communalism and found mostly in formal writing:

We hope that our readers will take the matter seriously.

3. The rhetorical *we*, meaning “the nation”, “the community”, “the party”:

We ought to give top priority to social insurance.

4. The collective *we*, indicating a plurality of speakers/writers:

We, the undersigned, have resolved to combine our efforts to accomplish these aims.

5. The generic *we*, making a reference to contemporaries or people in general:

We live in an age of information technology

Now we know that certain food additives can cause cancer.

The generic *we* commonly occurs in speaking about shared knowledge and behaviour. (Cf. the generic use of *you* and *they*.)

6. We in reference to the addressee, sometimes found in talking to children and, typically, used by doctors in talking to patients:

How are we (feeling) today?

Are we going to drink our milk?

Now, we must be a brave girl, Dorothy, and stop crying.

A similar usage is found in more formal contexts; for instance, it is peculiar to the speech of a teacher who wishes to instruct without claiming authority:

Now we are going to translate a passage from Virgil.

7. We in reference to a third person:

We are in a bad mood today.

This use implies an ironic attitude; such a phrase could be said by one employee to another about their boss.

8. The Royal we, traditionally illustrated by the following utterance ascribed to Queen Victoria:

We are not amused.

Although the "Royal we" is now obsolete, its traces are still found in present-day "royalese", where linguists point out the Royal Tour we and the Royal Firm we:

When we were in Florence we were taken round the art gallery there.

How did we acquire this painting?

As there is a long tradition of lampooning royalty in Britain, the "Royal we" often appears in cartoons and fictional speeches.

9. Note the idiomatic use of the pronoun we:

Here we / you are. (= This is what's needed.)

Here we go again! (= Hello!)

Here we go! (= Let's try; Let's begin)

The pronoun ME

1. The speaker uses the form *me* as the object of a verb or preposition to refer to himself or herself:

He asked me about Mary.

This is an unusual party for me.

Do you want to go with me?

As has been shown above, the grammatical domain where the objective case is preferred to the nominative case is wider than just the function of object. *Me* can also be used as the subject of an elliptical sentence (*I'm tired. — Me too*), as the predicative (*It's me*), as a member of a coordinated phrase which functions as the appositive subject of a sentence (*My daughter and me, we never...*) and in some other structures.

2. The attributive use of *me* is found in the expression *the Me generation*, denoting a category of selfish young adults who have no concern for other people's interests.

3. In non-standard English, the form *me* is sometimes found in place of the possessive pronoun *my*. This usage is reflected in fiction, where it serves as illiterate speech marker.

The pronoun *us*

1. The inclusive and exclusive uses of *we* described above are also peculiar to the objective case form *us*:

Let us now turn to the problem of grammatical concord (inclusive).

A reader has pointed out to us that some of the statistics were inaccurate (exclusive).

The objective form *us* can be contracted to -'s in inclusive reference when it occurs in the first-person *let-imperative*:

Let's talk about it.

However, *us* cannot be contracted if it has exclusive reference and the *let-imperative* refers to the second person:

Now, sit down and talk with Louise, and let us know what you decide.

2. The form *us* is found in *of-phrases* (*some of us, none of us, many of us*, etc.). Note the difference in meaning between the following *of-phrases* with numerals:

Three of us went to London (and the others stayed in Edinburgh).

(There were more than three people in our company.)

The three of us went to London (together). (There were three people in all.)

The same goes for the use of *you* and *them*.

3. In informal speech, *us* may occur instead of *we* in appositive subject groups or, instead of *me*, as the indirect object:

Us girls enjoy a good laugh. (informal)

Give us a kiss, honey. (informal)

4. The form *us* appears in the coordinated attributive group *them and us: a them and us attitude*.

3.5.1.2. Second Person

The second person denotes a passive participant (an addressee) in the act of communication.

Modern English has one second person pronoun, *you*, which is unmarked for case and number, but combines with a plural verb.

Until recently, religious usage and some dialects of BrE retained the archaic system of second person central pronouns that distinguished between singular and plural. This system included not only personal pronouns proper, but also possessive and reflexive pronouns:

Number	Personal		Possessive		Reflexive
	Common case	Objective case	Determinative	Independent	
Singular	<i>thou</i>	<i>thee</i>	<i>thy</i>	<i>thine</i>	<i>thyself</i>
Plural	<i>ye</i>	<i>you/ye</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>yourselves</i>

However, many recent editions of the Bible have changed to present-day pronoun usage. Cf.:

*Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself*⁷.

You shall love your neighbour as yourself.

Elements of the old system are sometimes used for stylistic purposes:

Thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's car! (humorous)

The pronoun you

The pronoun *you* can have situational and generic reference. The generic *you* is an informal equivalent of the formal generic pronoun *one*. Cf.:

You never know with fashions. (informal) / *One never knows with fashions.* (formal)

You can't be too careful these days. (informal) / *One can't be too careful these days.* (formal)

In using the generic *you*, the speaker refers to the addressee's experience of life in general or to a specific situation:

It was so still you could hear a pin drop.

Sometimes the speaker refers to her/his own experiences, sharing them with the addressee:

It's very easy to make chicken broth. First, you cover whole chicken with water, then you add seasoning and cook over slow fire.

It wasn't a bad job after all. You came to the office at nine, sorted out the mail and made a few phone calls.

In an informal style, the number ambiguity peculiar to the second person can be avoided by using appositive combinations: *you all*, *you both*, *you two*, *you chaps*, etc. The combination *you guys* (chiefly AmE) is used in talking familiarly to a number of addressees, male and/or female.

⁷ Note the pronunciation of archaic forms: *thou* [ðau], *thee* [ði:], *thy* [ðai], *thine* [ðaim], *ye* [ji(:)].

3.5.1.3. Third Person

The third person denotes a non-participant in the act of communication. The third person pronouns maintain the largest number of grammatical and lexico-grammatical oppositions.

Case	Singular			Plural
	Personal (animate)		Non-personal	
	Masculine	Feminine	(inanimate)	
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Objective	him	her	it	them

The pronouns **HE/HIM**

1. Like all third person pronouns, **he** and **him** can have situational reference or anaphoric reference. In situational reference, it refers to a male person:

He set out to argue that it was time for him to leave.

Sometimes the pronouns **he** and **she** are accompanied by an indefinite article to convey the meaning “male” and “female”, respectively:

Is your cat a he or a she?

Pets and domestic animals can be called **he** or **she** when their sex is known to the speaker:

Don't touch my dog — he sometimes bites.

We unleashed the dog and let her run loose for a while.

When a wild animal is thought of as having a personality or feelings, it can be referred to as **he**:

Look at that squirrel; isn't he a clever fellow?

2. **He** used as antecedent of an attributive relative limiting clause in sentences normally beginning with **He who** (or **He that**) has a general meaning. This structure is often found in proverbs:

He who laughs last laughs longest.

He laughs best who laughs last.

He that is born to be hanged shall never be drowned.

3. In poetic diction, the use of the pronouns **he** (**him, his**) and **she** (**her**) can serve the stylistic purpose of personification. The choice between **he** and **she** is largely subjective; **he**, for instance, is sometimes found in anaphoric reference to the sun or death:

Because I could not stop for Death, he kindly stopped for me.

In religious language, the pronoun **He** (capitalized), alongside **Him** and **His**, is used to refer to God:

If He withholds the waters, they dry up.

4. Many people do not approve of the anaphoric use of masculine pronouns with a general meaning, labelling it sexist:

Everyone should do what he considers best (formal).

The writer ought to realize that he may not be able to earn a living by his books. (formal)

In order to avoid masculine (or male) bias, many speakers would use *he or she, she or he*, or — in writing — *he/she, s/he*. Alternatively, the sentence could be restructured using the pronoun *they*:

Writers ought to realize that they may not be able...

For more on masculine bias see “The Pronouns *THEY / THEM*” below.

The pronouns *SHE / HER*

Apart from the obvious reference to a female being, *she/her* has a number of specific uses.

1. Some people use *she/her* for boats, cars, motorbikes, etc.:

This ship made her maiden voyage last June.

2. The names of countries as cultural units sometimes correlate with a feminine pronoun:

England has always cultivated an admiration for her poets.

3. *She* is increasingly used in anaphoric reference to a gender-neutral noun:

If a child does not mix happily with her peer group, she should be given special attention by the teacher.

This is probably a device that is intended to counterbalance masculine bias. Anaphoric devices may vary within the same discourse.

4. It is considered rather impolite in Britain to refer to the listener as *she* (or *he*). There is an idiomatic expression to remind the speaker that the person's name should be used instead:

She didn't know. — Who's she — the cat's mother? — Sorry, Peggy didn't know.

However, the pronouns should be used with reference to someone present, so as to avoid repetition:

Peggy here says she didn't know.

5. In dealing with communication issues, some linguists consistently use the anaphoric *she* for “speaker” (abbreviated *s*) and *he* for “hearer” (abbreviated *h*).

The pronoun *it*

1. The contrast between *it* and *he/she* is basically the contrast between the inanimate and the animate. The pronoun *it* is used to refer not only to inanimate objects, but also to non-count substances, to singular abstract notions and singular collections of people:

If you want a thing well done, do it yourself.

Love is like the measles: we all have to go through with it.

The National Academy of Sciences consists of ordinary and honorary members and foreign associates. It renders advisory services on scientific and technological matters related to the national interest.

Besides, *it* can refer to a whole clause or sentence:

He promised that he would go straight, but I didn't believe it.

Furthermore, *it* (as well as the possessive pronoun *its*) can be used in reference to living beings — animals and babies — if their sex is unknown.

2. *It* has a number of functions. Syntactically, they can be subdivided into two groups: the referring *it* and the structural *it*.

The referring *it*, like all other pronouns, performs a syntactic function of its own. It occurs in three variants: the **substitutional, demonstrative** and **impersonal** *it*.

The substitutional *it* refers to a thing, idea, etc. already mentioned or implied by the situation:

Where's my coat? — I gave it to charity last week.

I'm afraid it (= this coat) is a size too large for me.

The substantive *it* is not restricted to a particular syntactic position. It is most common as subject and object. When accompanied by a preposition, it can serve as adverbial modifier. It can also substitute a characterizing predicate:

He was French and he looked it.

The demonstrative *it* is used to point to a person or thing. It is restricted to the subject position and generally followed by a compound nominal predicate.

It was the largest house in the neighbourhood.

It's the postman!

It is not always interchangeable with the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*, for the demonstrative *it*, being a third person central pronoun, serves to point to something which is already in the focus of attention, whereas the demonstratives serve to bring something into focus. Unlike *this / that*, the demonstrative *it* is unstressed and, there-

fore, less prominent than the demonstratives proper. Note that the demonstrative *it* normally occurs in answers to the questions containing a singular demonstrative pronoun:

What's this / that? — It's a sewing machine.

The impersonal *it* refers to the situation, time, distance or atmospheric conditions:

It was too dark in the room.

It'll soon be lunchtime.

Is it far from here to the city centre?

It is thawing.

The Russian equivalents of these sentences, being impersonal, employ no subject pronoun.

The impersonal *it* is restricted to the subject position. Some grammars claim that it is semantically empty; others assert that it is not entirely void of meaning since it has reference to a particular circumstance. The latter consideration is especially true of the use of *it* in one of the conditional clause patterns:

If it hadn't been for the discount, we couldn't have afforded the air tickets last winter.

We would be ahead of the rival company if it wasn't / were not for this unsuitable location.

The structural *it* is a purely formal element anticipating a word, a phrase, a predicative construction or a clause in the later part of the sentence. The following subtypes of the structural (or formal) *it* can be pointed out.

The introductory *it* (also termed **preparatory** or **anticipatory**), which anticipates, and duplicates the function of, a syntactic unit in the later part of the sentence:

It would be useful to remember a few simple rules.

It pays to be nice to your neighbours, doesn't it?

Will it suit you for me to arrive at midday?

It just happened that his flight was delayed.

It's no use beating about the bush.

Are you finding it difficult to learn the new programming language?

My father doesn't like it when the phone rings after 11 p.m.

The introductory *it* is restricted to the positions of subject and object. Some of the above sentences would sound less natural without the introductory *it* (e. g. *To remember a few simple rules would be useful*), others do not admit of this kind of transformation at all (e. g. **That his flight was delayed just happened*).

The emphatic *it*, which is used to give special prominence to a syntactic unit in the later part of the sentence. Cf.:

*John found the treasure. — It was John who found the treasure.
She's engaged to Peter, not Mark! — It is Peter she's engaged
to, not Mark!*

*I didn't learn the truth until I read her letter. — It was not until
I read her letter that I learnt the truth.*

We first met here. — It was here that we first met.

The emphatic *it* is restricted to the subject position, although the part of the corresponding non-emphatic sentence that receives special prominence is not limited to a particular syntactic function.

3. The pronoun *it* is usually unstressed. However, there are a number of special usages where *it* is pronounced with a strong stress:

She has 'it. (= charisma or sex appeal)

*You are `it. (said in children's games about the person who is
next to play, or about the most important person, esp. about
the one who finds the others who are hiding)*

That steak was really `it! (= the best)

*Is that `it? (a) = Is that all you wanted me for? b) = Is that (about)
all?)*

4. The pronoun *it* is idiomatically in numerous (informal) expressions:

You're in for it. (= You're going to be in trouble.)

Take it easy. (= Don't worry; Relax; Take your time.)

How goes it? (= Is everything happening satisfactorily?)

*I've had it (= all the experience that can be endured); I'm going
to quit.*

At last we've made it! (= achieved success)

You'll have a hard time of it. (= You'll find life difficult.)

Stick it out! (= Hold out!)

The pronoun *THEY/ THEM*

1. Like all plural personal pronouns, *they* and *them* can have situational and generic reference. The generic *they* is used to refer to people in general (notably in the expression *They say*) or to the government, local authorities, legislature, or else to some unknown groups and organizations that control the lives of ordinary citizens:

They say petrol prices are going to rise in the near future.

They are building a new school in this area.

They don't publish any good novels nowadays.

They, alongside *them* and *their*, can have anaphoric reference to a singular collective noun, like *committee, police, cattle, orchestra*, etc. Besides, the third person plurals *they, them(selves), their* are used to make anaphoric reference to an indefinite or negative pronoun that can denote either a male or a female person:

*If anybody calls, tell them I'm out.
No one objected to your proposal, did they?*

In recent decades, the same anaphoric reference pattern with *they*, *them(selves)*, and *their* has been increasingly used with nouns so as to avoid masculine bias:

A student who attended Professor White's seminar on linguistics has left their (rather than his) course-book behind⁸.

Although many speakers find this variant informal or illogical and try to avoid it (e.g. by using an article: *A student has left a course-book behind*), present-day grammars seem to agree in recognizing what has been termed "the singular unisex pronoun *they*". (See also notes on the pronoun *he* above.)

2. Note that the pronoun *they* normally occurs in answers to the questions containing a plural demonstrative pronoun:

Who are these / those? — They are fire fighters.

What are these / those? — They are mangoes.

The demonstratives serve to bring something into the focus of attention; the personal pronoun *they* serves to speak about something that has already been brought into focus.

3. In the language of sports reporting, the teams are often denoted by the names of countries they represent. This usage normally correlates with *they* (*them*, *their*) and a plural verb:

France blame the defeat on their coach.

4. In very informal spoken English, the objective form *them* can be reduced to '*em*'. Furthermore, the form *them* is sometimes found in non-standard English in place of the definite determiner before nouns. Needless to say, this is not to be imitated by students of English. However, British and American fiction writers often use these variants for stylistic purposes, as illiterate speech markers.

3.5.2. Personal Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns show ownership or connection. Therefore, they combine the grammatical meanings of person and genitive. They are marked for person, gender and number, and unmarked for case.

⁸ Note that the anaphoric use of *they*, *them* and *their* may sometimes allow the speaker/writer to avoid ambiguity: in this sentence, for instance, *his* could have referred back either to a *student* or to *Professor White*, whereas *their* refers unambiguously to *a student*.

In Modern English, possessive pronouns fall into two subclasses: dependent or determinative (also termed **attributive**) and independent (also termed **absolute**). Independent possessive pronouns function in about the same way as the independent genitive of nouns.

Pronouns	First person		Second person	Third person			
	Singular	Plural		Singular			Plural
				masc.	fem.	neut.	
Dependent	<i>my</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>their</i>
Independent	<i>mine</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>hers</i>	—	<i>theirs</i>

The independent pronoun of the third person neuter does not exist in Modern English. The form *theirs*, although theoretically unmarked for gender, is thought of as animate.

1. Dependent possessive pronouns are used as **determiners**, i. e. attributively, whereas independent possessive pronouns are used as **substantives**, in place of nouns or noun phrases. Cf.:

Dependent

She recognized her suitcase. *She recognized the suitcase as hers.*

Where's your cousin?

That's my bike.

Our car was the fastest.

Independent

Where's that cousin of yours?

Whose bike is this? — (It's) mine.

Ours was the fastest car.

In a general sense, e. g. in giving a vocabulary definition, a dependent (determinative) possessive is represented by the form *one's*: *What is the Russian for "to come into one's own"?*

2. Unlike Russian, English uses possessive pronouns to modify nouns denoting parts of the body, personal belongings and the like:

The man stood frowning, his hands in his pockets.

She wore a string of pearls round her neck.

I sprained my ankle skiing in the mountains.

However, the definite article is used in prepositional phrases associated with the object or, in passive constructions, with the subject:

The woman took the boy by the hand.

He was congratulated and slapped on the back.

3. The nominal element of a gerundial construction can be expressed either by a possessive pronoun or by the objective case of a personal pronoun:

I don't mind his / him going alone.

I insist on their / them making a presentation.

In an informal style, the objective case form is more common, particularly when it comes after a preposition. In a formal style, the possessive pronoun is preferred, especially in AmE.

4. A possessive pronoun can be intensified by means of the adjective *own*:

Malcolm built this cottage with his own hands.

I am self-employed, my own boss.

She was thinking of selling her very own silver bracelet.

The adjective *own* also appears in the structure *a/some...of one's own*:

She's never had a car of her own.

It's about time you had some money of your own.

Independent possessives do not combine with *own*, but the combinations *my own*, *your own*, etc. can be used as substantives in order to avoid repetition:

Would you like to use my notes? — No, thanks, I can only read from my own.

5. The meaning of ownership or connection can be conveyed not only by possessive pronouns and the genitive (i. e. possessive case) of nouns, but also by the *of*-phrase. Personal pronouns do not normally combine with *of* (excepting, of course, independent possessives in structures like *a friend of mine*, *that dog of yours*). However, there are a few set expressions which employ the combination *of* + objective case with a genitive meaning, without resorting to possessive pronouns:

On the face of it, it seemed worthwhile.

She couldn't recall the address for the life of her. (found only in negative sentences)

This will be the death of me!

He's a dirty scoundrel! Nobody wants the likes of him around.

6. Contrary to the general rule, the coordinated group of independent possessives *his and hers* (contracted *his'n'hers*) is used attributively with reference to a pair of matching things, but one intended for use by the man and the other, by the woman (of a married couple):

The newly-weds were given his'n'hers monogrammed bathrobes.
(informal)

7. The possessive pronoun *its* should not be confused with the contracted form *it's*. (= it is, it has)

8. The second person independent possessive is used in the complimentary closing of letters, where it can be modified by a conventional set of adverb: *Yours; Yours affectionately; Very truly yours*, etc.

The complimentary close comes above the signature, usually against the left-hand margin. In business correspondence, the choice of the adverb modifying *yours* is determined by the salutation. If the salutation is *Dear Sirs, Dear Sir/Madam, Gentlemen*, etc., the complimentary close will take the form *Yours faithfully* or, less commonly, *Yours truly*. If the correspondent is addressed by his/her name (e.g. *Dear Mr Murphy, Dear Ms Eastwood*), the complimentary close will take the form *Yours sincerely*.

Outside of letter writing, the expression *yours truly* is sometimes used humorously for *I, me or myself*:

This little poem was written by yours truly.

9. Note the idiomatic use of possessive pronouns:

I don't see how he will manage on his own. (= without help)

The elderly man lives on his own. (= all alone; without company)

Performance as an art medium has not yet come into its own.
 (= achieved its proper recognition)

I'll go my own way.

I did it my way.

Oh, my! (used as interjection to express surprise, pleasure or dismay)

3.5.3. Personal Reflexive Pronouns

The term "reflexive" is applied to verbs and pronouns. A reflexive verb is a transitive verb that has a direct object co-referential with the subject: *She revenged herself on her enemy*. A reflexive pronoun is often described as a pronoun serving as direct object of a reflexive verb. However, the term is largely conventional, for reflexive pronouns have a wider use than this. For instance, they can be used as indirect objects:

Anthony found himself an excellent wife.

A reflexive pronoun can be co-referential not only with the subject, but also with another element of the sentence, e.g. an attribute or an object:

Her stories are all about herself.

A psychoanalyst could tell you a lot about yourself.

I love you for yourself, not for your father's money.

Besides, the second person reflexives can be used in imperative sentences that contain no explicit subject:

Here's the money; go and buy yourselves something to eat.

Can I borrow your pen? — Yes, help yourself.

Reflexive pronouns are formed by affixing *-self* (singular) or *-selves* (plural) to the possessive pronouns in the first and the second person and to the objective case forms in the third person.

Number	First person	Second person	Third person		
			Personal		Non-personal
			Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular	<i>myself</i>	<i>yourself</i>	<i>himself</i>	<i>herself</i>	<i>itself</i>
Plural	<i>ourselves</i>	<i>yourselves</i>	<i>themselves</i>		

There are a few reflexives outside this system:

- a) the generalizing reflexive form *oneself*, derived from the indefinite pronoun *one*;
- b) the first person singular reflexive *ourself*, now obsolete, related to the "Royal we";

c) the newly coined non-sexist form *themself*, which is the third person singular, gender-neutral and sex-neutral, accepted in legislative writing (Canadian English), but otherwise considered unacceptable and missing from most conventional dictionaries.

When a coordinated group is involved, the reflexive conforms to the first person or, if there is no first person pronoun, to the second person:

You, Andrew and I must not delude ourselves.

You and Andrew must not delude yourselves.

Grammar books distinguish various uses of reflexive pronouns.

1. In the basic use, the reflexive pronoun chiefly functions as object or predicative and is co-referential with the subject of the sentence:

You'll cut yourself if you are not careful. (an object)

He was not himself that morning. (a predicative)

2. In the emphatic use, the reflexive pronoun is in apposition to its antecedent. Structurally, it is not an indispensable sentence element. It is used as emphaser meaning "that person/thing and nobody/nothing else":

Did you make this pullover yourself? / Did you yourself make this pullover?

I myself would never talk to a stranger / I would never talk to a stranger myself.

I shook hands with the President himself yesterday!

The trouble is in the engine itself.

Note the emphatic use of the expression *in itself*:

The picture in itself is worthless; it is the frame that is extremely valuable.

3. Furthermore, the basic use of reflexive pronouns can be optional or obligatory, depending on whether or not they are interchangeable with the objective case forms of personal pronouns.

The obligatory use of reflexives is found in preference to the objective case forms:

a) after reflexive verbs, i. e. those that cannot be used (at least in a particular meaning) without a reflexive pronoun:

<i>to absent oneself from sth,</i>	<i>to demean oneself,</i>
<i>to avail oneself of sth,</i>	<i>to ingratiate oneself with sb,</i>
<i>to accustom oneself to sth,</i>	<i>to kill oneself with (mirth, laughter, etc.)</i>
<i>to busy oneself,</i>	<i>to perjure oneself,</i>
<i>to concern oneself about / over / with sth,</i>	<i>to revenge oneself (on sb),</i>
<i>to content oneself with sth,</i>	<i>to pride oneself on sth.</i>

For example:

*Trainees who absent themselves from more than two practices
will be expelled. (formal)*

I wouldn't demean myself by taking a bribe.

*The children are killing themselves with laughter. (found only
in progressive tenses)*

If you perjure yourself, you will be severely punished.

Here also belong idiomatic combinations of reflexive pronouns with a few transitive verbs (e. g. *to enjoy*, *to find*, *to help*, *to lower*, etc.) and the verb *be*:

We found ourselves in a thick forest.

She enjoyed herself immensely.

Don't wait to be served, just help yourselves!

She wouldn't lower herself to ask anyone for a loan.

He is not himself this morning.

Similarly, the link verbs *feel* and *look*, although not normally followed by reflexives (e. g. *I feel happy*; *She's looking good tonight*) can combine with reflexives in idiomatic use:

*You'll soon feel yourself again when you have recovered from
the injury. (informal) (= feel cheerful, well, and in one's usual
state of mind)*

*Fiona isn't feeling herself today; she had a sleepless night. (in-
formal)*

Is something the matter, darling? You don't look yourself.

This use is often found in negative sentences.

b) after semi-reflexive verbs, i. e. those after which the reflexive pronoun may be omitted with little or no difference in meaning:

to acclimatize (oneself) to sth, *to identify (oneself) with sb/sth,*
to adjust (oneself) to sth, *to prepare (oneself) for sth,*
to hide (oneself), *to behave (oneself).*

For example:

He always identified (himself) with the Liberals.

The boys hid (themselves) in the attic.

We acclimatized (ourselves) quickly to the tropical climate.

Now, children, you ought to behave (yourselves) in the museum.

I was told to prepare (myself) for the worst.

Here also belongs the use of the reflexive in:

The girl fainted, but she came to (herself) when we threw cold water on her face. (usually in simple tenses)

The verbs *to dress*, *to shave* and *to wash* are only rarely followed by reflexives. Nevertheless, they are sometimes classed with semi-reflexive verbs, because a reflexive can be used if it is necessary to make it clear who does the action. Cf.:

It's time to dress for dinner.

Millie is old enough to dress herself now.

The verb *to feel* functions as semi-reflexive when it is followed by a complex object:

I sometimes feel (myself) a stranger in my parents' house.

She felt (herself) humiliated by their offer.

c) after non-reflexive verbs, i. e. transitive verbs which may take a reflexive pronoun as object, although they are not necessarily associated with reflexive pronouns, such as *accuse*, *acquaint*, *delude*, *amuse*, *get*, *hurt*, *excuse*, *persuade*, *expose*, etc.:

*He who excuses himself accuses himself. (Cf.: Excuse my back;
They accused us of embezzlement.)*

The lawyer acquainted herself with the facts of the case.

The children can hurt themselves playing leapfrog.

He got himself much talked about.

Moreover, there are verbs that do not normally combine with a personal object, such as *apply*, *express*, *compose*, *distance*, etc. (e. g. *apply money towards a purchase*, *express an opinion*); however, they can have a reflexive pronoun as object:

Elliott Templeton applied himself to the task of making social connections.

You ought to compose yourself before the Proficiency Examination.

She has distanced herself from most of her friends.

d) after prepositional verbs (i. e. with a fixed preposition that has a close connection with the verb):

She had put on a new dress and stood looking at herself in the mirror.

Don't worry, I can look after myself.

We didn't know what to do with ourselves.

Those people take too much upon themselves.

Here also belongs the obligatory use of reflexive pronouns after predicative groups with fixed prepositions:

She is proud of herself.

He was beside himself (with rage).

Bye-bye! Take care of yourself!

e) after prepositional phrases which refer to an author, who can also be his/her own model (in speaking of a work of art, a story, a representation and the like):

This is a portrait of Van Dyck, by himself.

Whatever Katherine Mansfield wrote about, she basically wrote about herself.

I enclose a recent photo of myself with this letter.

Note that after prepositions of place we usually use an objective case form rather than a reflexive pronoun:

He looked about him in amazement.

She hasn't got any money on her at the moment.

I enjoy having my friends around/by/near me.

Likewise, a personal pronoun and not a reflexive is used after the preposition with meaning "to accompany":

You'll have to bring an interpreter with you.

f) as the nominal element of an absolute construction without a participle, when the construction is placed in initial position:

Himself an artist of some renown, the author says that old Russian icons have a unique vernacular quality.

Though not the very happiest being in the world herself, she had found enough in her duties and her children to attach her to life.

g) in some idiomatic expressions:

Remember your table manners; don't make a pig of yourself.

Harry made a fool/an ass of himself in front of the guests.

The house stands by itself. (= alone; apart)

She likes to stroll (all) by herself. (= without company)

Telling children what to do is useless unless they can see for themselves. (= use one's own judgement in forming an opinion)

The optional use of reflexive pronouns means that they can be replaced by the corresponding objective case forms or, in a more formal style and in the relevant syntactic function, by the nominative case forms. This use is found:

a) after the prepositions *like*, *than*, *(as...) as*, *but (for)*, *except (for)*, *as for*:

As for myself/me, I prefer classical style in clothes.

Mary told me that everyone but herself/but she (formal)/but her (informal) had passed the test.

His sons are as tall as himself/as he (is) (formal)/as him. (informal)

b) after some spatial prepositions:

She tiptoed out of the nursery, closing the door gently behind her/herself and wiping her eyes.

Wrapping the towel around him/himself, he rushed to answer the phone.

c) when a reflexive pronoun is coordinated with a noun:

She hasn't written to my brother or myself/me ever since.

His nephew and himself/and he (formal)/him (informal) are going to visit their relatives in Italy next summer.

d) when a reflexive occurs alone in initial position as emphatic subject:

Only myself/me sees that inner rage in you now. (mannered or formal; notice the use of the third-person verb)

It is generally assumed that the reflexive pronoun in optional use is chosen for emphasis. We believe, however, that the optional use of a reflexive is also a convenient device that allows the speaker to avoid an embarrassing choice between the objective case, which may often seem too informal, and the nominative case, which may seem too formal if not stilted.

4. When the emphatic first-person reflexive *myself* is placed in initial or final position and punctuated, it means "as for me", "as far as I am concerned":

I don't approve of this practice, myself.

Myself, I wouldn't have noticed that error.

5. The popular abbreviation DIY stands for *Do It Yourself*; it is mostly used attributively: *a DIY book*, *a DIY store*, etc.

6. Note the idiomatic use of the reflexive:

I'm going to order a vegetarian lunch; the others can suit themselves. (= act according to their own wishes)

3.6. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* have the grammatical category of number; the corresponding plural forms are *these* and *those*.

Demonstration	Singular	Plural
"near"	<i>this</i>	<i>these</i>
"distant"	<i>that</i>	<i>those</i>

Like many other pronouns, demonstratives are used as determiners in a noun phrase (*this book*) or as pronouns proper, or substantives, without any noun immediately after them (*Is this true?*). Besides, the pronoun *that* can be used to introduce subordinate clauses, in which case it is referred to as a relative word, or relative pronoun (as in *We didn't know that he was interested in bird-watching; All that glitters is not gold*).

Demonstratives are sufficient by themselves to make a definite identification in a given situation. Cf.:

- I'd like this / that disc.* — *I'd like this / that (one).*
I'd prefer this / that wine. — *I'd prefer this / that (kind).*
I'll take these / those shoes. — *I'll take these / those.*

The plural *ones* is possible after *these* and *those* but less usual than the singular *one* is after *this* and *that*.

Demonstrative pronouns function both deictically and anaphorically (back-pointing) or cataphorically (forward pointing). In either case they may be called "pointer words" because they refer by pointing to something in the linguistic or extralinguistic context, e. g.:

- I'm under strict orders not to ever let anyone in this house without special permission.* (deixis: situational reference)
He bought a battered, old black Buick in 1985. What a lot of pleasure he got from that vehicle. (anaphora: contextual reference)
Let's try it this way. You promise to find me the best attorney money can buy, and I'll tell you what I know of Suzie Reardon's death. (cataphora: contextual reference)

3.6.1. Demonstratives in Situational Reference

The general meaning of the demonstratives is usually stated as "near" and "distant" reference: *this / these* refers to what is near to the speaker in space, time or conception and is opposed to *that / those* which is used to represent whatever is farther away. Demonstratives can be used to refer to anything from the farthest dimensions of the universe (space/time) down to the here and now of the individual circumstances:

Just look at this kitten: isn't it cute?

Will you get me that book over there in the left-hand corner.

In the above examples *this* and *that* act as a form of instruction to the hearer to look round and perceive the object in question. This is why demonstratives are often accompanied by pointing or nods of the head:

"This is the double pin that disappeared," Deidre explained, pointing to it.

"Look at this." He held up an antique diamond bracelet. "That's a beauty."

"And these," she waved her hand at the babies in their cots, "are the Twins."

The demonstratives here instruct the hearer to identify the object referred to, and thus they actually have a visibility requirement as part of their meaning.

Nouns that have already been mentioned in context can be dropped after demonstratives which act as prop-words. Note that only the "distant" forms *that / those* are possible in the following examples:

This poem is much better than that written by you last year.

The hotel was the same as that they had stayed at last year.

Note the difference between the definite article and demonstratives. For example, if the speaker asks someone to pass him *the box* referring to some box in the immediate situation of utterance, the presupposes that there is only one box in the situation. But *this box* or *that box* need not refer to some unique box in the situation; these expressions may presuppose that there is a choice. The speaker could be pointing at just one of several boxes, and it is important only that the hearer should know which box is intended.

1. *This* and *that* refer equally to things and persons, *this* is being especially used as a formula of introduction or identification:

Chuck, this is Orlanda Ramos. — Pleased to meet you, ma'am!

On the telephone, British people use *this* to identify themselves and *that* to ask about the hearer's identity:

Hello. This is Jim. Is that Kerry?

Americans can also use *this* to ask about the hearer's identity:

Who's this?

Note that only *those* can be used in personal reference, to mean "people":

Those who can, do. Those who can't, teach.

Much harm has been done by those who mean well.

2. With nouns referring to time, *this / these* are used for situations and experiences which are going on or just about to start:

He practically lives in his office these days.

Why don't you come to see me this Sunday?

This week he hasn't phoned either of them.

I'll see you one of these days.

That / those refer to experiences which have just finished, or which are more distant in the past:

Remembering that terrible night, Kerry shook her head.

Did she have her own car that evening?

Is it possible she gave him that picture of herself that night?

That can also show that something has come to an end:

...and that's how it happened.

And that's the end of the news (the close of a radio news bulletin).

This morning / afternoon / summer / winter, etc. can refer to a finished period if one is speaking later the same day (or year):

Fred had to go to Moscow this morning.

3. Although *this / these* is generally said to identify something near to the speaker (either physically, in terms of space or time, or psychologically) and *that / those* something not so near to the speaker, proximity and distance play no essential part in many usages. By what is called metaphorical extension, demonstratives come to express emotional overtones. *This / these* suggests involvement on the part of the speaker, acceptance or interest to the entity referred to:

Mother is absolutely infatuated with this lovely girl friend of yours.

That / those, on the contrary, suggests aloofness or even dislike and rejection to the thing / person in question:

He would have built Beth a home they would have planned together — not that crazy, modern, vast figment of an architect's imagination that Suzanne had demanded and that he had come to detest.

What are you lounging about in that filthy old thing for? I told you to have it burned long ago.

4. Note the use of *this* with no demonstrative meaning in conversational story telling to establish a new referent:

I was just turning the corner when this girl nearly bumped into me and...

What's wrong with Bill? — Oh, this woman that he went out with last night was nasty to him.

5. In spoken English *this* and *that* are often used with adjectives and adverbs in the meaning of so as an adverbial modifier of degree:

If you keep trying this hard, you're sure to succeed.

*I haven't walked barefoot through hell this long to check out now.
I never thought she could be that stupid!*

6. *That / those* can occur in a formal style as relative antecedent followed by a *which / who*-clause to mean "the one(s)":

He admired that which was rare and exquisite.

7. Note the idiomatic use of *this* and *that*:

This is it. (= This is what you've been waiting for; used when introducing or showing something.)

Well, this is it! It's now or never. (= This is the crucial point.)

It is / was that (used to confirm and strengthen something that someone else has just said: *It's cold out, isn't it? — It is that!*)

That's about it. (= That is more or less everything.)

That's / This is how it is. (= This is the position; these are the facts; said after an explanation.)

He was a thief, and a clever one at that. (= in addition)

That's a good boy / girl! (used to praise or encourage a child)

I said no, and that's that. (= It is permanently settled and need not be dealt with again.)

3.6.2. Demonstratives in Discourse

1. The demonstratives *this* and *that* often function as signals marking the identity between what is being said and what has been said before or is going to be said. They can be either back-pointing (anaphoric), or forward-pointing (cataphoric). It is generally admitted that *this* tends to refer to what is to follow and *that* to what precedes:

Mr Morgan, this is terribly important. You should contact your agent as soon as possible.

I can't be his lawyer. Didn't he tell you that?

2. *This* and *that*, however, can replace each other with practically no difference in meaning in back-pointing, but this is more common in formal English:

Ma'am, we are going to make a telephone application for a search warrant so that we can search Mr Arnott's house and arrest him. — I can't believe this.

For forward-pointing, only *this* can be used:

Now let's get this straight. Are you saying she has deliberately lied to you?

3. *This* and *that* are claimed to be more emphatic than *it* in back-pointing as they seem to suggest that an important new fact has been mentioned:

From what you tell me, Dad's not going to win the case. Is that right?

4. When the speaker has more to say about the subject of discussion, *this* is preferred:

Mrs Hoover, I can't tell you how much I appreciate this call. You do know that if this leads to a conviction, there's a substantial reward, over one hundred thousand dollars.

3.7. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

Indefinite pronouns constitute a heterogeneous class of words with several subclasses. They are also called quantifiers, for all of them denote quantity or amount. Indefinite pronouns can be subdivided into the following groups.

Indefinite pronouns proper:

- a) *some, any, no;*
- b) *somebody, anybody, nobody, someone, anyone, no one, none, something, anything, nothing;*
- c) *one.*

Distributive pronouns:

- a) *all, every, each, other, another, either, neither, both;*
- b) *everybody, everyone, everything.*

The subgroups of compound and negative pronouns cut across these classes.

3.7.1. Indefinite Pronouns Proper

The pronoun ONE

The pronoun *one* stands apart in the group of indefinite pronouns. It is used as a determiner, and is then invariable in form, and as a

substantive, in which case it has the genitive form *one's*, the plural form *ones* and the reflexive form *oneself*. *One* has various uses in English.

1. The indefinite personal pronoun *one* has indefinite generic reference; it functions as a **substantive** and means “people in general”, implying inclusion of the speaker and hearer:

One is never too old to learn.

One can't run with the hare and hunt with the hounds. (a proverb)

One can always be kind to people about whom one cares nothing.

In this use *one* has a reflexive and a genitive form:

One doesn't need to justify oneself to one's friends.

Grammars generally recommend avoiding the repetition of *one* in sentences like:

One was clearly expected to be charmed with him, he was so bright, busy and obviously on his way up, that one had one's hands full simply trying to be civil to him.

Such structures are considered clumsy.

In AmE, the use of the co-referential *one*, *one's* and *oneself* is characteristically formal, and *he (his, himself)* is commonly preferred. In informal AmE *one* is often replaced by *you (your, yourself)*:

One should never make one's debut with a scandal. (BrE and formal AmE)

One should never make his debut with a scandal. (formal AmE)

One should never make your debut with a scandal. (informal AmE)

The use of *one* with indefinite generic reference is chiefly formal, and the more informal *you* often occurs in sentences like:

One never knows what may happen. (formal)

You never know what may happen. (informal)

As a substantive, *one* may be followed by an *of*-phrase. *One of (the)* means “single person or thing of the kind implied”:

He is one of the richest men in the world.

One so used can follow certain other quantifiers, notably *every*, *each* and *any*:

Every one of the windows was broken.

With *each* and *any*, *one* is optional:

Each / any (one) of us could have made that mistake.

(*The*) *one* is also in contrast with *the other* in the correlative construction or when one person or thing is compared with another:

One went this way, the other went that way.
She smiled to me as one intellectual to another.

2. The replacive *one/one's* (or the prop-word *one*) is used as an anaphoric substitute for a previously mentioned noun, singular or plural, or a whole noun phrase:

I received a letter today, and my sister received one, too.
Which glasses are yours? — The gold-rimmed ones.
Shall I bring you a glass of beer? — Thank you, I'd love one.

The prop-word *one* can take determiners and modifiers (though not usually possessives or plural demonstratives):

I'm looking for a particular book on criminal law. — Is this the one you need?
This armchair is more comfortable than that one.
If you've read this newspaper, take another one.
My house is the first one on the right.

One is modified by the -'s genitive, in sharp contrast to the demonstratives, which can take only the *of*-phrase. Cf.:

I prefer John's car to his employer's (one).
I prefer John's car to that of his employer.

In a more formal style *those* is preferred to the *ones*, as in:

The rivers and canals of St. Petersburg are considered to be much cleaner than those of other Russian towns.

Those, not the *ones*, occurs in:

She was a good teacher; she knew how to teach bright children and those who were slow.

It should be noted that *one* cannot replace non-count (mass) nouns; instead, they are omitted:

Which sugar would you like — the white or the brown?

3. The so-called numerical determiner *one*, when used with singular count nouns, is a stressed variant of the indefinite article. It is in contrast with the dual *two* and *both* and the plural numerals *three*, *four*, etc., i. e. *one* is opposed to *more than one*:

I only want one stamp. You've given me two.

This is a borderline case between a pronoun and a numeral.

One, in combination with nouns denoting time, is used to express some vague indefinite moment/period:

One day you are going to be sorry about this.

One afternoon, a month later, he was sitting in his arm-chair, in the little library.

One Sunday morning, as they were sitting at breakfast, Peter rushed into the kitchen.

The one is used with the meaning of “only” or “single”:

He's the one man you can rely on in the present circumstances.

This is the one thing we can feel certain about.

4. Both count and non-count nouns can be omitted in certain structures, but count nouns cannot be omitted after the indefinite article. Compare the structures where omission is possible and those where *one* is obligatory.

Count singular:

I'd prefer the long novel to the short (one).

I'd prefer a long novel to a short one.

Count plural:

I'd prefer the long novels to the short (ones).

I'd prefer long novels to short (ones).

Non-count (mass):

I'd prefer (the) red wine to (the) white.

Note that if the prop-word *one* is preceded by an adjective, an article must be used with it.

The choice between *one* and its omission is quite often to be found in English. After an adjective, the noun need not be repeated or replaced by *one* in sentences like:

If you take the beige blouse, I'll have the green.

What's the difference between a direct question and indirect?

The noun is always omitted with a small set of adjectives and participles:

<i>blind</i>	<i>deaf</i>	<i>homeless</i>	<i>poor</i>	<i>unemployed</i>
<i>brave</i>	<i>disabled</i>	<i>injured</i>	<i>rich</i>	<i>wealthy</i>
<i>dead</i>	<i>elderly</i>	<i>living</i>	<i>sick</i>	<i>young</i>

When they are substantivized, they acquire the meaning “the class of people who are blind, brave, dead, etc.”. The definite article is obligatory:

We're collecting money for the sick (blind, injured, etc.).

5. Pay attention to the following restrictions with the prop-word *one*.

1) *One* is not used after *own*:

Thank you for offering your pen, but I'd rather use my own.

2) *One* is normally not used after a superlative adjective or a comparative adjective determined by the definite article:

Of all the sisters Jane was the prettiest.
Of the two armchairs I chose the harder.

3) *One* is not used after cardinal numerals:

I have only one brother and you have two.

4) Note the idiomatic uses of *one*:

The bus never turned up, sir! — That's a good one, Smith. I was on it myself, so where were you? (= That's unbelievable; slang; sometimes written a good 'un.)

"A good 'un, Freddie!" they cried, as they bent double with laughter. (= That's a good joke!)

I, for one, don't think it's a good idea. (= as far as... is concerned)

It's all one to me where we go — round the shops or to the museums again. (= I don't mind; used to express agreement with any of the choices offered, and often also a lack of interest in any of them.)

One for Aunt Julie — there, that's right! Good! (= Take one spoonful for a particular person; used to encourage children to eat their food)

*What about having one for the road? — No, thanks, I'm driving.
(= one more drink before going home or going on a journey)*

And now, ladies and gentlemen, the star of tonight's show, the one and only Rob Robertson! (used in announcing or presenting an actor, singer, etc.)

5) A *one* occurs, exceptionally, in colloquial English, as in:

Oh, you are a one! (= an amusing, or daring, person)

The pronoun **SOME**

Some is invariable in form; it is used as a determiner and a substantive.

1. The determiner *some* occurs with a singular countable noun to refer to an unknown or unidentified person or thing; it is then stressed and pronounced [sʌm]:

*She's living in some village in Kent.
Ask some experienced person to help you.
Some fool has locked the door.*

This structure can be used to suggest that the speaker is not interested in somebody or something:

If you think I want to spend the rest of my life doing some boring office job, you're mistaken.

The combination of *some* [sʌm] with a number suggests that the number is a high or impressive one:

We have travelled some two hundred miles — only to find that he had already left the country.

Some pronounced [sʌm] may acquire a more emphatic meaning to be used for contrast:

I enjoy some music, but not much of it.

I've got some money, but not enough to buy a new car.

Some people are always late; others prefer to be punctual.

2. The determiner *some* can modify a plural count noun or an uncountable (mass) noun. It usually expresses an indefinite number or amount when it is not important to say exactly how many / how much the speaker has in mind; there is often an additional meaning of indefinite quality. When *some* has this indefinite meaning, it usually has a weak pronunciation [səm]:

I'll bring you some books to read on your trip.

Can you give me some lunch?

I'd like to listen to some music.

With an uncountable or plural noun, *some* generally suggests the idea of an indefinite (but not very large) quantity or number. When the idea of a limited quantity or number is not prominent, no determiner is used. Cf.:

We've planted some geraniums in the garden. (a limited number)

We've decided to plant geraniums in front of the house this year instead of chrysanthemums. (no idea of number is implied)

3. *Some* can be used as substantive, i. e. without a noun, to point back to a previously mentioned noun group when the reference is clear:

Dad gave me a box of chocolates. Would you like some?

Is there any meat left in the fridge? — Yes, there is some.

Some used as substantive takes a plural verb:

Some think that it is easy to be a parent.

Some agree with us, and some disagree.

Some is often followed by an *of*-phrase containing a personal pronoun or a definite noun phrase:

Some of us want to stay.

I couldn't answer some of his questions.

Some of these answers are correct.

Before *of*, or with no following noun, *some* is pronounced [sʌm].

Some is common in positive statements and certain types of questions; for further information about the use of *some* in different syntactic contexts, see below.

4. Note the use of *some* with the noun *time*:

a) *some time* [sʌm̩ taim] means “a considerable amount of time”, “quite a lot of time”:

I'm afraid it'll take some time to fix your bike.

b) *sometime* [sʌmtaim] refers to an indefinite time, usually in the future; it often means “one day”:

Let's have a party sometime this week.

c) *sometimes* [sʌmtaimz] is an adverb of frequency; it means “on some occasion”, “more than once” (past, present or future):

I sometimes wonder why I have put up with you for so long!

5. Note the idiomatic use of *some*:

Some help you've been, I must say — you've just sat there and done nothing all afternoon! (= You are no kind of help at all; said in an indignant or angry tone.)

That was some dancer! That was some game you played! (= person or thing of a special or unusual type)

We've solved this problem to some extent. (= partly)

The pronoun ANY

Any functions both as a determiner and a substantive.

1. Like *some*, *any* used as determiner can modify a plural countable noun or an uncountable noun to refer to an indefinite quantity or number when it is not easy, or not important, to say exactly how many/how much the speaker is thinking about. While *some* usually occurs in affirmative sentences (positive statements), *any* is common in questions, negative sentences, conditional clauses and other “non-assertive” contexts implying the idea of uncertainty or negation:

Did you meet any difficulties?

Have you bought any new clothes?

If he doesn't find any books on this subject he won't be able to write his paper.

If you have any news, let me know at once.

Any alone does not have a negative meaning; it is only negative when used with *not* or after certain words with negative implication (*never, without, seldom, hardly, etc.*)

Note that *not any* cannot begin a sentence; *no* is used instead:

No boy at school has ever been abroad yet.

In the same way as *some*, *any* with an uncountable or plural noun usually suggests the idea of an indefinite amount or quantity. When there is no idea of quantity or number, no determiner is used. Cf.:

Is there any water in the jug? (The interest is in the amount.)
Is there water on the Moon? (The interest is in the existence of water, not its amount.)

2. *Any* can be used with stress and with distributive meaning in positive statements outside non-assertive contexts. It implies the idea of free choice, meaning "it doesn't matter who / which / what" and can modify countable nouns singular and plural as well as mass nouns:

Any plan would be better than no plan.

Any help is welcome.

Ask any doctor — they'll all tell you that alcohol is poison.

You can borrow any books from my library.

Note that *either*, not *any*, is used to talk about a choice between two alternatives:

I can write with either hand.

The expression *at all* is often used to emphasize the meaning of "(not) any":

She doesn't speak any English at all.

Is there any difference at all between "small" and "little"?

3. A noun is often dropped after *any* if the reference is clear; *any* is then found in substantive use:

I'd like some beer, please. — I'm sorry, there isn't any left.

Any can be followed by an *of*-phrase containing a personal pronoun or a definite noun phrase:

I don't like any of the actors.

You are free to choose any of my books.

Any of you can do it.

The verb can be singular or plural in sentences like:

If any of your friends comes / come to see you, I'll make some tea.

A plural verb is more common in an informal style.

4. Note the following uses of *any*:

a) with comparatives:

Can you go any faster?

Are you feeling any better now?

b) with the adjective *different*:

This scheme isn't any different from the previous one.

c) in *any good / any use*:

Was the book any good?

5. The comparative structure *as + adjective + as any (N)* can express the same degree of quality or else a superior quality; the latter meaning is usually made clear from the context. Cf.:

This printer is as good as any. (= of the same quality as (the) others; no worse than any other one)

This student is as bright as any in her class; no wonder she has won a scholarship to go to Italy for a year. (= superior to any other student)

6. Note the idiomatic use of *any*:

I ate at fast food restaurants any number of times and never became ill. (= a sufficiently large number of something)

At any rate, we met a few interesting people at that party. (= anyway; frequently used to introduce a conclusion or a final statement)

In any event / In any case, I'll be there by lunch time. (= no matter what happens)

3.7.2. Compound Pronouns

Some and *any* form the following compound pronouns (compounds): *someone, somebody, anyone* and *anybody*, which refer to people, and *something, anything*, which have non-personal reference⁹.

3.7.2.1. The Use of -ONE, -BODY and -THING Compounds

1. All the compound forms are used as substantives and perform corresponding functions (those of subject, direct and indirect object, and predicative):

Hey, somebody say something!

Do not attempt to communicate with anyone.

He may be anybody — a mad millionaire — a crazy businessman — an escaped inmate of Broadmoor.

He looked at my pictures and didn't say anything.

2. There seems to be no significant difference between compounds with *-body* and compounds with *-one*. The forms with *-one* are more

⁹ Many rules regulating the use of *some-* and *any-* compounds also apply to the corresponding compound forms with *every-* and *no-*: *everybody, everyone, everything, nobody, no one, none, nothing*. For convenience's sake some examples with *every-* and *no-* compounds are given further in this section.

common; those with *-body* are a little more informal. Thus, in many contexts these pronouns are interchangeable:

Somebody / someone told me you've been to Africa.
Has anybody / anyone got anything to say?
Everybody / everyone over 18 now has a vote.
There was nobody / no one at the office.

It should be noted, however, that the compounds in *-one* are, as a rule, more individualizing: while *somebody*, etc. refer to persons collectively, *someone*, etc. refer to individuals. Another point of difference is that *someone* prevails when the fact/action is more important whereas *somebody* occurs when the stress is laid rather on the doer/agent. Cf.:

It's awfully hot in here — someone has left the fire burning.
Who sent you these flowers? Somebody very rich?

3. *Anything* and *something* are invariable, whereas the compound forms with *-body* and *-one* can be used in the genitive case:

Did you take anybody's picture at the ceremony?
It might be anyone's fault.
He pulled his cap down over his eyes and screened himself behind somebody's shoulder.

4. The compounds *anyone* and *everyone* differ from such word groups as *any one* and *every one*, which have a stress on *one* referring back to a countable noun that has been mentioned before:

Give me one of those pens — any one will do.
There aren't any apples left — you've eaten every one.

These word groups are often followed by an *of*-phrase:

He's written three books. Every one of them is a pageturner.

5. Compounds can be postmodified by adjectives, infinitives or adverbial expressions:

There was somebody in the room... somebody all wet and dripping.
She needed someone to confide in.
I'd like you to meet someone decent, get married and have children.
I have something important to tell you.
Is there anything interesting on TV tonight?

All of the compounds formed by *some*, *any*, *every* and *no* can be postmodified by *else*; all compounds with personal reference in this case have the genitive case with the apostrophe:

But someone else quarrelled with Sir Reuben, someone else left him that night white with rage.
This is someone else's coat, I'm afraid.

Note also the informal use of *much* after *any-* and *no-* words:

He didn't tell me anything much about it yesterday.

There's nothing much on TV tonight.

6. When the compound pronoun is used as subject, it occurs with a singular verb:

Everyone was in the living-room.

Somebody has made a good job of it.

Does anybody want tea?

No one is to leave the room.

7. Personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns referring back to the compound pronouns *somebody*, *everybody*, etc., can be either singular or plural:

Everybody took care of himself. (more formal)

Everybody took care of themselves. (less formal)

Anyone being so foolhardy as to interfere in such affairs places himself in a very delicate position. (more formal)

There's somebody on the telephone. — Tell them I'm busy. (less formal)

Sentences like *Everyone likes to go his way* are said to sound somewhat pedantic; the same applies to similar structures with *everybody*, *somebody*, *nobody*.

In formal English, the tendency is to use *he (his)* when the sex is not stated:

Everyone thinks he has the answer.

Everyone to his taste. (a proverb)

Other ways of back reference are also possible:

By that time everyone in the household had told his or her story.

Everybody in the room promptly stopped what he or she was doing and stared at him.

8. Note the idiomatic use of *something*, *anything* and *anyone*:

I thought jobs here were supposed to be well-paid or something!
(used when the speaker disagrees with or does not fully believe the meaning of a particular word)

I think he's studying sociology or something (like it) at the university. (used when the speaker is unsure of what is said)

You know something? I've never told you this before, but this is my second marriage. (used to introduce something that the speaker thinks important)

He is something of a hermit. (= resembles a hermit; is, in a way, a hermit)

I hope to see something of you when you come to London. (= to see you a couple of times)

- He's anything but handsome.* (= far from it; just the opposite)
- She isn't anything like as nice as her sister.* (= not at all near; not to any extent)
- She's as busy as anything, with a new baby, a job, and a house to run!* (= very)
- If anything, this glass has more in it than that one* (a) = if there is any difference; (b) = on the contrary).
- He ran like anything down the street.* (= very fast)
- If you want to ring me or anything, I'll be at the office all day.* (used to introduce other indefinite possibilities as suggestions, not for a specific purpose)
- It's anyone's game/race.* (= the game/race can be won by any of the competitors)
- It's anyone's guess.* (= it's difficult to predict; there is no certain way of knowing)

3.7.2.2. *The Use of SOME- and ANY- Compounds in Different Contexts*

Some and *any*, as well as their compound forms, tend to occur in different grammatical contexts.

A sentence can be assertive or non-assertive. Assertion involves both positive and declarative statements (*They're waiting outside*), while non-assertion involves either negative (*They aren't waiting outside*), or interrogative statements (*Are they waiting outside?*)¹⁰. *Some-* words (both determinative and substantive) are usual in positive statements and thus can be called assertive forms. *Any-* words, determinate and substantive, unless they imply the idea of free choice, do not normally occur outside negative and interrogative sentences or conditional clauses; they are non-assertive forms. Cf.:

Pronouns	Positive statements	Negative statements	Questions
Determinative	<i>She's got some friends</i>	<i>She hasn't got any friends</i>	<i>Has she got any friends?</i>
Substantive	<i>He was rude to somebody</i>	<i>He wasn't rude to anybody</i>	<i>Was he rude to anybody?</i>

However, a few additional points should be made on the use of *some-* and *any-*words in various grammatical contexts.

¹⁰ There is also another approach to assertion, which treats both affirmative and negative statements as assertive, distinguishing between positive and negative assertion. However, the treatment of negative statements (along with questions) as non-assertive adopted in the present section allows giving a more systematic outline on the use of *some-* and *any-*words.

1. Interrogative sentences. Questions belong to the class of non-assertions, for they leave open whether the answer is positive or negative. Any- words are generally used in questions if the answer is completely open:

Is there any milk in the bottle?

Have you got any questions?

Did anyone call last night?

Is there anybody at home?

Is there anything you'd like to know about him?

Note that, a question may be presented in a form which is biased towards a positive or negative answer. Negative orientation is found in questions which contain a negative form of one kind or another:

Does no one believe me?

Doesn't anyone believe me?

If a question has positive orientation, it uses *some-* forms rather than the usual non-assertive forms:

Did someone call last night? (= Is it true that someone called last night?)

Have you brought some paper and a pen? (The hearer is expected to bring them.)

Do you mind if I put some music on?

Did you say something?

These questions indicate that the speaker expects or encourages the answer Yes, merely asking for confirmation of his or her assumption. For politeness, it is customary to use *some-* words in making an offer:

Would you like something to eat? (= I expect you would.)

Do you need some money for the phone?

Can I get you something to drink?

In general, the use of *some* implies that the speaker hopes for, or at least anticipates, a positive answer. The use of *any* implies the expectation of a negative answer, or a neutral feeling on the part of the speaker.

2. Negative sentences. When the speaker wants to deny the truth of something, s/he uses a negative sentence containing one of the negative items. In such sentences non-assertive *any*-words are generally used:

I didn't post any of the letters. (Cf.: I posted none of the letters.)

Note also:

We aren't making any progress, I'm afraid.

He didn't give me any answer.

*I was late; I didn't find anyone in the house.
He didn't tell me anything about your proposal.*

Non-assertive *any-* words are also common after certain words with negative implications.

Verbs (*deny, fail, forget, prevent, etc.*):

He denies he said anything to her.

Please forget that you ever saw anyone enter this house.

Adjectives (*difficult, hard, reluctant, etc.*):

It is difficult to understand anything she says.

He's reluctant to speak to anyone today.

Adverbs (*seldom, hardly, never, etc.*):

She seldom sees anyone.

John has never given any indication of being anything but healthy.

They hardly understand anything at all.

Prepositions (*against, without, etc.*):

He arrived without any of his belongings.

She is always against anything I suggest.

The non-assertive forms even occur in positive subordinate clauses following a negative in the main clause:

Nobody has promised that any of you will be released yet.

That wouldn't deter anyone who had any courage.

But sometimes we can also use *some-* words after the negative word. The meaning of the sentence in this case may be different from that of the sentence containing non-assertive *any-* words. For instance, the meaning of the sentence *I didn't post some of the letters* is different from that of *I didn't post any of the letters* in that the speaker implies that there are some letters left. In contrast to *any-*, *some-* words indicate that the speaker does have in mind some part of an indefinite quantity or amount of the objects referred to.

3. Conditional clauses. If-clauses are like questions in implying uncertainty. They tend, therefore, to contain non-assertive *any-* forms:

If you have any problems, get in touch with me.

If you notice anything unusual, give me a call at once.

Clauses beginning with *unless* normally contain assertive forms:

I won't phone you, unless something unforeseen happens.

However, sentences like *Unless anyone has any questions, the meeting is adjourned* are also quite common.

On the whole, in spite of the general tendency to use *some*-words in assertive contexts and *any*-words in non-assertive contexts, syntactic conditions alone cannot account for the distribution of *some*- and *any*-words in interrogative, negative and conditional sentences. In this connection, some authors claim that there can't be any inflexible *some*- / *any*- rule. The point is that sentences with *some* involve a positive feeling on the speaker's part about the action described, whereas those with *any* involve a neutral or negative attitude. For instance, sentences like *If you eat any candy, I'll whip you* and *If you eat some spinach, I'll give you ten dollars* are not just pure conditions. They are rather a threat and a promise. In these cases the emotional basis of the speaker comes into play, in the choice between *some* and *any*. A threat goes with *any*, since usually someone threatens someone else to prevent an undesired action; a promise goes with *some*, since the speaker has in mind a desirable action or situation.

3.7.3. Negative Pronouns

The subgroup of negative pronouns contains the negative determiners *no* and *neither* and the compound pronouns *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing* and *none*.

The pronoun no

1. *No* is negative in meaning and used only as a noun determiner. It can modify a singular or plural countable noun or an uncountable noun to mean "not any" or "not a/an":

I telephoned, but there was no answer. (= there wasn't an answer)

She had no gloves on, and her hands were red with cold. (= She hadn't any gloves on.)

No is used as emphatic negative in sentences like:

She was no beauty (at all).

The old man's no fool.

I'm no philosopher.

2. Sometimes, sentences constructed with *verb + not* and *no + noun* have a similar meaning. The structure with *no* is generally used to emphasize the negative idea. Thus, *There was no answer* and *They have no telephone* are more emphatic than *There wasn't an answer* and *They haven't a telephone*. Cf. also:

I haven't got any time to help you. — I have no time to help you.

There aren't any letters for you today. — There are no letters for you today.

It should be noted that to begin a sentence, *no* and *not* *not any* is generally used:

No teachers went on strike.

3. Indefinite expressions of amount, especially *no* and *none*, often cause concord problems. Whether the verb is singular or plural is determined by the type of the noun modified and the sense required:

So far no willingness to help has been shown by him.

No person of that name has applied.

No people of that name live here.

With *no*, countable nouns are usually plural unless the sense makes a singular noun necessary:

He's got no children. (more usual than *He's got no child*)

He's got no wife. (more natural than *He's got no wives*)

4. With -ing forms, *no* is used to express prohibition:

No smoking, please.

No crossing.

No trespassing.

No parking.

5. Note the idiomatic use of *no*:

She's no good as a writer. (= inadequate; incompetent)

No doubt, the weather will change. (= surely)

He knows no end of funny stories. (= lots of) (informal)

You think I'm going to keep my mouth shut? No way! (= Absolutely not.) (informal).

The pronouns NO ONE, NOBODY, NOTHING

1. *No one*, *nobody* and *nothing* are used as substantives only. *No one* and *nobody* refer to persons and can be used in the genitive case; *nothing* has non-personal reference and is invariable in form:

Nobody came to meet me.

No one knows about it yet.

Everybody's business is nobody's business. (a proverb)

He had nothing to say.

Nothing was heard of him.

The usual effect of all the negative items including *no one*, *nobody* and *nothing* is to make the whole clause in which they occur negative. After a negative pronoun, *any*-words normally occur:

No one has any doubts about his ability.

Nobody ever tells me anything.

No one (also written *no-one* in BrE) has the same meaning as *nobody*. Unlike *none*, it cannot be followed by an *of*-phrase.

2. *Nothing* and *nobody* can be used with the indefinite article and acquire a plural form to mean “a trifling thing, event, remark or person” and “person of no importance, authority or position”, respectively:

The new commander-in-chief was a (mere) nothing.

She has married a (mere) nobody.

They were treated as nobodies.

Note also: *the little nothings of life; to whisper sweet/soft nothings.*

3. Note the idiomatic use of *nothing*:

It was / it's nothing. (= There's no need to thank me or praise me.)

Nothing doing tonight — there's only an old film on at the cinema. (= Nothing is happening.)

Will you help me with the washing up? — Nothing doing. I must go and get my work done. (= No, I refuse.)

There's nothing to it. (= It really is easy.)

It was an awful hotel: the meals were bad, the service hopeless, to say nothing of the noise outside. (= to say nothing of something very obvious that only needs to be named; in addition to...)

The pronoun **NONE**

1. *None* is used as a substantive. It is negative in meaning and has personal and non-personal reference. *None* occurs without a noun if the meaning is clear from the context:

How many English books have you read? — None.

He asked them for advice. None was given.

The verb can be singular or plural, depending on the sense required:

He asked for more coffee, but none was left.

She wanted some more chocolates but none was left. (formal)

She wanted some more chocolates but none were left. (informal)

2. *None* is often followed by an *of*-phrase containing a pronoun or a definite noun phrase:

None of it is worth keeping.

None of this ham is any good.

None of the shopkeepers would give me any more credit.

None of them remembered my birthday.

When the *of*-phrase contains a plural pronoun or noun, the verb can be singular (more formal) or plural (more informal):

None of them is / are present.

Careful speakers and writers prefer *none of them is*.

3. There is a good test to bring out the difference between the use of *none* and, on the other hand, *no one*, *nobody* and *nothing*.

a) *No one (nobody)* is used to answer a *who*-question:

Who're you waiting for? — No one (nobody).

b) *Nothing* is used to answer a *what*-question:

What're you thinking about? — Nothing.

c) *None* is used to answer a *how many / how much*-question:

How many poems have you learned? — None.

How much petrol is left? — None.

4. Note the idiomatic use of *none*:

Her suggestion was second to none, and the manager accepted it eagerly. (= better than anything else)

I lent my bike to Bob; when I got it back, it was none the worse for wear. (= no worse because of use or effort)

We'll have none of your gossip. (=to tolerate or endure no amount of...)

Half a loaf is better than none. (a proverb)

3.7.4. Distributive Pronouns

All, both, every, and each are amount words, or quantifiers, of inclusive meaning. *Every* is used as a determiner only; the others function both as determiners and substantives.

The pronouns ALL and BOTH

1. As a determiner, *all* occurs with plural countable nouns or uncountable nouns, and *both* with plural count nouns only:

Please type all (the) letters.

All life is sacred.

Both (the) secretaries are quite efficient.

All, which can be both singular or plural in meaning, and *both*, which is not proper plural but "dual", i. e. refers only to two items, are also termed "predeterminers" as they combine with other determiners (articles, possessives and demonstratives) occurring before them:

I've answered all these letters.

He's spent all his money on this car.

Both the other men felt icy at the calm viciousness in his voice.

The following structures are possible with *all* and *both* modifying a noun:

All/both documents have been signed.

All the/both the documents have been signed.

All of the/both of the documents have been signed.

It should be noted that there is a difference in reference with *all*. Cf.:

All children like ice-cream. (generic, or universal reference)

All the children are in bed. (specific reference in a given situation)

2. *All* and *both* can be followed by an *of*-phrase containing a personal pronoun or a definite noun phrase; *of*-constructions are optional with nouns and obligatory with pronouns:

She shook her head and smiled at both of them/both (of) the girls.

I'd like to invite all of you/all (of) my friends to my birthday party.

Have you eaten all of it/all (of) the cake?

Though *all* is commonly used as a predeterminer, it also occurs directly before a plural count noun or a non-count noun:

All things are difficult before they are easy. (a proverb)

All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy. (a proverb)

With temporal nouns, e. g. *day, night, week, month, summer, winter*, etc., the definite article is normally absent:

I've been waiting for you all day.

The combination *all the* can be used with a singular count noun, but *the whole of* or *all of the* is preferable:

All (of) the country was shocked by the news.

The whole country was shocked by the news.

Note that while both *all (of)* and *whole* can be used with singular nouns to mean "complete", "every part of", the word order is different: *determiner + whole + noun* (*my whole life*) but *all (of) + determiner + noun* (*all of my life*).

3. *All the* with concrete singular nouns is less rare in case of contrastive stress. In *He hasn't translated all the text*, the word *text* is treated as denoting a kind of divisible mass. This is also the case with *all my family, all the way*, etc., where singular count nouns refer to things that can naturally be divided into parts. It is noteworthy that *all + noun* is possible, though not commonly used as the subject of a negative verb:

All children don't like hot milk. (= There are some who do and some who don't; *He все дети любят горячее молоко.*)

Not all + noun + affirmative verb is preferable in this case:

Not all children like hot milk.

4. All and both can be put after pronouns used as objects:

Nelly will invite you all / you both.

I've shown them all / them both your letter.

When *all* and *both* are used after a subject pronoun they may go in mid-position and follow an auxiliary or a modal verb, thus being separated from the pronoun:

They all / both rejected my offer.

We can all / both ride a horse.

Note also the mid-position of *all* and *both* with nouns used as the subject of a sentence:

My sons can all / both play golf.

The teachers were all / both alarmed at John's behaviour.

5. All and both used as substantives function mainly as the subject or object of a sentence:

All's well that ends well.

We give him all he needs.

You should have seen my parents' faces! Both were mad at me.

Have you seen Jack and Jill? — I talked to both this afternoon.

Besides, *all* can be used predicatively:

That's all.

The pronoun *all* is singular in meaning when it means "everything", "the whole of a thing". This is generally restricted to the structure *all + relative clause*:

All (that) I know is that he's gone.

All (that) he has is yours.

This structure is said to have rather a negative meaning, expressing ideas like "nothing more", or "the only thing(s)":

All he wants is to be left alone.

This is all I've got.

The use of *all* to mean "everybody" or "everything" as in *All is lost* and *All are dead* is considered obsolete in Modern English. However, it regularly occurs in dramatic contexts like newspaper headlines:

Spy tells all.

Winner gets all.

When *all* means "everybody", which is rare, it is plural in meaning and combines with a plural verb:

All are welcome.

6. *All* is used to emphasize some adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions:

You're all wrong.

The money is all gone.

She was all alone.

It's all the same to me.

It's all because of him.

It's all for the best.

7. Note the idiomatic use of *all*:

It's only a game, after all! (a) = in spite of everything; b) = anyway)
I've suspected that all along. (= all the time)

The surface is oily all over. (= completely)

There were books, papers, magazines and all covering the whole of the floor. (= including the people or things just mentioned and a large number of the rest) (informal; pronounced 'n all)

For all I know (care), the mayor wasn't re-elected. (= as far as I know / care)

Of all the stupid things to do! (used to express annoyance or surprise)

That's all right. (= There's no need to thank or apologize.)

The pronouns *EVERY* and *EACH*

1. *Every* and *each* are mainly used as determiners in combination with singular count nouns; *each* also occurs as a substantive:

Every cloud has a silver lining. (a proverb)

You should make every effort to obtain this information.

Before leaving the classroom, the teacher gave each girl a task of her own.

They did not talk much about what each feared most.

To each his own. (a proverb)

Exceptionally, *every* may occur with a non-count noun, meaning "all", "whatever":

I'm prepared to give you every assistance you may need.

I wish you every success.

Every can be used with plural expressions like *every few days*, *every few months*, etc., and in combination with *other*:

Jane comes to see us every few days.

We made a stop every two miles to have some rest.

*He promised to write every other day.
Write only on every other line, please.*

2. *Every* and *each* are called distributive words because they pick out the members of a set or group singly, rather than look at them together. In many cases both *every* and *each* can be used without much difference in meaning:

*He looked more and more gloomy each/every time I met him.
Fruit is getting scarcer in my garden each/every year.
Each/every man knows his job.*

However, *each* usually refers to two or more persons or things whereas *every* is normal to talk about three or more. Thus, it is possible to say *People were gathering on each/very side of the square* but only *each* will be correct in *People were gathering on each side of the street* (which has two sides) or *He had a heavy suitcase in each hand*. In this respect *each* is close to *both* and they can replace one another in many contexts:

She kissed me on both cheeks/on each cheek.

There is another point of difference between *each* and *every*. Though they are both distributive words, *each* refers individually when we think of people or things separately, one at a time, without adding them up. *Every* is more common when we think about people or things together, in a group, thus gathering separate items into a whole:

Each girl in turn came up to the headmistress and made a little bow.

The old doctor used to give every patient the same prescription.

Due to the difference in meaning, *every* and not *each* is used with words and expressions like *almost*, *practically*, *nearly*, etc. which stress the idea of a whole group:

We could hear nearly every word in the last row of the gallery.

Every is closer to *all*, though the distinction between them is that in a sentence like *All the students took part in the conference*, "the students" are considered in a mass; in the sentence *Every student took part in the conference* reference is made to the many individual students that make up the mass. Besides, *every* often suggests "without exception". Note also that the sentence *She gave a basket of strawberries to all of the girls* may mean that the girls shared one basket of strawberries, whereas the meaning of the sentence *She gave a basket of strawberries to each/every one of the girls* is that there were as many baskets of strawberries as girls and each/every one of the girls got one of her own.

3. As a result of its specific meaning, *each* may be followed by an *of*-phrase containing a pronoun or a definite noun phrase; the pronoun or noun is plural:

He looked at each of us in turn.

The teacher gave a book to each of the boys.

I write to each of my daughters once a week.

An *of*-phrase is not possible with *every*:

The verb with *each of...* tends to be singular, but it can be plural in an informal style:

Each of us have little secrets. (informal)

4. Like *all* and *both*, *each* can follow the subject of the sentence and go with a verb in mid-position, as in:

They each have two sons.

We each think the same.

My sisters have each given me a crystal vase as a birthday present.

Each can also follow an object as a part of a longer structure:

I want you each to get a good education.

She bought them each a beer.

I gave the boys each a sandwich and a Coca-Cola.

He sent them each a long letter.

Though a noun can be dropped and *each* can occur alone if the noun has already been mentioned, *each one* and *each of them* is more common in an informal style. The following verb is usually singular:

Four men entered the office and each (one of them) was asked to sign his name.

The pronoun referring back to *each + noun/pronoun* can be singular or plural, which is more informal:

Each guest chose what he/she/they liked best to drink.

Each of them explained the situation in his/her/their own way.

5. Note the idiomatic use of *every*:

We eat mutton every now and then / every now and again / every once in a while. (= occasionally)

Every minute / moment counts. (= Time is very important; It's very urgent.)

I expect every living soul to be there on time. (= every person) (informal)

The pronouns EVERYONE, EVERYBODY AND EVERYTHING

In combination with *-one*, *-body* and *-thing*, the pronoun *every* forms the following compounds: *everyone*, *everybody* and *everything*. They

are all used as substantives only and take a singular verb. *Everyone* and *everybody* refer to persons, while *everything* refers to things:

Everybody knows he's a miser.

Everyone wants to meet him.

Everything is good in its season. (a proverb)

Everyone and *everybody* can be used in the genitive case, whereas *everything* is invariable:

Everybody's business is nobody's business. (a proverb)

She's sure of everyone's consent.

Everyone's eyes swept to the window.

(For more information about the use of compound forms with *every*, see 3.7.2. Compound Pronouns).

The pronoun OTHER

1. *Other* is used as a determiner and a substantive. As a determiner, it is invariable and occurs with plural count nouns to mean "additional", "remaining":

How many other brothers have you?

Other horses were exercising on the sand tract.

I have no other friends but you.

Other can also mean "an alternative", "besides this/these":

Have you got any other boots, or are these the only ones?

Put on some other clothes, will you?

The combination of *other* with the definite article modifying a singular count noun means "the second of the two":

He suddenly saw his mother on the other side of the street.

We walked to the other end of the garden in silence.

Before pulling on the other glove she paused and gave me a quick smile.

The other modifying a plural noun means "the rest", "the remaining":

The other tourists remained in the camp.

Jack was standing by the window with a glass in his hand; the other guests had gone.

Note that *other* is not used as an adjective to mean "different":

I'd rather have a completely different colour.

You look quite different without your eyeglasses.

2. As a substantive, *other* has the plural form *others* and the genitive form *other's* (*others'*); the meaning of the substantive *other* is

much the same as that of the determiner. Normally, *other(s)* is only used alone if it refers back to a noun that has been mentioned before:

The bar was kept by two very nice girls, one of them American, the other English.

These shoes are too small. Have you got any others?

One of my sisters' husband is an accountant, the other's is a bank officer.

An exception is the common plural use of (*the*) *others* to mean “(the) other people”:

She never thinks of others.

I must consult the others.

3. Note the idiomatic use of *other* in:

I saw him the other day. (= a few days ago)

He must have eaten something or other which upset his stomach.

He'll find some idiot or other to do it for him as usual.

I don't want you to be other than you are.

The pronoun ANOTHER

1. *Another* is one word; it is invariable in form and can be thought of as a combination of two determiners: the indefinite article and *other*. As a determiner, it occurs with singular count nouns to mean “an additional, extra”:

Will you have another cup of tea?

I'd like to have another talk with your sister.

It can also mean “(an) alternative”, “besides this”:

Take this cup away and bring me another one.

Show me another hat, I don't like this one.

Another can, however, occur before a plural noun with *few* or any cardinal number, as well as *dozen* and *score*, to mean “(that number) more”:

We'll have to wait another few weeks.

I need another five pounds.

What fine eggs! Let's take another dozen!

2. Like *other*, *another* is mainly used alone, i. e. as substantive, to refer to a previously mentioned noun or express contrast:

This skirt is too tight, try another.

One would blame him, another would excuse him.

3. Note the idiomatic use of *another*:

Ask me another! (= I don't know.)

Tell me another! (= I simply can't believe you.) (rather old-fashioned)

You're another! (an expression used as a reply to show that the accusation just made of someone else applies to the first speaker also: I think Jim's rather a fool! — Yes, and you're another!)

The pronouns **EITHER** and **NEITHER**

Either and its negative counterpart *neither* are used both as determiners and substantives. They are not to be confused with adverbs, as in *I'm not thirsty.* — *Neither am I; I'm not, either* (informal) or correlative coordinating conjunctions, as in *You either follow my instructions or you leave immediately; He heard neither real pleasure nor real disappointment in her voice.*

1. As determiners, *either* and *neither* occur with singular count nouns only:

Either solution is a bad one.

They were sitting on either side of the fire.

I can agree in neither case.

Neither statement is true.

Either mainly means "one or the other of two":

You can go by either road.

Shall I come on Saturday or Sunday? — Either day will do.

It may also mean "each of two", especially in the expressions *on either side* and *at either end*:

The river overflowed on either side.

There was a drug-store at either end of the street.

Neither is used to mean "not one and not the other (of two)":

He took neither side in the discussion.

Shall we go on Tuesday or Wednesday? — I'm afraid, neither (day) will do.

"Ulysses" and "To the Lighthouse" are great books but neither is easy to read.

2. The meaning "one or the other of the two" is also found when *either* (*neither* in negative statements) occurs as a substantive, without a noun:

Shall I come on Saturday or Sunday? — Either will do.

Would you have white or red wine? — I don't mind. Either.

Does that mean yes or no? — Neither.

Either and *neither* may be followed by an *of*-phrase containing a pronoun or a noun phrase:

I don't like either of her sisters / either of them.

Take either of the two routes.

You can have either of these cakes / either of them.

I like neither of her sisters / neither of them.

The verb after *of*-phrases with *either* and *neither* is usually singular, but it can be plural in an informal style:

Either of my brothers is married.

Either of my brothers are married. (informal)

Neither of them is at home now.

Neither of them are at home now. (informal)

A plural verb is favoured in informal usage because of proximity rule: "either of my brothers are...".

The pronoun pointing back to *either of/neither of* is normally in the singular though it can also be plural, which is informal:

If you see either of the girls, tell her to get in touch with me.

*If you see either of the girls, tell them to get in touch with me.
(informal)*

3.8. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

The reciprocal pronouns in English are *each other* and *one another*. They both show that something is done mutually. This is what they have in common, and in Modern English both these pronouns are normally used in the same way:

We spent the whole evening discussing the problem with each other / one another.

However, when two participants are involved, *each other* seems to be more common, while when there are more than two, *one another* is preferred:

I believe you two know each other.

Everybody could see that Mary and John were absolutely taken with each other.

Paul and Janet were made for each other. (= very well-suited romantically)

The three sisters looked at one another and burst out laughing.

Another point of difference is that *one another* is more common when making a general statement and not talking about particular people:

The translation of "se parler" is "to talk to one another".

As is seen from the above examples, both reciprocal pronouns mainly function as objects of different types:

Each other and one another can be freely used in the genitive case:

My parents have lived together for so long that they can easily read each other's mind.

They spent the short break comparing one another's notes.

3.9. INTERROGATIVE/RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The interrogative pronouns *who* (objective case *whom*), *whose*, *what* and *which* belong to the class of *wh*-words together with the interrogative adverbs *where*, *when* and *why*, and are used to introduce special questions (or *wh*-questions). Most interrogatives act both as determiners in a noun phrase and as substantives. Besides, they can be used to introduce subordinate clauses and phrases, in which case they are referred to as relative words, or relative pronouns (as in *We didn't know what to answer*).

Determiners

What book are you reading?

Which month is hotter here:

July or August?

Whose dog is this?

Substantives

What is this book about?

Which is the hottest month here, July or August?

Whose is this dog?

Who (whom) functions as a substantive only:

Who are you?

Who is he talking about?

Who (whom) and whose have personal reference; what and which can have personal and non-personal reference:

Who is that girl?

What poets do you like best?

Whose house is this?

What newspaper are you reading?

Which films do you prefer: thrillers or comedies?

Which pop singer do you like best: Michael Jackson or David Bowie?

The pronoun WHO

1. The pronoun *who*, which asks questions about persons, does not distinguish gender (sex) or number:

Who are the children in this picture?

Who is this man/woman?

Who is the nominative case and is mainly used as the subject or predicative of the sentence:

Who wrote this novel?

Who wants to help?

Who is the man on this bank-note?

Whom is the objective case and is used as prepositional or prepositionless object:

Whom is she going to marry?

Whom did you see there?

In whom can I confide?

By whom was it done?

2. It should be noted that *whom* is considered very formal, especially after prepositions. In spoken English it is replaced by *who*:

Who is she going to marry? (informal)

Who did you see there? (informal)

3. When *who* is used as a prepositional object, the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence:

Who are they laughing at?

Who can we rely on?

Who is he thinking about?

Who did he write this letter to?

4. Note the idiomatic use of *who*:

Don't forget to look up her name in "Who's Who". (= a reference book on contemporary outstanding people)

Did you talk to Mary? — Mary who? — Mary Roberts. (used after a Christian name to inquire about the person's surname)

The letter started out, "To Whom it May Concern". (a form of address used in letters when the writer does not know the name or position of the person who handles the kind of business s/he is writing about)

The pronoun WHOSE

1. *Whose* is a possessive interrogative determiner/substantive, thus it functions attributively or predicatively:

Whose hat are you wearing?

Whose are these glasses?

Prepositions can normally come before *whose* (more formal) or at the end of the sentence:

*In whose name has the house been bought?
Whose car are you going in?*

In short sentences with no verb, prepositions can come only before *whose*:

I'm planning a holiday abroad. — With whose money?

2. When used as an interrogative pronoun, *whose* has personal reference; when used as a relative pronoun introducing attributive clauses, it can have personal and non-personal reference:

The executive whose name had been given to us by the receptionist was in conference.

The gardener rooted out the tree whose trunk had been split in two by a lightning.

The pronoun WHAT

What is invariable in form; as a determiner, it has personal and non-personal reference; as a substantive, non-personal reference only. Thus, it has a wide range of use; in a noun phrase it is used attributively while as a substantive it functions as subject, object or predicative:

What colour is her hair? (an attribute)

What's so important about him? (a subject)

What do you have in mind? (an object)

What are your plans this afternoon? (a predicative)

1. *What* as a determiner in a noun phrase refers both to people and things:

What English books have you read in the original?

What people are you going to meet at the party tonight?

Besides, the determiner *what* can start an exclamatory sentence expressing various kinds of emotions: enthusiasm, admiration, surprise, dislike, disgust, etc.:

What a marvellous book he has written!

What a pretty girl she has turned out!

Exclamations of this kind are often shortened to a noun phrase:

What nonsense!

Really, what a suggestion!

Christ, what a job!

The determiner *what* combines with *other*:

What other problems has she got?

In questions about the kind or sort to which a person or thing belongs the expressions *what kind of* and *what sort of* are generally used:

*What sort of food would you like? — Chinese.
I've an important friend. — What kind of friend?*

2. When the pronoun *what* in substantive use refers to a person, it is limited to questions about people's professions, role, status and jobs:

*What's your brother? — He's a TV producer.
What's his sister? — She's a college graduate.*

In meaning this is similar to:

What's his job? — Deputy chief of station.

In contrast to that, a *who*-question is used to ask about the identity of a person; the answers can be different:

*Who's this? Eh, who's calling? — This is Phillip Chen.
Who was he? — His papers said, Jan Dunross, seaman first class.
Who're you? — A friend.
Do you know her, Andrew? — Who? (informal) — That girl in white.
Who's this MacStruan? — A distant cousin.*

In the case of *what* as a prepositional object, in an informal style especially, it is more common to place the preposition at the end of the sentence:

*What're you dreaming about?
What is he looking at?
What are we here for?
What's all this about?*

What can be also used to ask questions about actions:

What's he doing? — He's fixing his bike.

*It is very common in questions opening with *What about....**

*What about Saturday?
What about the races? I want to watch Noble Star run.*

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *what* are made emphatic by adding *ever* to show surprise or difficulty in believing something:

*Who ever could have told you that?
What ever are you doing here?*

These combinations can also be written as single words: *whatever*, *whoever*. Such structures belong to an informal style, especially with *on earth*, *the hell* (AmE also *in hell*) instead of *ever*:

*Whatever / What on earth are you speaking about?
Whoever / Who the hell has made this terrible mess?*

When used as relative pronouns serving as subordinators in complex sentences, -ever compounds are always written as single words:

Whatever happens, don't worry.

I think you're right, whoever may criticize you.

3. Note the idiomatic use of *what*:

What's he like? (= Что он за человек? Как он выглядит?)

What of that/it? (= Ну что из этого?)

...and I don't know what/who. (= ...and many other people/things also)

We'll be there on time, no matter what. (= in any event)

So what? (= What importance or relevance does that have?) (used to show a lack of interest and often said in an impolite, unfriendly way)

What is it to you? (= Why are you interested in it?)

What's up? (= What is happening?)

What's yours? (= What would you like to drink?)

Everyone had a hammer, a saw or whatever. (= or another thing of the same kind)

What often occurs as an expression of surprise or disbelief:

Robert gaped at her. "What?"

The pronoun *which*

1. *Which* is in many respects similar to *what*. It is invariable in form; it functions as a noun determiner and substantive and has both personal and non-personal reference:

Which way shall we go?

Which relatives would you invite to your wedding?

Which is more dangerous for your health: alcohol or tobacco?

Before another determiner (*the, my, these*) or a pronoun, the combination *which of* is used:

Which of these cars is yours?

Which of the rings do you like best?

Which of your friends are you bringing for the week end?

Who and *what* are not normally used in this way in Modern English.

2. As grammar books claim, *which* and *what* are often possible, with little difference of meaning:

Which / what painters have most influenced your technique?

Which / what is the highest mountain in the world?

The use of *which*, however, is more restricted because it is selective in meaning. It implies that the choice is made from a limited num-

ber of known persons or things, while *what* indicates that the speaker refers to some indefinite group, not previously specified. Cf.:

What languages are spoken in Switzerland?

Which language do you know better: French or Spanish?

What do you usually have for breakfast?

Which do you prefer at breakfast: tea or coffee?

What magazines does your daughter buy?

Which magazine do you prefer: the Vogue or Harper's Bazaar?

Note that *which* is used with reference to a limited number of choices, as in the following examples:

Robert turned his binoculars back on to Pilot Fish, then to Noble Star and then to Golden Lady, John Chen's mare. Which one's got the form?

That woman knows nothing or she should be a perfect actress.
Which?

Now everything is complicated or simple. Which?

As a result of this selective meaning, the answer to a *which*-question can be more specific than that to a *what*-question:

The offer is good till Monday. — Which Monday? — Next Monday.
Who's that girl? — Which one? — That one over there.

However, this is not always so. Cf.:

And what about your club? — Eh, what club?

He's out for lunch at his club. — Which club?

3. In substantive use, *who (whom)*, not *which* is more common with reference to people.

Whom do I want to win? Dunross or Gorn?

Who're you dating now: Peter or Nick?

However, *which* can be used to ask about people's identity. Cf.:

Who's her new boy friend? — He's Nick Crown, a pop singer or something.

Which is her new boy friend? — He's the man by the window with a red beard.

4. Note the idiomatic use of *which*:

I was so confused I didn't know which way to turn. (= had no idea about what to do)

The wind scattered the leaves every which way. (= in all directions) (folksy)

4. NUMERALS

The numeral is the part of speech that is used to denote exact numbers. The position of numerals in grammar is unique. Unlike any other part of speech, they belong to two codes: the language code and the numerical (digital) code. In written language, therefore, they can occur in two forms, verbal and non-verbal, i.e. as words or digits. This is just one feature that sets them apart from other word classes.

As a part of speech, the numerals have both open-class and closed-class characteristics. They resemble open-class words in that they are a class of infinite membership; at the same time, they resemble closed-class words in the sense that we do not create new numerals in the same way as we create new nouns or verbs, for they are made up of a limited number of morphemes combined according to regular rules.

Even if they are written as digits, numerals differ from other symbols (such as #, &, or @) frequently incorporated in the written text, primarily because they constitute a word class in its own right, falling into several clear-cut subtypes marked by a specific meaning and form.

4.1. MEANING OF NUMERALS

The numeral as a grammatical category conveys the quantitative meaning. Although a similar meaning can be conveyed by other parts of speech, primarily quantitative nouns and distributive pronouns, the numeral clearly has the central position among the quantitative expressions. A numeral resembles a term in that it is monosemantic. Its meaning is devoid of emotional and stylistic colouring and does not depend on the context; therefore, there is a one-to-one correspondence between the use of numerals in different languages. The few exceptions from this general rule are due to the idiomatic usage rather than universal properties of numerals.

Although the same meaning can be conveyed by a digit and a word, all elements of the numeric system do not have the same potential for verbalization. The greater the order of the number, the less likely

it is to receive a verbal form; the average speaker is unlikely to use verbal designations (if any) for exact orders greater than a trillion. The highest degree of verbalization is observed in numerals contained in idiomatic expressions, where figures would be out of place.

4.2. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF NUMERALS

The numeral displays formal characteristics peculiar to the nominal parts of speech. Even though it may occur in a non-verbal form, it can be accompanied by an article and take the plural ending.

Numerals fall into two subclasses, cardinal numerals (also termed "cardinal numbers" or "cardinals"), which indicate how many elements are in a set, and ordinal numerals ("ordinal numbers", "ordinals"), which indicate the order of the element in a set. The ordinals have a one-to-one relation with the cardinals: *ten — (the) tenth; three hundred and one — (the) three hundred and first*. The suffix of the ordinal number is often written solid after the digit: *15th*; the digit itself therefore, seems to acquire the status of a morpheme.

Cardinals for 1 to 13, and 20, 30, 50, 100, 1000, etc., are unsystematic; cardinals from 14 to 99 are largely systematic, since they are formed by adding suffixes to other numerals. There are two sets of such derivative numerals: 14 to 19 are formed by the suffix *-teen*, whereas 40, 60, 70, 80, 90 are formed by the suffix *-ty*: *seven — seven`teen — `seventy*, with a shift in the stress pattern.

Three additional points should be noted:

- a) the spelling shift in *four — fourteen — forty*;
- b) the pronunciation and spelling changes in *five — fifteen — fifty*;
- c) the single *-t-* in *eight — eighteen — eighty*.

Ordinals for 1 to 3 are unsystematic: *first, second, third*. The rest are formed by adding the suffix *-th* to the corresponding cardinal numbers (but note the changes in *five — fifth* and *nine — ninth*). Cardinal numbers ending in *-y* change to *-ie* before the suffix *-th*, *-s*. Unlike the change of *-y* to *-ie* in nouns and verbs, the change from cardinals ending in *-y* to ordinals ending in *-ieth* adds a syllable. Cf.:

sixty — the sixties — the sixtieth.

The cardinal numeral 0, in addition to being unsystematic, can be regarded as an exception from the numerical system for two reasons. In the first place, its ordinal counterpart is hardly ever used in everyday conversation. Secondly, it receives various verbal designations, depending on the context and register. As a matter of fact, many

of them could be viewed as nouns (stylistically neutral or otherwise), and at least one is a pronoun (*nothing*).

Zero is used for 0 especially in mathematics and in referring to temperature:

It is ten (degrees) below zero. (= ten degrees of frost)

Zero point three centimetres.

It is normal in scientific contexts.

Nought (chiefly BrE; written *naught* in AmE) occurs mostly as the name of the figure 0, and so does *cipher* (or *cypher*):

The nought/cypher on the scale is red and the other figures black.

Point nought one (= 0.01).

It seems to be interchangeable with zero except in set expressions:

O or Oh is used in giving telephone and fax numbers, in which digits are read out one by one:

Extension nine oh three (903).

Nil or nothing is common in football, hockey and similar games:

Canada won 3–0 (read three nil or three (to) nothing).

The teams drew 0–0 (read nil nil).

In AmE sports reporting we also find *zig*:

It's Arkansas over Connecticut, 5–0 (read five zig).

Love is used in racket sports, such as tennis or squash: *Martina*

Kingis leads by 40–0 (read forty love).

Love all (i. e. no score on either side).

The word is a product of folk etymology: it derives from the French *l'œuf*, "an egg", as the figure 0 is egg-shaped.

Zilch is a slang word for zero, none or nothing:

How many are left? — Zilch.

The zero sign can be omitted altogether before the decimal point in writing and speaking. Therefore, we may say *point eight one seven* for 0.817.

The numerals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and *billion* also stand apart: they are preceded by the unstressed indefinite article or by the stressed one, which is more formal. Therefore, \$100 is read as *a hundred dollars* or *one hundred dollars*. However, only *one* and not *a* can occur in the middle of a compound numeral, and usually in low year dates. For example, 3,185 is read as *three thousand one hundred and eighty five*, and 179 BC is read as *one hundred and seventy nine BC*.

Furthermore, they can be used like quantity nouns (in the same way as *dozen* or *score*), with plural -s and followed by an *of*-phrase:

*Hundreds of thousands (of children) are underfed.
It must have cost millions.*

The same numerals occur in figurative use with reference to indefinitely large numbers:

I've told you a thousand times to leave that cat alone!

Speakers of BrE always use the conjunction *and* between the hundreds and the tens in a number: 412 is read *four hundred and twelve* (AmE also *four hundred twelve*). After a singular numeral, or after *several* and *a few*, the cardinals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and *billion* are used in the singular form, and *of* is not used: *three/a few million years*, but *millions of years*.

In an informal style, we often use *eleven hundred* for 1,100, *twelve hundred* for 1,200, etc. This form occurs with round numbers between 1,100 and 1,900. It is invariably used with historical dates:

He was born in 1500. (read in (the year) fifteen hundred)

In technical contexts, *thousand* may have the abbreviated form *k*, *million* — *m*, and *billion* — *bn*, written solid after the digits:

The project costs are estimated at \$30k.

The company spent \$2bn cleaning up the oil which had spilled from a tanker.

Other cardinals are only occasionally found in the plural:

They came in twos and threes.

Generally speaking, plural numerals mostly occur in year dates (decades) and in making reference to card games, marking systems, etc.:

The dictionary was first published in the (early) seventies/in the '70s/in the 1970s.

He shuffled the pack and dealt me two nines and three aces.

I got three fives and a four for my vocabulary tests.

In fact, numbers are usually spelled out in the text of formal writing if we can spell them in one or two words: *sixteen*, *forty-one*, *ten thousand*.

The parts of compound numerals from *twenty-one* through *ninety-nine* and the parts of numerals denoting vulgar fractions, e. g. *three-fourths*, are hyphenated if they appear in verbal form.

In digital form, numbers consisting of four figures (except for year dates) or more are normally separated by commas or blanks: 6,311; 25,000,000; 12 000. Decimal fractions are separated by an ordinary or raised point: 7.412; 7.412.

Roman numbers, like I, II, III, etc., a variant system of digital representation, are hardly ever used except in dynastic names (*George IV*, read *George the Fourth*), and sometimes in other cases, e. g. page num-

bers in the introductions to books (ii, viii, xii), the numbers of paragraphs in documents, the numbers of questions in examinations, and the figures on clock faces.

In discussing the morphological characteristics of compound numerals expressing high order numbers, it is hardly possible to decide whether they are actually grammatical compounds or free word combinations. For example, *three thousand, one hundred and eighty-two* appears in a sentence as a single indivisible unit and thus resembles an additive compound, for we cannot insert any words between its elements, any more than we can remove an element without destroying the meaning of the whole, nor can we modify any one element.

On the other hand, numbers of appropriate orders can be combined in what seems to be an endless number of ways; they can have a large number of strong stresses and thus resemble free word combinations. As regards the criterion of form, i. e. spelling, a compound numeral like the one cited above demonstrates a diversity rather than integrity of form: it partly breaks down into separate words and partly uses hyphenation; it also contains a coordinating conjunction. This demonstrates the peculiar morphological status of the numeral.

4.3. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF NUMERALS

The numeral is a nominal part of speech; both the cardinals and the ordinals can function pronominally (i. e., like nouns or in place of nouns) and adjectivally (i. e., like adjectives). Cf.:

Pronominal use

Seven is a positive integer.

Seven were injured in the crash.

Three (of them) were bankers.

The fifth (on the list) was Jane.

Adjectival use

There were seven candidates in all.

The lawyer referred to the Fifth Amendment.

We took two apples apiece and left the fifth apple for George.

In other words, a numeral can serve as the head or modifier of a phrase.

If used as a modifier, it can stand in pre-position or post-position to the head word:

There were fifty passengers on board.

The next paragraph begins on page fifty.

Furthermore, cardinals can stand in apposition to the noun number: *number one; (room) number twenty-five; a number seven (bus)*:

Although numerals mostly indicate exact numbers, a few word combinations with numerals are used in an informal style to indicate approximate numbers: *some fifty people* (*some* is unstressed); *fifty-odd people*; *fifty people or so*; *fifty people or thereabouts*; *fifty or so people*; *a good fifty people*. Besides, numerals often combine with limiting and intensifying adverbs: *the very first (line)*; *just a hundred (words)*; *only ten (days)*.

Ordinals can co-occur with cardinals within one pattern. Grammatically arranged groups of words confined to the same part of speech have been termed "autocombinatory" structures. The ordinal (*the*) *first* most frequently occurs as the initial element in this kind of pattern; other combinations are also possible:

The first three (applicants) were interviewed by the personnel manager.

The Committee awarded the first prize and two second prizes.

The above-mentioned phrases like *three fives* also conform to this structural model. It is readily seen that the members of an autocombinatory numeral phrase belong to different subtypes: an ordinal combines with a cardinal, or a singular cardinal with a plural cardinal.

Whether the numeral receives a digital or a verbal representation, its syntactic function remains the same. There seems to be just one restriction, stylistic rather than grammatical, on the position of the digital form: a written sentence cannot begin with digits (the only exception being year dates). If the number is long, it is moved to medial or final position:

Last month 9,725 people visited the exhibition.

One- or two-word numbers can be just spelled out and, therefore, remain in initial position:

Forty-five people entered their names.

4.4. USES OF NUMERICAL EXPRESSIONS

Numerical expressions (but which we mean numerals proper and word combinations with numerals) incorporated in a written sentence can have a verbal, digital or mixed representation. In speaking, none but the verbal representation is possible. Most areas of human interest and activity call for the necessity of counting or measuring. In each sphere there can be specific conventions for referring to numbers.

4.4.1. Year Dates. Date Abbreviations

In BrE, the commonest way to write the day's date is to give it a mixed representation: *30 April 1978; 1 December 1950*.

The last two letters of the ordinal numeral (-st, -nd, -rd or -th) are sometimes added solid after the figure. A comma can be used before the year, but this is no longer very common in BrE except when the date comes inside a sentence: *10th January(,) 1978*. In AmE it is common to write the month first and to put a comma before the year: *October 24, 1933*.

The date may also be written digitally, i. e. entirely in figures separated by an oblique, a period or a hyphen: *30/4/99; 30.4.99; 30-4-99*. All-figure dates are written differently in Britain and America, since British people put the day first whereas Americans generally start with the month. Therefore, *3.5.99* means "3 May 1999" in Britain, but "March 5, 1999" in America.

In speaking, dates are given as follows:

30 April 1978 — *April the thirtieth, nineteen seventy-eight,
or the thirtieth of April, nineteen seventy-eight.*

April 30, 1978 — *April thirtieth... (AmE), or April thirty...
(AmE)*

The names of decades (e. g. *the nineteen eighties*) can be written *the 1980s* or *the '80s*, with the omission of figures indicated by an apostrophe.

Year dates are read as follows:

1200 — *twelve hundred,*

1703 — *seventeen hundred and three or seventeen oh three,*

1812 — *eighteen (hundred and) twelve,*

2000 — *two thousand,*

2005 — *two thousand and five (AmE also two thousand five).*

Note that Russian and English do not refer to pairs of dates in the same way:

*Between 1980 and 1990 (or From 1980 to 1990) momentous
change took place. — В 1980–1990 гг. произошли значи-
тельные перемены.*

A dash can be used between dates to indicate *to*. Notice that the preposition *from* is retained in this pattern, although *to* is missing:

The survey covered from 1980–1990.

To distinguish between dates before and after the beginning of the Christian era, we use the abbreviations BC and AD (in AmE also B.C. and A.D.), respectively. The former means "before Christ"; the latter

stands for the Latin *anno Domini*, literally “in the year of the Lord”, i. e. in a specified year of the Christian era. BC follows the date; AD can precede or follow it. Neither is normally read out (or written) in full:

*The Julian calendar was introduced in Rome in 46 BC.
The emperor Nero was born in AD 37. (or: ... in 37 AD)*

4.4.2. Time Expressions

There are more formal and less formal ways of saying what time it is.

Formal	Less formal BrE	Less formal AmE
9:05	<i>five past nine</i>	<i>five after nine</i>
9:10	<i>ten past nine</i>	<i>ten after nine</i>
9:15	<i>a quarter past nine</i>	<i>a quarter after nine</i>
9:25	<i>twenty-five past nine</i>	<i>twenty-five after nine</i>
9:30	<i>half past nine;</i> <i>half nine (informal)</i>	<i>half of ten</i>
9:35	<i>twenty-five to ten</i>	<i>twenty-five of ten</i> (or: ...before / till ten)
9:45	<i>a quarter to ten</i>	<i>a quarter of ten</i> (or: ...before / till ten)
9:50	<i>ten to ten</i>	<i>ten of ten</i> (or: ...before / till ten)

The expression *o'clock* is only used at the hour. Cf.:

Wake me at six (o'clock).

Wake me at a quarter past six.

In BrE, it is common to say *minutes past / to* for times between the five-minute divisions, e. g. *eight minutes past nine, three minutes to six*.

If necessary, times can be distinguished by using *in the morning / afternoon / evening*. In a more formal style, we can use *am*, also written *a.m.* or *A.M.* (“before midday”, from the Latin *ante meridiem*), and *pm*, also written *p.m.* or *P.M.* (“after midday”, from the Latin *post meridiem*). Note that speakers of English say *one a.m.*, *two in the morning*, while speakers of Russian say *час ночи, два часа ночи*.

The twenty-four hour clock, which is quite common in Russia, is rarely, if ever, referred to by speakers of English in ordinary conversation. It is sometimes found in timetables, programmes and official announcements: *arriving at 1700 / 17:00 hours* (read as *seventeen hundred*)

dred hours). Note also: *0100 hrs* (*oh one hundred hours*); *0130 hrs* (*oh one thirty hours*); *1815 hrs* (*eighteen fifteen hours*).

In time measurements (and, for that matter, in other types of measurements) containing two different units, the conjunction *and* is possible before the smaller, but is usually left out, e. g. *three hours (and) ten minutes*.

4.4.3. Age Expressions

There are various ways of using numerals to refer to people's ages:

She is twenty-one (years old / years of age).

Mr Ryan was a respectable man in his early / mid / late fifties.

Fourteen-year-olds should be given particular consideration by teachers and parents.

My father gave me a watch on my eighteenth birthday.

Their son is sixteen, getting on for seventeen.

Sheila is a well-preserved thirty.

Ted Davies, 36, was questioned by the police... (esp. in newspaper reporting)

The range of these expressions, illustrating some combinatory properties of numerals, could be enlarged by the addition of many more.

Infants' ages, from one month up to two years of age, are generally given as months: thirteen months old; eighteen months old (cf. Russ.: *ребенку год и месяц*, *полтора года*, etc.). The corresponding time periods are expressed in the same way, e. g. *eighteen months' sabbatical*.

4.4.4. Currency Statements

The dollar sign (\$) and the pound sign (£) are written before the numeral but said after the numeral: \$475 — *four hundred and seventy five dollars*; £2.3m — *two point three million pounds*.

The abbreviations *p* (for "penny", "pence") and *¢* (for "cent", "cents") are written solid after the numeral: 95p (read *ninety-five pence* or, informally, *ninety-five p*); 70¢ (read *seventy cents*).

Prices are normally read as follows:

£10.25 — *ten pounds twenty-five pence, ten pounds twenty-five, ten twenty-five, or ten pound twenty-five* (informal).

Notice the use of singular nouns in attributive phrases like *a ten-dollar bill*, *a five-pound note*, and the use of the possessive case in numeric expressions with *worth*: *five dollars' worth of popcorn*.

4.4.5. Vulgar (Simple) Fractions and Decimals

Vulgar fractions are read as follows:

- $\frac{1}{2}$ — *a/one half,*
- $\frac{1}{3}$ — *a/one third,*
- $\frac{1}{4}$ — *a/one quarter,*
- $\frac{1}{5}$ — *a/one fifth,*
- $\frac{2}{3}$ — *two thirds,*
- $\frac{7}{8}$ — *seven eighths,*
- $3\frac{1}{4}$ — *three and three quarters.*

When used attributively, simple fraction expressions retain the plural ending: *a two-thirds share* (cf. phrases with whole numbers: *a two-mile walk; two miles' walk*).

More complex fractions are expressed using the preposition *over*:

163/507 — *one hundred and sixty three over five hundred and seven.*

In decimal fractions, the whole numerals are read out in the usual way, but the numerals to the right of the decimal point (unless they are hundredths) are read out as single digits:

- 3.14159 — *three point one four one five nine,*
- 0.723 — *zero (BrE also nought) point seven two three,*
- (0).45 — *(zero) point forty-five.*

With fractions and decimals below 1, we normally use *of+singular noun*: *three quarters of a mile; 0.635 cm — (nought / zero) point six three five of a centimetre*. However, decimals below 1 can also be followed directly by a plural noun: *(nought / zero) point thirty-four centimetres*. Fractions and decimals over 1 are normally followed by plural nouns: *one and a half miles; 1.6 cm — one point six centimetres*.

4.4.6. Simple Calculations

Common ways of saying calculations are:

- $2+2=4$ — *two and two is / are four (informal),*
— *two plus two is / equals four (formal);*
- $8-3=5$ — *three from eight is / leaves five (informal),*
— *eight take away three is / leaves five (informal),*
— *eight minus three is / equals five (formal);*
- $3\times 4=12$ — *three fours are twelve (informal),*
— *three times four is / makes twelve (informal),*
— *three multiplied by four is / equals twelve (formal);*
- $12\times 3=4$ — *three(s) into twelve goes four (times) (informal),*
— *twelve divided by three is / equals four (formal).*

Raising to a power and extraction of roots can be read out as follows:

- 12^2 — twelve squared,
- 12^3 — twelve cubed (or: raised to the third power),
- 12^5 — twelve raised to the fifth power,
- $\sqrt{2}$ — the (square) root of two,
- $\sqrt[5]{2}$ — the fifth root of two.

4.5. CROSS-CULTURAL VARIATION

Although the universal quantitative meaning of the numeral does not vary from one language to another, different cultures have adopted differing approaches to numbering things, and this is reflected in their languages.

In the first place, even within one language there can be differing conventions (e.g., those evolved by BrE and AmE) for writing and reading out some of the numerical expressions of measurement. In AmE, *a billion* is a thousand million; this is now generally true of BrE, but in Britain *a billion* used to mean a million million, and this could occasionally lead to a misunderstanding.

Second, a thing that is regarded as the first in a set by one culture may be regarded otherwise by another culture; this leads to further numeric discrepancies. For example, the *ground floor* of a British house corresponds to the *first floor* of an American or Russian house; consequently, the British *first floor* corresponds to the American or Russian *second floor*, etc. In English-language cultures, Sunday is regarded as the first day of the week, Monday the second, etc., while in the Russian-language culture, *понедельник* (Monday) comes first, *вторник* (Tuesday) second, etc. Furthermore, a speaker of English might say *There are five fingers on each hand*, or, alternatively, *There are four fingers and one thumb on each hand*, whereas the exact equivalent of the latter sentence would be inconceivable in Russian.

Third, there may be a disparity between the use of cardinals and ordinals: where one language uses cardinals, another may prefer ordinals, particularly in an informal style. Cf.: *bus number six*, *a number six bus* — *шестой автобус*; *room (number) twelve* — *двенадцатая аудитория*. The Russian language widely uses the ordinal number *нулевой*, while the English language, as has been mentioned, confines the use of the ordinal counterpart of zero to scientific contexts (*a zeroth-order differential equation*); moreover, it is hardly ever included in conventional English dictionaries. Where both languages would use ordinals, the position of the numeral in a noun phrase may be different, e.g. *Beethoven's Fourth Symphony* — *Четвертая симфония Бетховена*.

Fourth, certain things and events referred to numerically by one culture are not necessarily described in the same way by another culture. For instance, the American counterpart of the Russian студент первого / второго / третьего / четвертого is likely to be referred to as a *freshman/sophomore/junior/senior*. In describing the main meal of the day, the Russians often use the substantivized ordinals *первое, второе* and *третье*, while speakers of English use non-numeric designation for the successive parts of a meal: *the soup, the main course, the sweet (AmE)/dessert (BrE)*. In terms of semantics we may say that the numerical meaning is expressed explicitly in the nominations adopted by one culture and remains implicit in those adopted by another culture. In the latter case it is revealed by means of a definition, e. g.: "sophomore" — *a second-year student in a four-year American college*. The list of such examples as these could be long.

Note how some of the Russian numerical expressions can be rendered in English:

В январе тридцать один день. — *January has thirty-one days* (note the plural noun).

Я зарабатываю в два раза больше, чем моя сестра. — *I earn double my sister's salary. I earn twice as much as my sister (does).*

В прошлом году с меня взяли двадцать долларов, а нынешним летом приходится платить в три раза больше. — *They charged me \$20 last year; this summer, however, I've had to pay three times this amount (or ...three times as much).*

Население этого городка сейчас в четыре раза меньше, чем прежде. — *The town's population is now a quarter of what it used to be.*

Африка в четыре раза больше Европы. — *Africa is four times the size of Europe.*

У него ушло на это в три раза меньше времени, чем у меня. — *He did it in one-third/a third (of) the time it took me.*

Санкт-Петербург — второй по величине/значимости России. — *St.Petersburg is the second largest/most important city in Russia.*

Эта масса в 1.5 раза больше расчетной величины. — *This mass is half (as much) the estimated value.*

Данный сплав содержит 60 % железа. — *This alloy contains 60 percent (of) iron (also written 60 per cent, abbr. p.c., pct, symbol %).*

Площадь гостиной — 5×5 метров (15×15 футов). — *The sitting room is 5×5 metres (15×15 feet) (read five metres by five metres or five metres square; fifteen feet by fifteen feet or fifteen feet square). But: The total area of the sitting room is twenty-five square metres (25 square feet).*

4.6. SET EXPRESSIONS WITH NUMERALS

Here are some of the numerous idiomatic expressions with cardinals and ordinals (the asterisk * marks informal expressions):

- (all) *in one breath*
- all in one piece**
- one way or another*
- on (the) one hand*
- one by one*
- one in a hundred / thousand*
- at first glance*
- at first; first of all*
- first come, first served*
- first things first*
- in the first place*
- on a first name basis with smb*
- of the first water*
- love at first sight*
- first thing in the morning*
- a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush* (a proverb)
- two's company; three's none / a crowd* (a proverb)
- to be at sixes and sevens*
- to divide / cut sth in two*
- to put two and two together*
- a game at which two can play*
- that makes two of us*
- to take smb down a notch / peg or two*
- to be in two minds about sth*
- second to none*
- on second thought*
- to play second fiddle to smb*
- second nature to smb*
- in the second place*
- in one's second childhood*
- to get / give smb the third degree**
- on all fours*
- six of one and half a dozen of the other*
- in seventh heaven*
- to be behind the eight ball**
- a nine to five job*
- dressed to the nines*
- nine times out of ten*
- ten to one (sth will happen)**
- at the eleventh hour*
- an eleventh hour decision*

to talk nineteen to the dozen
*to take / catch forty winks**
to split sth / divide sth / go fifty fifty
*to look like a million dollars**
*to zero in on sth**
zero option
zero hour
to come to naught

5. VERBS

The verb is one of the most significant parts of speech, which denotes an action continuing in time and space. In the analysis of the verb it is customary to proceed from its meaning to its form and then to its function in the sentence.

5.1. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

Traditionally, according to their lexical meaning verbs subdivide into **terminative** and **non-terminative** (durative) verbs. Terminative verbs imply a certain limit beyond which the action cannot go on. To this group belong such verbs as *get, refuse, close, open, fall, die*, etc. They correspond to both verbs of imperfective (несовершенный) and perfective aspect (совершенный вид) in Russian. Cf.: *give — давать, дать, take — брать, взять*. Non-terminative verbs denote an action which does not imply such a limit and can go on indefinitely. To this group belong such verbs as *live, know, have, possess, hope*, etc. Such verbs correspond only to the imperfective aspect of verbs in Russian: *sleep — спать, live — жить, know — знать*.

Most English verbs may function as both terminative and non-terminative (durative). The actual meaning of the verb becomes clear only from the context as is the case of such verbs as *see, hear, read, write*.

With respect to their functioning in the progressive form verbs fall into two classes: **dynamic verbs** which denote a process and permit the progressive form, and **stative verbs** which denote states and are not usually used in the progressive form (for a more detailed treatment see 6. Tense and Aspect). In order to determine whether the verb is stative or dynamic it is helpful to bear in mind the character of the action undertaken by the subject: dynamic verbs correspond to actions performed deliberately or intentionally, e. g. *She is smelling the rose*, while stative verbs correspond to non-deliberate or unintentional states of being, thoughts, feelings, mental activity, relation etc.: *The rose smells nice; This doesn't belong to you*.

Both stative and dynamic verbs correlate with the grammatical meaning of aspectuality. The former group contains non-terminative

verbs denoting states and relations, and the latter group contains both terminative and non-terminative (durative) verbs expressing the meanings of activity and process.

5.2. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF VERBS

In terms of their morphological structure, the set of English verbs comprises:

- a) simple forms consisting of a simple stem devoid of affixes: *do, want, write*;
- b) verbs formed by conversion: (*to parrot, to better*);
- c) verbs with prefixes: *re-read, rebuild, undo, prepay, preoccupy*;
- d) verbs with suffixes of Germanic or Romance origin: *redder, strengthen, dignify, magnify, mobilize*;
- e) compound verbs formed by means of conversion: *black-mail* (not very characteristic of Modern English);
- f) phrasal verbs: *deprive of, look after, keep up*.

English verbs can have three (*put*) to five (*write*) forms:

1) the basic form represented by

the bare infinitive: *put, read, build, start, write*;

2) the form with the -s ending

for the third person singular: *puts, reads, builds, starts, writes*;

3) the form with the -ing ending

for the gerund or participle I: *putting, reading, building, starting, writing*;

4) the simple past form: *put, read, built, started, wrote*;

5) the participle II form: *put, read, built, started, written*.

Depending on the way verbs form their simple past and participle II forms, they are traditionally subdivided into two groups. The first and largest group is constituted by the verbs known as "regular". When these verbs are used in the simple past and participle II form, they have the suffix *-ed*, which has three phonetic variants: [d] after a voiced consonant (*lived* [lɪvd]) or a vowel (*played* [pleɪd]); [t] after voiceless consonants (*stopped* [stɒpt]), and [ɪd] after final -t or -d (*wanted* [wɔntɪd] or *wasted* [weɪstɪd]). The second group contains "irregular" verbs which do not have the suffix *-ed* in the simple past form.

5.3. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF VERBS

Functional classifications of verbs are based on their syntactic behaviour in the sentence. Firstly, we may distinguish between finite forms of the verb, which can function as predicates, and non-finite forms, which can function as part of the predicate and can also perform non-predicative functions (see 10. Verbs).

Secondly, we may differentiate between **notional** and **structural** (or functional) verbs. Notional verbs are semantically self-sufficient, denoting a certain action or state, and can perform the function of the predicate in the sentence. Structural verbs, being defective both semantically and syntactically, can only act as part of the predicate. They include **link verbs** which partially preserve their lexical meaning but cannot perform an independent predicative function in the sentence, and (primary) **auxiliary verbs** which have neither lexical meaning nor perform any major syntactic function of their own in a sentence. **Modal** (or secondary auxiliary) verbs are syntactically very similar to auxiliary verbs though they are not so semantically decolorized.

Traditionally, **link** (or **copular**) verbs are used to indicate a type of predicative relation between an object and its quality. They denote the inception (*get, turn, become*) or maintenance (*be, keep, remain*) of the relation. The verbs *look, smell, feel, appear, sound* also belong to this group. Together with adjective, participle, noun or prepositional phrases they may form a compound nominal predicate: *She was a fragile girl with large sad eyes; They looked worried.*

Combined with notional verbs, the **auxiliaries** constitute a very important set of analytical verbal forms in English, and are responsible for conveying the idea of predication in the sentence. There are three primary auxiliary verbs in English: *be, have* and *do*. However, these verbs may act as notional verbs in one context and as auxiliary verbs in another. Cf.: *Whatever she does, she does it well* (notional verb) and *She doesn't know a thing about it* (auxiliary verb). The verb *be* can also serve as a link verb (*She is a student*).

The grammatical status of the **modal verbs** *can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, would, will, ought* is still debated, for there is some reason to believe that they function differently under different syntactic conditions. Being "defective" in their morphological paradigm and at the same time preserving their meaning, the modal verbs usually show the attitude of the speaker or of the subject of the sentence (possibility, obligation, necessity or prohibition, etc.) towards the action indicated by the infinitive of the notional verb. Together with the infinitive they form a compound verbal modal predicate (see 9. Modal Verbs).

5.4. THE VERB PHRASE

Transitivity is one of the main characteristics of the verb and can be defined as its ability to take one or more complements (nominal phrases)¹¹ to specify its meaning and determine the syntactic structure of the sentence. If the verb is semantically complete in itself, it may have none. Accordingly, verbs fall into five subclasses: **intransitive, intensive, monotransitive, ditransitive and complex transitive verbs**. Depending on which of these subclasses the main verb of a sentence belongs to, the sentence structure can be of three basic types: SV (Subject + Verb), SVC (Subject + Verb + Complement), and SVC_1C_2 . The (morphological) structure and the meaning of complements leads to further differentiation of the sentence structure in English.

1. Intransitive verbs are not followed by a complement and are used to denote an action which involves only the doer of an action expressed by the subject of the sentence. The structure of this type of sentences is SV:

She suddenly blushed.

Quite unexpectedly they disappeared.

The lexical meaning of intransitive verbs is often connected with physical activity, behaviour or movement:

The girl screamed and fainted.

They could neither laugh nor cry.

He jumped and ran out.

When the speaker stresses the character of an action or the ability of the subject to perform it or if the object is known from the context to both the speaker and the listener, some transitive verbs can act as intransitive:

I can't drive.

She writes without mistakes.

They cook well.

She never answers when asked.

He doesn't smoke.

Sentences of this type usually denote repeated or habitual actions or states which are thought of as characteristic of their subjects.

2. The sentence structure SVC is formed by intensive ("copular" or "link") verbs and by monotransitive verbs. Although both types of verbs require complements to complete the meaning of a sentence, these complements are syntactically different.

¹¹ We use the term "complement" to denote any nominal (i.e. noun, adjective, prepositional, or non-finite verbal) phrase which obligatorily follows the main verb of a simple sentence.

Link verbs precede the **subject predicative** — (nominal) part of a compound nominal predicate. There are three types of complements following intensive verbs:

those expressed by adjective phrases:

*This book is very interesting,
She was getting angry/cold/bored;*

those expressed by noun phrases:

*Jack became the president of our club,
The main difficulty is a shortage of time;*

and those expressed by prepositional phrases which in this case are often regarded by grammar books as obligatory adjuncts (adverbial modifiers); note that not all link verbs can be complemented by prepositional phrases:

*Your paper is on the desk.
We have got into a considerable mess.*

Monotransitive verbs are complemented by noun phrases syntactically functioning as **direct objects**. The subject of a sentence with a monotransitive verb denotes someone or something which affects by its action someone or something expressed by the direct object of the sentence:

*He broke the glass.
They crashed the car.
He is growing tomatoes.
They are selling books.
I boiled the water.*

The meaning of monotransitive verbs may also be related to sense perception and feelings, mental activity and communication, etc.:

*They adored their daughter.
The child was smelling the flower.
We could see a young woman entering the house.
Nobody knew his address.
She began the lesson.*

Another type of direct object (sometimes called an **effected object**) refers to something which comes into existence due to the activity indicated by the verb:

*Jack wrote a letter.
They produce domestic electrical goods.*

Most transitive verbs can be used in the passive:

They often send her letters. — Letters are often sent to her.

A group of transitive verbs of general meaning (*do, have, make, give, take*) may take verbal nouns as "objects" to denote states of affairs which can often be indicated by intransitive verbs:

He usually has breakfast very late.

We had a nice rest at the seaside.

She takes a cold shower in the morning.

He made a report on English dialects yesterday.

They did a lot of work yesterday.

He gave a short laugh.

Some intransitive verbs can act as transitive when followed by an object sometimes called "cognate", which is semantically very closely attached to the verb:

She smiled a charming smile.

He laughed a strange laugh.

They live a luxurious life.

Another category of object is specified by a noun phrase indicating measure or extent:

He walked a mile.

The franchise costs 1000 plus VAT.

Quite a large group is constituted by transitive verbs which can also be used intransitively. Some of these verbs are followed by objects, which in certain contexts can function as the (non-agentive) subject of a sentence with the same verb. The meaning of such verbs is most often related to a harmful action affecting an object, the change of place or qualities of an object, the beginning, continuation or completion of the action. With non-agentive subject, a sentence contains an intransitive verb. Cf.:

He broke the glass.

— *The glass broke.*

They crashed the car.

— *The car crashed.*

He is growing tomatoes.

— *Tomatoes are growing well.*

They are selling books.

— *Books are selling well.*

I boiled the water.

— *The water boiled.*

She began the lesson.

— *The lesson began.*

I opened (closed) the door. — *The door opened (closed).*

Another group of transitive verbs is represented by so-called reciprocal verbs which can also act intransitively. Cf.:

I met him in the hall.

She divorced John.

He married Ann.

He met me in the hall.

John divorced her.

Ann married him.

We met in the hall.

They divorced last year.

They (got) married.

Reflexive verbs may be treated as transitive:

She dressed the child.

He washed his face.

*They blamed Polly.
We enjoyed the party.*

However, their objects may be expressed by reflexive pronouns or may be lacking completely:

*They blamed themselves.
We enjoyed ourselves.
She dressed (herself).
He washed (himself).*

Some verbs may function transitively in one meaning and intransitively in the other. Cf.:

*He ran a large hotel.
He tried to run as quickly as he could.
Her simple story moved us a great deal.
They moved slowly and extremely carefully.*

The notion of transitivity is not absolute for all languages. If we compare Russian and English we can see that in English there are more verbs taking a direct object than in Russian. Thus, a direct non-prepositional object used with a transitive verb in English may correspond to a prepositional object in Russian:

*He answered my letter. — Он ответил на мое письмо.
She played the piano. — Она играла на пианино.
We need your advice. — Мы нуждаемся в вашем совете.*

If the complement in the structure SVC is obligatorily expressed by a prepositional phrase, the verb of a sentence should be included in the category of monotransitive prepositional verbs:

*Culture in man depends on development of psychological traits not found in other primates.
These policies have contributed to Ethiopia's food problem.
He has not looked at the video or magazines for some years.*

These should be distinguished from copular verbs complemented by a prepositional phrase because they cannot alternatively be followed by a noun or adjective phrase functioning as subject predicative.

3. Ditransitive (or “doubly transitive”) verbs require two noun phrases to complete the syntactic structure of a sentence (SVC₁C₂). The first complement noun phrase serves as the indirect object of the ditransitive verb; the second complement is the direct object:

*He gave the manager (C₁) the keys (C₂).
I gave you a riding lesson, didn't I?
Our proposal would offer them an alternative market for capital.
Mr Fogerty bought them all a coke each.
They promised Bob their help and assistance.*

It should be noted that the indirect object is commonly represented by animate nouns which denote someone who benefits from the action indicated by a ditransitive verb.

Another characteristic feature of ditransitive verbs is that their indirect object systematically corresponds to a prepositional phrase containing *to* or *for*, obligatorily following the direct object and functioning as **prepositional indirect object** in the complementation of the verb:

*He gave the keys to the manager.
He bought a ring for her.*

As pronouns functioning as direct object usually tend to refer to something known to the speaker and the hearer and as new information is usually placed in English at the end of the sentence, pronouns usually precede prepositional phrases:

After I had read the book, I gave it to my sister.

This type of verb complementation is distinguished from the type in which a prepositional phrase serves as object predicative (obligatory adverbial modifier): *I sent the letter to Moscow.*

The "direct object" of a ditransitive verb may take the form of a verbal noun:

He gave her a fierce stare to remind her about their appointment.

Some ditransitive verbs can be used monotransitively taking one of the complements as their direct object. Cf.:

<i>She teaches them English.</i>	<i>She envied him his luck.</i>	<i>He forgave me my mistake.</i>
<i>She teaches them.</i>	<i>She envies him.</i>	<i>He forgave me.</i>
<i>She teaches English.</i>	<i>She envies his luck.</i>	<i>He forgave my mistake.</i>

Another type of relation between the complements of the verb phrase is represented by sentences with ditransitive prepositional verbs:

*She blamed me for the mistake.
She blamed the mistake on me.*

Reciprocal ditransitive verbs form the sentence structure in which the subject and the prepositional object can exchange their positions in the sentence. Cf.:

*She exchanged letters with Bill.
Bill exchanged letters with her.*

A very similar phenomenon is involved in some sentences with an object and an obligatory adverbial modifier of place:

She planted roses in the garden.

She planted the garden with roses.

4. Complex transitive verbs also require two complements to complete the sentence structure SVC_1C_2 . However, the relation between the complements of a complex transitive verb resembles that between the subject and the subject predicative in sentences with intensive verbs:

Her role of a mother and lack of work experience made her unable to obtain worthwhile employment (= she is unable...).

They elected him a Fellow of the Royal Society (= he is a Fellow...).

She put a plate of steak and chips on the kitchen table (= a plate is on the table...).

In this case, the second complement functions as object predicative characterizing the direct object rather than the subject of a sentence.

Even closer relation between the two complement is found when one of the complements (C_2) is expressed by a non-finite verbal phrase:

He simply wanted rumours to be spread around without them being traced back to him.

The phrase *rumours to be spread* is usually regarded as forming the so-called **complex object**.

5. A number of verbs combine with particles to form idiomatic units the meaning of which cannot be predicted from the meaning of their parts. These units are known as **phrasal verbs** and may also be subclassified into intransitive, monotransitive and ditransitive verbs.

Intransitive phrasal verbs:

"Larks" are morning people who tend to wake up and get up early in the day.

His parents didn't get on and parted during the war.

I cheered up when they came.

Monotransitive phrasal verbs:

If you ate, say, thirty Mars bars in a day, you might just put on 1 kg of fat.

They take on invoices paying the firm 80 percent of the total and the rest, when the invoices are settled.

Don't let me down.

*He never tidies the rooms up.
She tried to cheer me up.*

It should be noted that in contrast to monotransitive prepositional (non-phrasal) verbs complemented by a prepositional phrase, phrasal verbs which consist of a transitive verb and an adverb allow the adverb either to precede or to follow the direct object. Cf.: *They found out something* (phrasal verb).

*They found something out.
They looked after him* (prepositional verb).
**They looked him after.*

Some monotransitive phrasal verbs can also take a prepositional phrase as their object:

*Jack was up to mischief.
He will probably get off with a fine for assaulting a police officer.
He was usually available for comment and didn't talk down to journalists.*

Ditransitive phrasal verbs which require a prepositional phrase as their second complement:

*I met a man who had worked there and he let me in on the secrets of stop-motion photography.
She put his bad temper down to his recent illness.*

For more information on the usage of transitive and intransitive verbs see the chapters dealing with secondary parts of the sentence (see 14.4. The Secondary Parts of the Sentence).

5.5. VERBAL CATEGORIES

1. The finite forms of the verb have the grammatical categories of **person** and **number**. They serve to show the connection between the subject and the predicate in the sentence. The predicate agrees with the subject in person and number. Finite verbs have three persons in English — the first, the second and the third, and two numbers — the singular and the plural.

Though Modern English is an analytical language, it still preserves both synthetic and analytical forms indicating person and number in the finite forms of the verb. They are, respectively, the ending -s for the third person singular and the auxiliary verb *shall* for the first person singular and plural, which has the tendency to be substituted by *will*. The verb *be* is represented by suppletive forms for all the persons in the singular and in the plural (*am, are, is*). Note, however,

that in Modern English the second person singular cannot be distinguished from the plural forms of a verb: the forms *are*, *write* and *were*, *wrote* can be used in concord with both second singular subjects and plural subjects of all persons.

2. The category of tense plays an important role in the system of tense and aspect forms in the English language. It correlates with the semantic and syntactic characteristics of the verb and is presented in the morphological paradigm of the verb. The category of tense locates the position of the (period of) time when the described situation occurs by relating it to the position of the time of speaking.

The grammatical (morphological) category of tense should be distinguished from the category of time which may be considered to be a semantic and/or philosophical concept. The category of time ties up our notions of present, past and future into an integrated, coherent whole, and places various events in the order "X is before Y" or "X is at the same time as Y". The category of tense does not always reflect the "natural" temporal order of events; it can present a past event as occurring at the moment of speaking or it can refer to a present situation with the help of the past form of a verb. There are a number of different ways to refer to future events in English.

3. The grammatical category of aspect involves reference to the manner in which the event denoted by a verb evolves through time. The aspect of a verb determines whether the verb (or rather the speaker using a particular aspectual form of the verb) refers to the time of the whole event itself, or to its coming about, or to the subsequent state. Aspects are, then, different ways of viewing the internal temporal structure of a situation denoted by a verb. The simple (indefinite) forms of a verb indicate that the event is seen by the speaker as a fact which merely exists in the present, past or future. The progressive (continuous) aspect is used to denote a situation developing in time, and the perfect forms refer to the completion of an event relevant to some moment of time.

4. Voice is the category of the verb which indicates the relation of the predicate to the subject and the object in the sentence, and shows whether the subject is the agent (doer) of the action, or its semantic object. It should be emphasized that here we are dealing with two different levels of the sentence — syntactic and semantic — and their interrelation. The constituents of a sentence (the subject, object, adverbial modifier, etc.) belong to the syntactic level of sentence analysis. The semantic structure of a sentence represents who does what to whom for whose benefit, with what, where, when and why. In other words, the semantic level represents a certain semantic situation which contains a number of participants performing different semantic functions (roles): the agent or the doer of the action, the semantic

object, or "patient", the instrument, etc. The category of voice determines the relation between these two levels, and indicates which constituents of the sentence are responsible for conveying the semantic roles of an agent and object of the action denoted by a verb¹².

There are three voices in English: the active voice (действительный залог), the passive voice (страдательный залог), and the reflexive voice (возвратный залог), although this third category is not accepted unanimously by grammarians. The active voice indicates that the person or thing denoted by the subject is the agent of the action expressed by the verb. The active voice is often said to reflect a relation in which the subject coincides with the agent (the doer or the source) of the action:

Bill is writing a letter.

The action does not necessarily involve other participants apart from the agent:

Jack smiled.

The passive voice indicates that the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence on the syntactic level does not coincide with the agent of the action, and acts as the semantic object of the action. Thus, the subject of a passive verb does not act, but is acted upon; it undergoes an action. The attention of the speaker is fixed on the action itself and on the participant acted upon, so the doer of the action is not usually represented in the sentence:

He was not allowed to leave the house.

The news will be announced to you after dinner.

Verbs in the active form and passive form usually convey the meaning of the active and passive voice, respectively, although it is not always the case. Examples of the lack of such a correlation fall into two groups: the first includes cases where a verb in the active form conveys a passive meaning, and the second involves cases where the passive form of a verb expresses the active meaning. Cf.:

The car stopped. The window opened. The books sell well.

He continued when we were seated. She was lost in the woods.

The reflexive voice indicates that the action expressed by a verb "passes back" on to the agent of the action which is indicated by the subject. Cf.:

She dressed quickly and left.

The child cleaned his teeth and washed himself.

¹² The terms traditionally used to denote the constituents of a sentence sometimes coincide with the ones used on the semantic level, especially in English (object — дополнение and object — объект).

5. Mood is a grammatical category which indicates whether the speaker presents an event as a real fact, or as something unreal (virtual), not existing in the reality, or else as something he wishes to be performed and made real, which he expresses as a command or request.

The indicative mood represents a state of affairs, or an event as a real fact. As the action cannot be carried out without any time reference, the indicative form of a verb necessarily refers to a certain moment of time when the event described by a sentence takes place.

Commands and requests are expressed by the **imperative mood**. It denotes the speaker's will addressed to the listener. It is formed by the basic form of a verb which coincides with the form of the bare infinitive. Sentences with a verb in the imperative mood may be used in the affirmative or in the negative form and not in the interrogative which would be contrary to their communicative task:

*Listen to me attentively!
Come here immediately!
Don't go there!
Don't get angry!*

To make a request more emphatic the plain stem of the auxiliary verb *do* is placed before the notional verb:

Do be quiet! Do stay where you are!

Traditionally, the **subjunctive mood** serves to convey the meaning of unreality from the point of view of the speaker, to show that the action expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact. It should be mentioned, however, that not all linguists agree on the status of this verbal category in English.

All the verbal categories will be discussed in detail below (see chapters 6-9).

6. TENSE AND ASPECT

Time, divided into past, present and future, is not a linguistic concept but it can be referred to with the help of both morphological and lexical means available in human languages.

Tense is a grammatical category that indicates the location of an event or situation in time. Formally speaking, tense is expressed in verbal morphology or with the help of auxiliary verbs (*be* and *have*) in combination with the non-finite forms of main verbs. To refer to the period (or moment) of time when the situation occurs, the speaker has to relate it to some other period or moment of time, which is usually the moment of speaking.

Aspect concerns the manner in which the situation denoted by a sentence is seen to develop in time. It shows, for example, that the action is still in progress or that it is completed. English distinguishes the progressive (continuous) aspect and the perfect aspect. However, one can refer to the time of a situation without formally indicating how the verbal action is developing. In this case the internal temporal structure of the situation is conveyed by the lexical meaning of the verb.

Tense and aspect are expressed in one and the same verbal form. The English verb has only two tenses proper — the present and the past, either simple (*work(s)*, *worked*) or combined with the progressive (*is / was working*) or perfect (*have / had worked*) aspect.

There are many ways of expressing future time in English. The most common is with the help of the modal auxiliaries *will* or *shall* attached to a simple or complex (aspectual) form of the main verb (*will work*; *will be working*; *will have worked*). It may be only for practical teaching reasons that these phrases are called "future tense". Tense forms proper (*is doing*, *had done* and the like) are used for one purpose only, namely, to refer to present or past events which are developing or completed, and there is no other way to convey these meanings. On the other hand the "future tense" forms (*will do*, *shall come*) often refer to the present volition, fixed habit or obstinacy of the subject of a sentence (say, *boys will be boys*) and conversely "pure" future time can be expressed in many other ways.

6.1. PRESENT TENSES

6.1.1. The Present Simple Tense

6.1.1.1. Form

For all verbs except the modals and *be* and *have* the present simple tense is identical to the base form (bare infinitive) of the verb which has the suffix *-s/-es* in the third person singular. Verbs ending in vowels and voiced consonants (except voiced sibilants [z] and affricates [dʒ]) have the suffix *-s*, which is pronounced [z]: *see* [si:] — *he sees* [si:z], *ski* [ski:] — *he skis* [ski:z], *run* [rʌn] — *he runs* [rʌnz]. Verbs ending in voiceless consonants (except voiceless sibilants [s] and affricates [tʃ]) have the same suffix *-s*, which is pronounced [s]: *hope* [houp] — *he hopes* [houps], *knife* [naɪf] — *he knifes* [naɪfs]. Verbs ending in sibilants and affricates have the suffix *-es*, which is pronounced [ɪz]: *pass* [pa:s] — *he passes* [pa:sɪz], *push* [puʃ] — *he pushes* [puʃɪz].

In interrogative sentences the auxiliary *do* (*does*) is placed before the subject of a sentence; the predicate of the sentence is expressed by the base form of a notional verb. In negative sentences the particle *not* (*n't*) is placed in between the auxiliary *do* (*does*) and the base form of the notional verb. Cf.:

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I / We work.</i>	<i>Do I / we work?</i>	<i>I / we do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>You work.</i>	<i>Do you work?</i>	<i>You do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>He / She / It works.</i>	<i>Does he / she / it work?</i>	<i>He / She / It does not (doesn't) work.</i>
<i>They work.</i>	<i>Do they work?</i>	<i>They do not (don't) work.</i>

There are also negative interrogative sentences that have two possible patterns:

Negative interrogative

<i>Do I / we not work?</i>	<i>Don't I / we work?</i>
<i>Do you not work?</i>	<i>Don't you work?</i>
<i>Does he / she / it not work?</i>	<i>Doesn't he / she / it work?</i>
<i>Do they not work?</i>	<i>Don't they work?</i>

The simple present may have a special affirmative form which is used for emphasis. This emphatic form is constructed using the simple present of the auxiliary *do* followed by the bare infinitive of a notional verb:

I do want to go there.
He does know the rule.

6.1.1.2. The Uses of the Present Simple Tense

The simple present is mainly used to denote situations that include the time of speaking. These situations may be of different types.

1. The present simple is used for situations that are considered by the speaker as always or generally true:

A molecule of water has two atoms of hydrogen and one of oxygen.

Summer follows spring.

Situations referred to by the simple present verbal form in such sentences do not change with time.

2. The present simple is used to express permanent actions and states. In this case it is used with non-terminative (durative) verbs. They generally indicate continuous, uninterrupted processes or states that naturally include the present moment:

She teaches German and English, and she lives on campus.

He is a very good brother. We love him.

Like most young people, he likes sweets.

Such actions, processes and states assign general characteristics to the person or object denoted by the subject of a sentence.

3. The simple present tense is used to denote recurrent or habitual actions. They are actions repeated a number of times within a certain period which includes the moment of speaking, even though the event itself is not happening at that time:

I get up at 7.

John smokes a lot.

This use of the simple present is often associated with adverbial modifiers of frequency such as *often, seldom, sometimes, occasionally, always, never, ever, every year* (*week, month, day*), *usually, once (twice, etc.) a month, daily, on Sunday*, etc. It can also, however, be found without any indication of time:

Mary comes here every week.

He doesn't usually come here that early.

Do you ever eat meat? — No, I never eat meat.

Recurrent actions are usually denoted by terminative verbs.

4. The simple present can be used for (a succession of) single actions or events occurring at the present moment, as in:

This TV set is easy to operate. I switch it on, press one of the buttons on the remote control and it works.

Switch, press and works in this sentence refer to momentary acts performed by the speaker simultaneously with the moment of speaking. The simple present shows that the progress of the action is not as important as the event or fact itself:

I repeat, the girl was wrong.

I refuse to listen to him. He talks such nonsense.

Radio and TV commentators use the simple present to report what is going on somewhere at that moment:

He turns, shoots — and he scores!

She climbs the rock. The crowd comes closer to her.

In such cases the simple present is used to describe rapid actions completed at the moment of speaking and the present progressive is used to describe longer-lasting actions:

MacFee makes a quick pass to Both. Both is away with the ball, but he is losing his advantage.

5. A similar use of the simple present is found in declarations and some other types of the so-called "performative" utterances, i. e. sentences describing what the speaker is doing by uttering the sentence:

I declare the meeting open.

I pronounce you man and wife.

I wish you all a happy New Year.

The following verbs are among those that can be similarly used: *admire, agree, apologize, approve, confess, confirm, congratulate, excuse, express, guess, maintain, note, offer, promise, propose, suggest, sympathize* etc. However, all these verbs can be used in the progressive form if a process is emphasized. Cf.:

I admire his courage (= this is what I feel about his courage).

Wait a minute. I'm admiring this lovely dress (= I'm looking at this dress in admiration).

6. The simple present is used in demonstrations and (step-by-step) instructions:

First you boil some water. Then (you) warm the teapot. Then (you) add three teaspoons of tea. Next (you) pour on boiling water...

7. The simple present tense is used to express our thoughts and feelings at the present moment, or show our immediate reaction to something. This use of the simple present can be found with verbs that cannot take the progressive form:

I understand him perfectly.

I want a breath of fresh air.

However, if we are talking about physical perceptions such as seeing and hearing, we normally use the modal verb *can*, although the simple present of a notional verb is occasionally used:

I can see the boats approaching.

I can smell it now.

I see a long path ahead.

I hear somebody's steps.

8. The simple present is usually used when we want to describe or discuss what happens in a book, play or film, i.e. in reviews, synopses and the like:

In the film he plays John Millow.

The Bible says love of money is the root of all evil.

Jack Fox's novel is a historical romance set in London in the 1880's. The action takes place over a period of 50 years.

9. The simple present referring to past time is occasionally used in narration (talks, conversations and novels) to bring the event closer to the listener or reader (the historic present):

And then, can you imagine, he comes up to the window and throws my bag out.

The present progressive can also be used in these cases for "background" events. Cf.:

I'm driving along this country and I'm completely lost. Then, I see this old fellow. He's leaning against the gate. I stop the car and ask him the way. He thinks a bit, then says "Well, if I were you, I wouldn't start from here."

The simple present is also used with the verbs *hear* and *tell* in describing events of the recent past. In this case these verbs can be called verbs of reporting:

I hear, you're moving.

There are some fine railings in Westminster Abbey, I hear.

I've never been at a greyhound racing myself, but they tell me it's a fascinating sport.

10. In newspaper headlines the simple present is generally used to refer to past events:

Freak snow stops traffic.

Disarmament talks begin in Vienna.

11. The simple present may be used to express future actions. This use is often related to timetables and programmes or to events in the calendar:

The exhibition opens on October 15 and closes on December 20.

The concert begins at 7.30.

They leave tomorrow at 12 and arrive at 18.30.

The simple present in clauses referring to the future is often structurally dependent, i. e. compulsory in subordinate clauses of time, condition and concession, as well as in some types of object clauses.

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

They will move to a new flat when their baby is born.

She'll stay up till they come.

I'll have a look at this article as soon as I get it.

Clauses of condition are introduced by the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *on condition (that)*, *provided (providing)*, *so / as long as*, *in case*:

If he gets the job, he'll stay till May.

Unless he arrives with the food, we'll be hungry.

Note that in clauses other than those of time and condition, the simple future (*will / shall + infinitive*) is used after the conjunctions *if* and *when*:

I wonder if he will come in time.

I don't know when he will come.

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

I'll have my dinner whenever it is ready.

Whatever happens we must stay away from this.

Object clauses after *see*, *take care* and *make sure*, sometimes after *I hope* are introduced by the conjunction *that* or joined asyndetically:

I'll see that your sister is properly looked after.

He'll take care that no one troubles the children there.

The use of the simple present with reference to the future is also obligatory in some special questions:

What do we do next?

Where do we go now?

When do they start?

6.1.2. The Present Progressive Tense

6.1.2.1. Form

The present progressive tense is a complex (analytical) verbal form. It consists of the simple present of the auxiliary *be* and the ing-form (progressive participle) of a notional verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I am working.</i>	<i>Am I working?</i>	<i>I am not working.</i>
<i>We/You are working.</i>	<i>Are we/you working?</i>	<i>We/You are not (aren't) working.</i>
<i>He/She/It is working.</i>	<i>Is he/she/it working?</i>	<i>He/She/It are not (aren't) working.</i>
<i>They are working.</i>	<i>Are they working?</i>	<i>They are not (aren't) working.</i>

There are also negative interrogative sentences that have two possible patterns:

Negative interrogative

<i>Am I not working?</i>	<i>Aren't (Ain't AmE) I working?</i>
<i>Are we/you not working?</i>	<i>Aren't we/you working?</i>
<i>Are he/she/it not working?</i>	<i>Aren't he/she/it working?</i>
<i>Are they not working?</i>	<i>Aren't they working?</i>

6.1.2.2. *The Uses of the Present Progressive Tense*

The present progressive tense denotes an action in progress at the present moment or period of time. Usually dynamic verbs are in this form, as they refer to actions which are deliberate or voluntary (*I'm making tea*), or they refer to changing situations (*He is growing bald*), that is to activities that have a beginning and an end.

1. The present progressive tense is used to describe actions or events as being in progress at the moment of speaking. To emphasize this, the adverbials like *now*, *at the moment*, *just*, etc. are used:

What is he doing? — He is just cutting the vegetables.

She's working at the moment, so she can't answer the phone.

Actions in progress are seen as uncompleted:

She is talking to her boy friend.

Note that the simple present, not the present progressive, is used to denote actions that, though occurring at the moment of speaking, are important as simple facts, rather than actions in progress:

Why don't you do this?

Why don't you write? Where is your pen?

2. The present progressive is used to describe temporary situations. Such situations or actions are thought of as being in progress for a limited period of time:

What's his daughter doing these days?

She's studying English somewhere.

The river is flowing very fast after last night's rain.

Such situations may not be happening at the moment of speaking:

Don't take the hammer away. Your father's using it.

The present progressive tense is also used to describe current trends:

People are becoming less tolerant to each other these days.

3. The present progressive is used to refer to repeated actions that are characteristic of certain people or objects within more or less prolonged periods of present time and provoke certain emotions in the speaker (irritation, disapproval, praise, etc.). The adverbs *always* (= frequently), *continually*, *constantly*, *forever* and *repeatedly* can be used with such forms to describe continually repeated actions:

She's always grumbling.

Kate is always helping people.

4. Stative verbs are not generally used in the progressive form as they refer to states (e. g. experiences, conditions) rather than to actions. These verbs denote physical perception (*hear, notice, see*, etc.), emotions (*love, like, hate, dislike, detest*, etc.), wish (*wish, want, desire*), mental processes (*appreciate, assume, believe, consider, doubt, forget, imagine, know, mind, remember, think* (= believe), *understand*, etc.), relations (*belong, differ, have, owe, possess, resemble*, etc.). Here also belong some other verbs: *be, agree, allow, appear, claim, envy, forbid, forgive, matter, seem, etc.*

However, almost all of them can be used in the progressive form provided that the speaker is emphasizing the idea of an uncompleted involuntary act, or an incomplete physical or mental state as in:

Something is wrong with my eyes. I'm seeing double.

I think he is forgetting his German. (= beginning to forget)

Practically all stative verbs can occur in the progressive form when the ideas they denote are being emphasized:

You know, you're just being silly.

Don't shout! I'm hearing you perfectly well.

Cf.: *He is being rude.* (at the moment)

He is rude with people. (generally)

Furthermore, many of these verbs can take the progressive form when they are used in their other meanings:

He is seeing (= accompanying) *her home.*

I'm still considering (= studying) *all the details.*

I'm thinking (= studying) *about your offer.*

It is also necessary to mention that some stative verbs can be used in the progressive form with *always*:

I'm always hearing strange stories about him.

5. The present progressive is used to refer to activities and events planned for the future. We generally need an adverbial of time unless the meaning is clear from the context:

They're spending next winter in Italy.

This use of the present progressive is also associated with future arrival and departure and occurs with verbs like *arrive, come, go, leave, start, return, sail*, etc. to describe travel arrangements:

He's arriving tomorrow morning.

The form *be going to* can be used to denote the same kinds of activities:

He is going to write a play.

The present progressive is used to denote future actions in adverbial clauses of time and condition:

If he is working when I arrive, I'll wait.

I'll try to find him there at 2, while he is having his break.

6. In newspaper headlines the progressive form refers to the future. The *to-infinitive* can also be used for this purpose:

Cabinet Minister Resigning Soon (or To Resign Soon).

6.1.3. The Present Perfect Tense

6.1.3.1. Form

The present perfect tense is a complex (analytical) verbal form that is constructed with the auxiliary verb *have* in the form of the simple present and the participle II (*ed-participle*) of a notional verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I/We have worked.</i>	<i>Have I/we worked?</i>	<i>I/we have not worked.</i>
<i>You have worked.</i>	<i>Have you worked?</i>	<i>You have not worked.</i>
<i>He/She/It has worked.</i>	<i>Has he/she/it worked?</i>	<i>He/She/It has not worked.</i>
<i>They have worked.</i>	<i>Have they worked?</i>	<i>They have not worked.</i>

Negative interrogative

<i>Have I/we not worked?</i>	<i>Haven't I/we worked?</i>
<i>Have you not worked?</i>	<i>Haven't you worked?</i>
<i>Has he/she/it not worked?</i>	<i>Hasn't he/she/it worked?</i>
<i>Have they not worked?</i>	<i>Haven't they worked?</i>

6.1.3.2. *The Uses of the Present Perfect Tense*

Essentially, the present perfect tense is used to talk about actions or situations that started in the past and are still relevant to the present. The actions described by this verbal form may be completed before the present moment or may last throughout an incomplete period that includes the present time of speaking.

1. The present perfect refers to (recurrent) events or situations that extend from some time in the past to the present and may or may not continue into the future. Sentences with this verbal form usually contain expressions denoting (or implying) some period of time up to the moment of speaking (*so far, until now, up to now, some time now, for two years (now), etc.*), or the starting point of the situation is specified (*since*):

Up to now, I have enjoyed myself. (= I'm still enjoying myself.)
So far she has written only three letters. (= Perhaps she will write some more.)

I have lived here for three years now. (= Я живу здесь уже три года.)

I have lived here since 1995.

With durative verbs the present perfect progressive can also be used in these cases when the process, and not the fact itself, is being emphasized:

I have been living here for five years now.

Stative verbs that do not normally take the progressive form are used in the present perfect when an indefinite period of time is indicated (*all my life, for ages*):

He's been here since 9 o'clock.

I've known them all my life.

I haven't seen Jim for ages.

Note that *since* can be a conjunction (*Tom hasn't been home since he was a boy*), an adverb (*I saw Kate in April and I haven't seen her since*), or a preposition (*She has worked in this bank since April*). *Since*, as a conjunction, can be followed by the simple past or the present perfect. Cf.:

I've lived here since I retired (in 1980) (the point in the past is specified).

I've made a lot of friends since I've lived here. (= up to now)

Note also that the expression *for + period of time* can be used with any tense. Cf.:

I have lived here for three years. (= I live here now.)

I lived here for three years. (= I don't live here now.)

I am here for three years. (= That's how long I'm going to stay here.)

This use of the present perfect is also associated with the idea of frequency expressed by means of adverbs (*often, frequently, always, etc.*) and expressions like *three times, four times, several times*:

I've watched him on TV several times.

She has attended classes regularly. She's always worked hard.
I've often wondered why I like them so much.

2. Sentences with the present perfect verbal form may indicate that though the action is completed, the period of time within which it was performed is not yet over at the moment of speaking:

I haven't seen her today.

They have returned from England this week.

She's had a splitting headache this morning.

Tom has called me three times this morning.

If the period of time is, in fact, over, the simple past and not the present perfect is used. Cf.:

I had a bad headache this morning, but I'm perfectly all right now.

I spoke to him today about the meeting.

3. The present perfect is used for completed actions that occurred at some indefinite and irrelevant time in the past. The speaker is interested in only the fact that the action was performed or some situation was completed:

Have you passed your driving test?

The escalator has broken down.

I've washed my car so it looks lovely now.

I've travelled a lot in Africa.

Have you been to France?

In American English the simple past is often used to give news:

I crashed the car.

The adverbs of unspecified time *lately, recently, at last, finally, just, yet, already, still*, etc. can be used with the present perfect tense:

He has recently arrived from New York.

He's had a lot of tough breaks lately.

We have finished that long lesson at last!

I have finally got through to him.

She has just tidied up the kitchen.

Note that with *just now* the simple past can be used. Cf.:

He has just gone out (= He went out a few minutes ago).
He came just now.

With the adverb *just* the simple past is commonly used in American English and can be used in British English, too:

Lucy just called.

Yet is used in questions or negative sentences about events that we expect to have happened:

Have you passed your driving test yet?
I haven't passed my driving test yet.

Note that *yet* is used in questions when we want information, while *already* is used when we want confirmation:

Have you received your invitation yet? (= I don't know.)
Have you already received your invitation? (= Please, confirm.)

Both *yet* and *already* are commonly used with the present perfect tense, though in American English they can occur with the simple past. Cf.:

Have you seen "Swan Lake" yet? — I've already seen it. (BrE).
Did you see "Swan Lake" yet? — I already saw it. (AmE)

Used after the subject in negative sentences, *still* can express dissatisfaction or surprise:

I still haven't passed my driving test (despite my efforts).

The perfect present is used in expressions like *This is the first / the only / the best... (that) ...:*

This is the best car I have ever seen in my life.

Cf.: *This is the first time I've been here.*

I am here for the first time.

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

I'll stay with you until you've finished your work.

I'll take you back in my car but not till you've had some coffee.

The simple present can also be found in the same type of clauses. The choice of the form depends on the lexical meaning of the verb. With durative verbs the present perfect is frequently used:

When you have had your tea, we'll walk.

With terminative verbs both forms are possible:

When I finish/have finished this work, I must go and call him.

5. The present perfect is most often used in broadcast news, newspapers, and letters and postcards describing events relevant to the present:

Interest rates rose today and the price of gold has fallen by 2% an ounce. Industrial leaders have complained that high interest rates will make borrowing expensive for industry.

We've just arrived in Madrid, and though we haven't had time to see much, we're sure we're going to enjoy ourselves.

6. The present perfect is never used in past narrative (e. g. stories told in the past tense, history books, in conversations about activities referring to a specific time in the past). The simple past is used for actions which are not connected with the present:

Shakespeare wrote "Hamlet".

The present perfect cannot be used to explain the origin or cause of something that people already know about:

Who gave you this?

Did you paint the picture yourself?

- Oh! I've burnt myself!

- How did you do that?

- I touched a hot dish.

The present perfect tense is not used in expressions like *It's a long time since... / How long is it since?..*

It's a long time / ten years since I heard from Jim.

How long is it since you had a holiday?

6.1.4. The Present Perfect Progressive Tense

6.1.4.1. Form

The present perfect progressive tense is a combination of the present perfect of the auxiliary verb *be* and the -ing form (progressive participle) of a notional verb.

Affirmative

I/We have been working.

You have been working.

He/She/It has been working.

They have been working.

Interrogative

Have I/we been working?

Have you been working?

Has he/she/it been working?

Have they been working?

Negative

I/We have not been working.

You have not been working.

He/She/It has not been working.

They have not been working.

Negative interrogative

<i>Have I/we not been working?</i>	<i>Haven't I/we been working?</i>
<i>Have you not been working?</i>	<i>Haven't you been working?</i>
<i>Has he/she/it not been working?</i>	<i>Hasn't he/she/it been working?</i>
<i>Have they not been working?</i>	<i>Haven't they been working?</i>

6.1.4.2. The Uses of the Present Perfect Progressive Tense

The present perfect progressive indicates that an action or situation that occurred in the past is viewed in relation to (as relevant to) the present and, in common with other progressive forms, it also emphasizes the limited duration of the action.

1. The present perfect progressive is used for actions or situations that started at some time in the past, were happening up to the moment of speaking and may or may not be completed. This form can be used with both durative and terminative verbs, and either the starting point of the action or the period during which it has been in progress is usually specified (*since, for, lately, recently, etc.*):

"That is what I have been striving for all my life," he said.

We have been struggling with British Rail's shortage of drivers for months.

They have been living in ever-present danger for the past two decades.

Rumours have been swirling round Perrier for the past month. Consumption of meat and dairy products has been declining for health reasons in the United States and some European nations for the past decade or so.

Since 1982 they have been living in the Lake District. They are not going to move to any other place.

The Foreign Minister has been calling upon the MPs to urge them to put the future of their country before any factional ambitions.

It is often used in *How long...* and *Since when...* questions:

How long have you been reading this book?

Since when has he been learning to skate?

2. The present perfect progressive is used for actions repeated a number of times within a limited period which ends at (or includes) the moment of speaking:

Things like that shouldn't really surprise people because we have been telling them about what has been going on here for years. He has been seeing too many horror films recently.

3. The present perfect progressive is used for continuous past actions that have produced some side effect on the current situation. Based on direct or indirect evidence in the situation, we have come to a conclusion about what might be its cause or reason:

You are looking very tired. It seems you have been working hard these days.

He doesn't look himself. I'm sure he has been fasting ever since I saw him last.

4. In subordinate clauses of time and condition the present perfect progressive is used for actions or situations in progress before a certain moment in the future:

He will be accustomed to the surroundings after he has been staying here a couple of weeks.

5. With durative verbs (*live, sit, lie, rain, wait, work, etc.*) both the present perfect and the present perfect progressive forms can be used when a period of time is indicated in the sentence. Cf.:

I have worked in the bank for two years.

I have been working in the bank for two years.

It has rained since yesterday.

It has been raining since yesterday.

The present perfect is used for more permanent situations that are not changing in time:

The statue has stood here for years.

John has always lived in London.

He has always worked hard.

6. The present perfect progressive emphasizes the continuity of an action. With (non-)terminative verbs it brings in the idea of incompleteness, while the present perfect shows that the action has been finished by the moment of speaking. Cf.:

I've been painting this room. It will look good when it is finished.

I've painted this room. How do you like it?

He has been writing since 12.

He has written 10 letters today.

7. The present perfect progressive focuses on the previous duration of the action; the present progressive is used for temporary situations which are developing at the present moment. Cf.:

I have been translating this article for three hours.

I am translating an article at the moment.

6.2. PAST TENSES

The four past tenses — the past simple, the past progressive, the past perfect and the past perfect progressive — mostly refer to actions, situations and states that occur in the past, i. e. before the moment of speaking. However, in some cases these forms can be used to refer to present or future actions. They differ in meaning according to their aspectual characteristics.

6.2.1. The Past Simple Tense

6.2.1.1. Form

Affirmative forms of regular verbs are constructed by means of the suffix *-ed* added to the stem of a verb. Depending upon the sounds at the end of the stem of regular verbs, the suffix *-ed* can be pronounced in three ways. When the stem ends in the consonants [d] or [t], the suffix is pronounced [ɪd]: *translate* [trænsleɪt] — *translated* [trænsleɪtɪd]. When the stem ends in a voiced sound except [d], the suffix *-ed* is pronounced [d]: *smile* [smail] — *smiled* [smaɪld]. If the stem of a verb ends in a voiceless sound except [t], the suffix *-ed* is pronounced [t]: *stop* [stɒp] — *stopped* [stɒpt], *kiss* [kɪs] — *kissed* [kɪst]. Irregular verbs have fixed past tense forms: *speak* — *spoke*, *put* — *put*, *teach* — *taught*.

Interrogative, negative and interrogative-negative forms are constructed by means of the auxiliary verb *do* in the simple past (*did*) and the bare infinitive of a notional verb. Contracted negative forms are characteristic of informal English.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I/We worked/grew.</i>	<i>Did I/we work/grow?</i>	<i>I/We did not (didn't) work.</i>
<i>You worked/grew.</i>	<i>Did you work/grow?</i>	<i>You did not (didn't) work.</i>
<i>He/She/It worked/ grew.</i>	<i>Did he/she/it work/ grow?</i>	<i>He/She/It did not (didn't) work.</i>
<i>They worked/grew.</i>	<i>Did they work/grow?</i>	<i>They did not (didn't) work.</i>

Negative interrogative

<i>Did I/we not work?</i>	<i>Didn't I/we work?</i>
<i>Did you not work?</i>	<i>Didn't you work?</i>
<i>Did he/she/it not work?</i>	<i>Didn't he/she/it work?</i>
<i>Did they not work?</i>	<i>Didn't they work?</i>

The auxiliary *did* is sometimes used in affirmative sentences for emphasis:

I did succeed in the end.

The verb *be* in the past form (*was / were*) does not take the auxiliary *did*. The interrogative is formed by placing the verb before the subject of the sentence (*Where were you last night?*); in negative sentences, the particle *not* follows the verb *was* or *were* (*He wasn't here last night*).

The past form of the verb *have* (*had*) is commonly used with the auxiliary *did* in questions and negatives: *He didn't have brothers or sisters; Did you have a good holiday?*

6.2.1.2. *The Uses of the Past Simple Tense*

The simple past is mostly used to refer to an event that occurred at a definite time in the past or to a situation that existed for some time in the past. The past reference can be conveyed by adverbials of past time: a single adverb (*yesterday*), an adverb phrase (*an hour ago, last night*), an adverbial clause (*when he came*), or by the context.

1. The simple past is used for an event or state that occurred at a particular time in the past:

It was cold yesterday.

On 23 June Wilfred went over to Dunsden to meet Mr Wigan.

After graduating with an MA in modern history from Magdalen College, Oxford, he went straight into the personnel business.

He didn't comment on the fact.

There was a brief false alarm when a rescue worker reported hearing a voice in the wreckage.

Who wrote "Hamlet"?

They bought their house five years ago.

The simple past is the only way to ask *when*-questions about events that happened before the moment of speaking because *when* implies reference to a certain moment in the past. The answer can be either in the simple past, or, in appropriate contexts, the present perfect:

When did you do your writing? — We wrote in the evenings, after work and on weekends.

When did he leave? — He left an hour ago or He has just left.

2. The simple past can denote an action or situation which occupied a period of time now terminated:

I lived in this house until I was ten.

He worked for the company all his life.

The situations described in these sentences existed over a period of time in the past and are not linked to the present: I don't live in this

house any longer; he doesn't work for the company any more. We can use *how long*-questions to ask about the period of past time occupied by a situation:

How long did you wait at the station?

The verbs *see*, *hear* are generally used with the modal verb *could*, which is not translated into Russian:

He came to the window and looked out. He could see a river and a small wood beyond it.

3. A series of verbs in the simple past expresses a sequence of events in the past:

They kept us in a marshalling area surrounded by tanks being repaired. Some British armoured cars came and began shooting from a distance and in the chaos I shouted out to four or five brother officers and we drove off in a truck. We were fired at but not hit.

4. The simple past is used for a past habit or for some event that took place regularly in the past (but no longer does):

When I was a child, we always went to the seaside in summer. He always carried an umbrella.

Besides the simple past there are two other ways of expressing habitual actions in the past. The construction *used to + infinitive* expresses a habit or a past situation which contrasts with the present. It does not indicate how often something happened, or how long it took:

She used to stay for supper with the family, delighting them with a fund of amusing stories.

*He used to play tennis every weekend. (Not *He used to play tennis for five years.)*

I used to smoke cigarettes, now I smoke a pipe.

She used to be beautiful. (= She once was beautiful.)

There used to be a museum here. (= There once was a museum here.)

The negative construction of *used to* (pronounced [ju:st tu]) is *didn't used to*, *didn't use to*, or *used not to*:

She didn't use to go out very often.

I didn't used to like reading novels.

I used not to like reading novels.

The interrogative construction is also built with the auxiliary *did*:

Did she used to come late?

Do not confuse *used to* with *be used to* which can be followed by a noun or gerund:

I'm quite used to the traffic / to walking long distances.

The structure **would + infinitive** can also be used to refer to past habits. However, unlike *used to* it denotes only repeated actions, not states or situations. It is not used at the beginning of a story. *Would* is mainly characteristic of literary style:

They would spend long winter nights reading and talking to each other.

5. However, the simple past does not always have past meaning. It can also be used to refer to present and future actions in indirect speech (see 6.3.6. The Sequence of Tenses):

I wondered if you were free tonight?

She said she knew him.

He hoped she would forgive him when she learnt the truth.

6. In some cases it is used to describe present-time situations where the past tense form implies a **tentative attitude**, suggesting politeness or respect:

Did you wish to see me now?

I thought you might like some flowers.

7. The simple past is also used in clauses after *It's time...; would rather...; wish...;*:

It's time you went to bed.

I'd rather you didn't come tomorrow.

I wish you had a better car.

6.2.2. The Past Progressive Tense

6.2.2.1. Form

All the forms of the past progressive are made with the simple past of the auxiliary *be* (*was/were*) and the progressive participle (participle I) of a notional verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I was working.</i>	<i>Was I working?</i>	<i>I was not (wasn't) working.</i>
<i>We were working.</i>	<i>Were we working?</i>	<i>We were not (weren't) working.</i>
<i>You were working.</i>	<i>Were you working?</i>	<i>You were not (weren't) working.</i>

<i>He/She/It was working.</i>	<i>Was he/she/it working?</i>	<i>He/She/It was not (wasn't) working.</i>
<i>They were working.</i>	<i>Were they working?</i>	<i>They were not (weren't) working.</i>

Negative interrogative

<i>Was I not working?</i>	<i>Wasn't I working?</i>
<i>Were we not working?</i>	<i>Weren't we working?</i>
<i>Were you not working?</i>	<i>Weren't you working?</i>
<i>Was he/she/it not working?</i>	<i>Wasn't he/she/it working?</i>
<i>Were they not working?</i>	<i>Weren't they working?</i>

6.2.2.2. The Uses of the Past Progressive Tense

The past progressive is primarily used to denote a situation that is viewed as being in progress in the past.

1. It is most often used to denote a temporary action in progress at a particular moment in the past. The moment of past time is expressed either by time adverbials (adverbs, adverb phrases or adverbial clauses), or is understood from the context:

What were you doing at five o'clock yesterday?

When I left home, it was still raining heavily.

I was sure she was still waiting for me.

2. The past progressive can also indicate recurrent events or a continuous action that was happening during a limited period of time in the past:

She was playing the piano from five till six.

It was snowing all day long yesterday.

I was living in the Crimea last summer.

When he was in London he was having a marvellous time.

He was working for this company in Paris.

Note that it is possible to use the simple past in these sentences. In this case we emphasize the fact but not the progress:

She played the piano from five till six.

It snowed all day long yesterday.

3. The past progressive frequently occurs in sentences depicting two simultaneous events. The past progressive in this case can refer to an event that serves as a longer "background" for a shorter action or event expressed by the simple past:

I was having my bath when the telephone rang.

They were discussing something, but when they saw me the conversation broke off.

The conjunctions *as*, *when* and *while* are used to introduce the longer "background" situations, which started before the short event, and perhaps went on after it:

As / when / while I was walking down the street, I came across an old friend of mine.

The order of clauses can be reversed:

I came across an old friend of mine as / when / while I was walking down the street.

When a sentence describes two continuous actions that went on at the same time the conjunction *while* is most often used. The past progressive and the simple past are both possible:

While I was listening (listened) to her story, I was thinking (thought) of how to help her.

When and *as* are not common in this case. However, *as* can be used to talk about two developing or changing situations:

As he grew older, he got more optimistic.

4. The past progressive is sometimes used to denote repeated actions characteristic of certain persons in the past. As with the present progressive, it can convey some kind of negative attitude to the people described. Such adverbials as *always*, *constantly*, etc. are often used in this case:

*He was very absent-minded and was constantly losing his things.
She was always talking in the lessons.*

5. The past progressive can have present reference in the expressions *I was wondering*, *I was hoping*, *I was thinking*. This use makes a request or suggestion sound more polite, less definite. It is a more tentative alternative to the simple present:

I was wondering if you'd like to come to the theatre with me.

6. The past progressive is used instead of the present progressive to denote future continuous actions viewed from the past (see 6.3.6. The Sequence of Tenses). Usually in this case the action is planned or expected:

She told me she was giving a party next Saturday.

Note that the past progressive of the expression *be going + to-infinitive* is used to denote intention or determination (with personal subjects) or an apprehension of some future occurrence (with both personal and non-personal subjects):

*I was just going to call you.
Now she was going to recover.
It was going to snow.*

6.2.3. The Past Perfect Tense

6.2.3.1. Form

All the forms of the Past Perfect are combinations of the simple past of the auxiliary verb *have* (*had*) and the past participle (participle II) of a notional verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I had worked.</i>	<i>Had I worked?</i>	<i>I had not (hadn't) worked.</i>
<i>We had worked.</i>	<i>Had we worked?</i>	<i>We had not (hadn't) worked.</i>
<i>You had worked.</i>	<i>Had you worked?</i>	<i>You had not (hadn't) worked.</i>
<i>He/She/It had worked.</i>	<i>Had he/she/it worked?</i>	<i>He/She/It had not (hadn't) worked.</i>
<i>They had worked.</i>	<i>Had they worked?</i>	<i>They had not (hadn't) worked.</i>

Negative interrogative

<i>Had I not worked?</i>	<i>Hadn't I worked?</i>
<i>Had we not worked?</i>	<i>Hadn't we worked?</i>
<i>Had you not worked?</i>	<i>Hadn't you worked?</i>
<i>Had he/she/it not worked?</i>	<i>Hadn't he/she/it worked?</i>
<i>Had they not worked?</i>	<i>Hadn't they worked?</i>

6.2.3.2. The Uses of the Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect indicates that the event denoted by the verb occurred before some other event in the past. Since an important characteristic of perfect forms is that they establish a temporal relation between situations, the past perfect links an earlier action with a situation or event that explicitly belongs to the past.

1. The past perfect is used to make a time distinction between two events or situations that happened in the past: it refers to the earlier of the two:

It was not as nice there as she had expected.

When he got home, he found that someone had broken into his flat and had stolen his fur coat. It was the third time that he had been robbed that year.

In January he went into partnership with Robin Hodges, an architect for whom he had worked while at college.

This rule applied to all employees who had worked for at least two years with an employer.

A.N. Richards had worked in England with Florey and was now a scientific power in America and a source of valuable information.

2. The past perfect is used to show that an action was completed before some moment in the past or before some other event occurred. Time adverbials introduced by *before*, *until* or *by* denote the later time or event. Note that adverbial clauses of time in these cases contain simple past verbal forms:

She had read the book before she gave it back to her friend.
The influence of Realism and Naturalism emerged in his work through his preference for humble, proletarian subjects. It had begun before he went to Paris.

Home of my husband was the "Ottawa Citizen" where he had worked as a reporter until the time of our marriage.

By the time I was eleven I had read my way through all Scott's Waverley novels.

The conjunctions *as soon as* and *after* introduce adverbial clauses depicting situations that occurred before other events or situations denoted by main (superordinate) clauses:

The poem was written most probably some time after he had left Dunsden.

Even after he had ceased to be a Neoplatonist, St Augustine remained very much under the influence of Plato's philosophical ideas.

After he had driven away, Nails turned to Nutty and said: "I want to talk to you."

After they had walked in silence some way, Wilfred suddenly asked Harold what he had thought of her.

This artificial deficit vanished as soon as he had departed.

He resigned the archbishopric of Ravenna almost as soon as it had been thrust upon him by Otto III in order to lead a life of private prayer and asceticism.

However, there may be little difference in meaning between the past perfect and the simple past in such sentences. Cf.:

The prophet was exiled from the temples of Israel as soon as his preaching of peace came into conflict with the King's strategy of war.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer was given a two-minute standing ovation after he delivered an uncompromising defence of his policies.

His car exploded a second after he parked the vehicle in a shed beside his home.

The simple past is used if we talk about a number of events either in the order in which they happened or in reverse order:

He studied medicine, philosophy and law before he finally dedicated himself to literature.

All this was before he became a jazz legend.

This was explained to and understood by the patient before he gave his consent.

The conjunction *when* can be used in both cases:

When British Telecom was privatized, shares were issued both in the US and the UK.

Twenty people died on the Pacific Highway when a lorry crashed into a bus.

The use of the past perfect disrupts the sequence of events, as if the speaker stops to emphasize the event before he is ready to go on, or he wants to avoid the impression that the actions have happened simultaneously. The speaker is making it clear that the first action was completed before the second one started.

In complex sentences with *when*-clauses the past perfect can be used either in the main clause or in the subordinate adverbial clause. When the past perfect is used in the main clause of a sentence, it refers to the earlier event or situation. *When* can be replaced by *before* in the following sentences:

The Fourth Division [a football league] held their opponents at bay with no difficulty until midway through the first half, and the crowds had fallen into an apprehensive silence when Drinkell revived their spirits.

Mary Claudine had been a promising junior when she joined the team just over a year ago.

The past perfect in the subordinate *when*-clause also denotes an event that was completed before another event or action started in the past. The meaning of *when* in these cases may be close to that of *after*:

When we had reached the last step of this glorious ladder, it was difficult to get down again without stumbling.

When the dust had cleared, it was evident that the city took the quake strike, on the whole, pretty well.

Reynolds wrote his "Discoveries" at the time when the Renaissance tradition had reached the point of collapse.

3. The past perfect can be used in subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction *before* to indicate that the main clause event occurred at the time before the subordinate clause action had been fulfilled:

The parish priest of Brackenstown distributed a newsletter at all masses on Ascension Thursday, 22 May — though before he had read Archbishop Marriot's guidelines on how to conduct the campaign.

Lord Aldington said his earlier statements were made before he had properly researched the matter and before he realized his departure date was crucial.

The last sentence, for example, means that Lord Aldington had not researched the matter properly by the time when he made some important statements.

4. The past perfect can be used in the main negative clauses of complex sentences to refer to an event that had not been completed or fulfilled by the time when the action denoted by the adverbial clause occurred:

*He had not yet been born when Jack's deputy went to jail.
He had not written a line since he arrived.*

In some sentences, the use of the past perfect can establish a causal connection between two clauses:

They had not spoken to each other for three days and were in a state of rage.

Negation can be implied by the meaning of words like *barely*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, etc.:

She said that since she arrived in the USA she had barely had a week without a severe headache attack.

5. The past perfect is most common with the conjunctions *hardly...when*, *barely...when*, *scarcely...when*, *no sooner...than*:

The game had barely restarted when Linhoff passed to Van Rooy to the right wing, a devastating left-foot shot from the Dutch player making it 2-0.

I had hardly closed the door when somebody started knocking on it.

In formal or literary style, these structures are sometimes used with inverted word order:

Hardly had I closed my eyes when I began to imagine the most fantastic shapes.

No sooner had a special train arrived in Hanover yesterday than at least 200 more refugees turned up at the embassy doorsteps.

Scarcely had we started dinner when the doorbell rang again.

Cf. the use of the simple past in sentences referring to recurrent actions in the past:

Tom clearly enjoyed these expeditions but no sooner was he home again than the patient bird-watcher became the impatient father, asking why breakfast was late.

6. The past perfect is also used to denote actions and situations which had been in progress up to a certain moment in the past. Very

often either the starting point of the action or the period of its duration is given.

The past perfect can be used with stative verbs which do not normally take the progressive form:

I had not seen him for a few months when he suddenly phoned me.

With dynamic verbs, the past perfect emphasizes the fact that an action took place, while the past perfect progressive accentuates the duration of the action. Cf.:

When we met, she had lived in the country for three years.

When we met, she had been living in the country for three years.

It is preferable to use the past perfect instead of the past perfect progressive in negative sentences as the former states the fact of the negation of an action rather than its continuity:

He said he hadn't written anything since his wife died.

7. The past perfect is very often used in reported speech after the verbs *said*, *told*, *asked*, *thought*, etc. to indicate a "backshift" into a more remote past (see 6.3.6. The Sequence of Tenses):

I asked them why the goods had not arrived yet.

I wondered who had left the door open.

If a subordinate object clause contains an adverbial clause of time, the simple past is often used in the latter instead of the past perfect:

Last week Morocco claimed it had lost five soldiers when Polisario guerrillas attacked its defences near the Mauritanian border.

He told me somebody had phoned me when I was (or had been) out.

8. The past perfect refers more politely than the simple past to a present state of mind:

I had wondered whether you are (or were) free now.

9. The past perfect is used to express an unrealized hope or wish, or a counterfactual condition (see also 8. Mood and Modality and 15.2.5.3. Adverbial Clauses of Condition):

Cannon had intended to play on for one more season, but he has a back injury that may require surgery.

I wish I had said that I couldn't come.

I would rather he had told me the truth.

If only you'd told me before.

If he had been rich, he would have bought a new house for you.

6.2.4. The Past Perfect Progressive Tense

6.2.4.1. Form

The past perfect progressive tense is a combination of the past perfect of the verb *be* (*had been*) and the progressive participle (participle I) of a notional verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
<i>I / We had been working.</i>	<i>Had I / we been working?</i>	<i>I / We had not (hadn't) been working.</i>
<i>You had been working.</i>	<i>Had you been working?</i>	<i>You had not (hadn't) been working.</i>
<i>He / She / It had been working.</i>	<i>Had he / she / it been working?</i>	<i>He / She / It had not (hadn't) been working.</i>
<i>They had been working.</i>	<i>Had they been working?</i>	<i>They had not (hadn't) been working.</i>

Interrogative-negative

<i>Had I / we not been working?</i>	<i>Hadn't I / we been working?</i>
<i>Had you not been working?</i>	<i>Hadn't you been working?</i>
<i>Had he / she / it not been working?</i>	<i>Hadn't he / she / it been working?</i>
<i>Had they not been working?</i>	<i>Hadn't they been working?</i>

6.2.4.2. The Uses of the Past Perfect Progressive Tense

The past perfect progressive is used for an event that is viewed as being in progress before a particular time in the past.

1. The past perfect progressive is used to denote actions in progress that began **before a certain moment in the past** explicitly indicated or implied by the context. The action itself may or may not be completed by that time. Either the moment in the past or the starting point of the action or its duration is usually indicated:

He had been staying in the hotel for a week when his friends arrived.

He had been watching a firework display in the Place de Quincalconces, when a ferocious storm broke.

The hotel's owner said nine Irishmen had been staying at the hotel since June, all of them apparently working as builders.

During this time, Liz had taken much of the responsibility for the day-to-day running of the business, while her mother had been staying at home to look after her husband who was in poor health.

Note that with an adverbial *when*-clause, the past perfect progressive in the main clause often refers to a completed situation. Cf.:

When I looked out of the window, it had been raining (it wasn't raining any more).

When I looked out of the window, it was raining (it was still raining).

A sentence with the past perfect progressive may not contain any indication of the past moment:

Ann had been taking an antidepressant for six months without much benefit.

The consequent reduction in his income had meant that he could not afford to run a car any longer, and therefore he had been seeing less and less of his girlfriend, who lived 15 miles away.

After her husband's departure, Margaret had been feeling very miserable and frustrated, was having difficulty concentrating at work and had been avoiding her usual social contacts.

In the last three sentences, the point of past time before which the actions or situations were developing is clear from the context.

2. The past perfect progressive also denotes an action in progress that was, in fact, completed before a certain moment of time in the past. Very often, from the consequences of these actions the speaker is able to make guesses as to what might have been happening before:

Her eyes were red. I saw that she had been crying.

By their wet bathing suits I could see that they had been swimming.

6.3. FUTURE TENSES

There are a number of ways of referring to future events and situations in English. The two most common are with the auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall* (and their contraction '*'ll*') and with the verb phrase *be going + to-infinitive*. However, the combination of a notional verb with the auxiliaries *will* and *shall* does not always express future time. It may also denote a present situation that is believed by the speaker to be very likely (see 9. Modal Verbs). On the other hand, present (simple or progressive) verb forms can be used to refer to future events or situations.

6.3.1. The Simple Future Tense

6.3.1.1. Form

The term "simple future" is often used for a verb phrase that consists of *will/shall* and the base form of a notional verb: *He will come*

back. In Modern English the verb *will* can be used with all persons. In affirmative sentences, the contracted form *-'ll* is common (particularly after pronoun subjects); the negative construction is *won't* [*wount*]. *Shall* is also possible with the first person, and in some specific contexts *shall* can be used with 2nd and the 3rd person subjects. Its negative contraction is *shan't* [*ʃa:nt*]:

I will never be happy.

Where will you be next Sunday?

We'll see what can be done about it.

This won't take you long.

I shall probably be back by next Monday.

We shan't have much time to see each other.

6.3.1.2. The Uses of the Future Simple Tense

1. The future simple tense is often used in a purely predictive way to express what we think will happen at some time after the moment of speaking:

I'll see you tomorrow.

They will be away on holiday for a month.

He won't ever know what happened here yesterday.

Do you think they will win the match?

She will be forty next week.

The future simple tense is used in the main clause of a conditional sentence to denote a future situation that will occur if / when another event takes place:

If you give her money, she will spend it on sweets.

I'll read the story when I get the book.

The condition may be understood, but not mentioned:

Come out for a walk. — No, I'll miss the train.

Note that the expression *be going + to-infinitive* is not usually used in these cases:

**If you give her money, she's going to spend it on sweets.*

2. Referring to future time often carries some additional modal implications. Depending upon context, a sentence with *will* may express a range of meanings, all related to the notion of willingness. The speaker, for instance, can express his decision (or readiness) to do something:

I don't intend to give up. I will fight all the way.

When I return to my country, I will start a discussion between the two parties.

Until we get the letter, we won't be able to do anything, but we will speak to the people concerned.

The speaker can also give promises or make threats by using *will* in his statements:

Call this number and I will answer your call today.

I'll take you to the Red Lion, in my car. You and three friends.

That's all I can fit in. I will call for you, at the door, on Saturday.

If you are late for workshops, you will be penalized.

It can also be used to tell someone informally what to do, or as a formal and rather dictatorial way to give orders:

Will you shut up!

Ask Jim to help you, will you?

You will wash up right after dinner.

In questions *will* may often express invitations or requests:

Will you come tonight?

Will you help me?

Will you pass me the sugar?

In affirmative sentences with a second or third person subject, the verb *shall* represents threats, directions, instructions or obligation, especially in formal and legalistic English:

He shall suffer for this!

Each member state shall maintain the application of the principle that men and women should receive equal pay for equal work.

In interrogative sentences with a first person subject, *shall* is used to ask for approval of one's action in the immediate future, or to make suggestions:

Shall I close the window?

Shall we go to the theatre tonight?

(See also 9. Modal Verbs.)

6.3.2. The Future Progressive Tense

6.3.2.1. Form

The future progressive is a combination of *will* (*shall*) *be* and participle I of a notional verb: *He will be working there*. It is not usually used in the passive.

6.3.2.2. The Uses of the Future Progressive

1. As is common with the progressive aspect, the future progressive is used for an action that is viewed as developing at a particular moment, or within some period of time, in this case in the future:

In the aftermath of the San Francisco earthquake, it seems likely that American architects and engineers will be taking a closer look at the latest construction techniques.

Immigration officials will be conducting interviews over the next few days.

2. The future progressive also indicates that a future action or situation is part of the normal pattern of events that has already been fixed. It does not imply that the action is thought of as a special arrangement, intention, decision or plan, as is the case with the simple future or the present progressive:

Mr Poole is to lead a delegation to Blackpool next week to see Kenneth Clarke, who will be attending the Tory conference.

The company is buying the site but will be paying a percentage of the profits to the city council.

Cf.: *I'll see him about it tomorrow.* (= I promise to see him.)

I'm seeing him about it tomorrow. (= I have arranged to meet him.)

I'll be seeing him about it tomorrow. (= My meeting him is included in the normal course of events.)

Note also that the sentence *I'm giving a lesson at two o'clock tomorrow* implies that the lesson begins at two o'clock, while the sentence *I'll be giving a lesson at two o'clock tomorrow* means that at two o'clock tomorrow the lesson will be in progress.

3. In interrogative sentences, the future progressive is a polite way of asking about somebody's plans. By using this tense the speaker shows that he doesn't want to influence the other person:

Will you be coming tomorrow?

4. The future progressive is used in formal contexts (chiefly in newspapers and news broadcasts) to make announcements of future plans and for weather forecasts. In conversation, such statements are usually expressed by the present progressive or the structure *be going + to-infinitive*:

The president will be opening the new heliport tomorrow.

6.3.3. The Future Perfect Tense

6.3.3.1. Form

The future perfect consists of *will* (*shall*) *have* followed by participle II of a notional verb: *He will have done the work by Monday.*

6.3.3.2. The Uses of the Future Perfect Tense

1. The future perfect is used to say that an action or event will have been completed by a certain time in the future indicated by the context or situation:

When Achilles reaches the point from which the tortoise starts, the tortoise will have advanced to a farther point.

2. As one of the perfect forms, the future perfect is also used to denote a continuous action or state part of which will have been completed at some time before a particular moment in the future:

Next month she will have been locked up for four years without being charged or tried.

We'll have been married for a year in July.

6.3.4. The Future Perfect Progressive Tense

6.3.4.1. Form

The future perfect progressive consists of the future perfect of the verb *be* and participle I of a notional verb: *He will have been reading this book.*

6.3.4.2. The Use of the Future Perfect Progressive Tense

The future perfect progressive does not occur very often. Its main function is to emphasize the continuity of an action or state that begins before a certain moment of time in the future and may or may not have been completed by that time:

By next September she will have been teaching English in this school for five years.

6.3.5. Other Ways of Expressing Future Time

Be going to

Like the simple future, the structure *be going + to-infinitive* is often used with a pure future meaning:

I cannot see how they are going to pay all of us.

I'm realistic enough to know it is going to be a very difficult situation against three strong teams.

The verb phrase *be going + to-infinitive* is also used to describe a decision or intention on the part of the subject to do something:

So things may not go as smoothly as I hoped. But I'm going to try and visit the British Council next week.

Hereafter I'm going to design only homes.

If you are going to improve your fitness, you will almost certainly need to increase your exercise level.

Be going to may be used to express what appears likely or inevitable:

It's going to be difficult to persuade him to change his mind.

Look out! She's going to faint.

The present simple

The simple present is used for future actions that are regarded as part of a fixed timetable without an element of personal agreement, intention or planning:

The examination begins at 7 tomorrow.

They leave tomorrow at 12 and arrive at 18.30.

It is also used with future reference in adverbial clauses of time and condition. Cf.:

He will tell you when he has the necessary information. (adverbial clause of time)

He will tell you when he will have the necessary information. (object clause)

(See also 6.1.1. The Present Simple Tense.)

The present progressive

The present progressive indicates that a future action or event is already decided, pre-arranged, or agreed upon:

I'm meeting him tonight.

The theatre company are taking the show on tour after its initial run in London.

Be due to

The structure *be due + to-infinitive* expresses something that is expected to happen at a particular time in future according to some timetable or schedule:

The plane is due to land at 3.

They are due to leave this time next week.

Be about to

The structure *be about + to-infinitive* indicates that something is going to happen in very near future:

The taxi is here and we are about to go.

The story he is about to tell is indeed a true one, not a legend.

Archaeologists are recording the 5,000-year history of a valley which is about to be flooded to form one of Britain's largest reservoirs.

6.3.6. The Sequence of Tenses

1. One of the ways of reporting what is or was said or believed is by using indirect (or reported) speech. A report structure usually consists of the reporting (main) clause and the reported (subordinate object) clause. The relationship between the tenses in the reporting clause and the reported clause is the sequence of tenses.

The sequence of tenses mainly concern object clauses, though some other subordinate clauses, such as subject, predicative and appositive are also involved. The rule is very simple: if the predicate verb of the main clause is in one of the past tenses, the predicate verb of the subordinate clause is also in one of the past tenses.

The simple past or the past progressive in the subordinate clause denotes an action simultaneous with that of the main clause:

She noticed that he was not listening.

Had she not mentioned what was troubling her?

He thought we stayed in that hotel.

The past perfect and the past perfect progressive in the subordinate clause refer to an action prior to that of the main clause:

I didn't want to tell her that Kate had called me.

He had a feeling that he had done something wrong.

When future actions are viewed from the past, it is usual to use **future in the past** tenses. They are formed and used similarly to the corresponding future tenses, the only difference being the change of *will/shall* to *would/should*. One of the future in the past tenses is used if an action denoted by the subordinate clause follows that of the principal clause:

I really hoped that she would be better.

He said that this congress would strip the party of its ideology and change its name.

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

I guess they told him what they had done and what they were going to do.

2. The choice of a tense form in the subordinate clause is usually dependent on the tense in the main clause of a report structure. A present tense in the reporting clause normally attracts a present tense in the subordinate clause; and a past tense form in the main clause usually combines with a past tense in the reported clause:

He tells me he is a good tennis player.
He told me he was a good tennis player.

However, the second sentence is ambiguous as to the time reference of the reported clause: only a more complete context would let us understand whether *he was a good tennis player* refers to the past (i. e. when he was a young man) or to the present time (i. e. he is still a good tennis player at the time of reporting). Note also that both sentences *I told them that I was thirty* and *I told them that I am thirty* are acceptable if the speaker is still thirty. When the speaker is concentrating on the situation in the past (i. e. his telling them his age), a past tense is used in the reported clause. A present tense in the subordinate clause emphasizes that the situation still exists. It follows that even if the choice of tense in the subordinate clause does, in principle, follow the rules of the sequence of tenses, the speaker is free to use a tense that is appropriate at the moment of speaking.

In the object clause the sequence of tenses rule is not observed in the following cases:

a) when the subordinate clause describes a so-called general truth or something that the speaker thinks to be one:

Everybody knew that water consists of two gases.
They were very young and ignorant of what life really is;

b) when the subordinate clause describes "historic events":

We all knew that the Norman Conquest happened in 1066.
He knew that she was born in 1973.

c) when the predicate verb phrase of the subordinate clause contains one of the modal verbs *could*, *might*, *should*, *must*, or *need*:

He said they must do it at once.
She said I needn't try again.
We thought he should call her.

7. THE PASSIVE VOICE

Voice is a grammatical category of the verb denoting the relationship between the action expressed by the verb and the person/non-person denoted by the subject of the sentence (construction).

7.1. THE FORMATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE

The passive voice is used to show that the subject of the sentence is not the agent (doer) of the action expressed by the verb but, quite conversely, is acted upon, undergoes the action. Cf.: *We ate hot dogs for lunch* (active voice); *Hot dogs were eaten for lunch* (passive voice).

The passive voice is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *be* in the required tense-aspect form and the participle II of the notional verb.

The use of tenses in the passive voice is the same as in the active voice. Note, however, that the future progressive tense and the perfect progressive group of tenses (*This patient has been being treated with massive doses of antibiotics*) are very uncommon for the passive voice as they are phonetically difficult, and, consequently, felt to be ugly. Either a corresponding active voice form or a non-progressive passive forms tend to be used instead. Cf.: *The MPs have long been debating about this issue* = *This issue has been long debated in the parliament* and *This issue has been being long debated in the parliament*. The choice of the structure is usually determined by the lexical character of the notional verb.

The tense aspect form	The active voice	The passive voice
Present Simple	<i>I do it.</i>	<i>It is done.</i>
Past Simple	<i>I did it.</i>	<i>It was done.</i>
Future Simple	<i>I will do it.</i>	<i>It will be done.</i>
Present Progressive	<i>I am doing it.</i>	<i>It is being done.</i>
Past Progressive	<i>I was doing it.</i>	<i>It was being done.</i>
Future Progressive	<i>I will be doing it.</i>	? <i>It will be being done.</i>
Present Perfect	<i>I have done it.</i>	<i>It has been done.</i>

Past Perfect	<i>I had done it.</i>	<i>It had been done.</i>
Future Perfect	<i>I will have done it.</i>	<i>It will have been done.</i>
Present Perfect	<i>I have been doing it.</i>	? <i>It has been being done.</i>
Progressive		
Past Perfect	<i>I had been doing it.</i>	? <i>It had been being done.</i>
Progressive		
Future Perfect	<i>I will have been doing it.</i>	? <i>It will have been being done.</i>
Progressive		

7.2. USES OF THE PASSIVE VOICE

7.2.1. The Appropriateness of the Passive Voice

The passive voice is by far most frequent in scientific writing and least frequent in conversation. Passive occurs naturally and spontaneously, without a conscious change from active to passive form when:

the agent is unknowable: *The Earth was formed millions of years ago;*

the agent is redundant: *Oranges are grown in California;*

the speaker/writer wants to emphasize the receiver or result of the action: *Six people were killed by the tornado;*

when the speaker/writer wants to make a statement sound objective without revealing the source of information: *The best results are achieved when the plants are watered regularly;*

the speaker/writer wants to be tactful or evasive by not mentioning the agent: *Mafia is believed to be very influential in this country.*

7.2.2. Verbs that are used in the Passive Voice

Normally, the passive voice occurs only with verbs used transitively, that is, the verbs that can be followed by an object: *The government has raised taxes again* (active voice); *Taxes have been raised again* (passive voice).

7.2.2.1. Ditransitive Verbs GIVE, SHOW, etc. in the Passive Voice

Such ditransitive verbs as *give, send, pay, award, lend, sell, promise, show, offer, teach, owe, grant, hand, feed and leave* (in a will) can have two objects after them in an active sentence, e. g.: *The Queen gave the pilot a medal.* Either of these objects can become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence: *The pilot was given a medal* and *A medal was given to the pilot.* Note that in sentences

like the second one, *to* can be omitted before a personal pronoun:
A medal was given him.

It is essential to remember that the choice between the two above described passive sentences is determined by the fact that new/important information is usually placed at the end of the sentence. Thus, the sentence *Tom is taught English* tells us that Tom learns English, not Russian, and the sentence *English is taught to Tom* tells us that it is Tom, not Becky who learns English.

Direct objects of the verbs *bring* and *buy* typically become the subjects of the parallel passive sentences:

He brought us a bottle of wine. They bought him a new dress.
A bottle of wine was brought to us. A new dress was bought for him.

(?) *We were brought a bottle of wine. (?) He was bought a new dress.*

Such ditransitive prepositional verbs as *explain, describe, dictate, suggest, repeat* allow only one of their objects (the direct object) to become the subject in the corresponding passive sentences:

This rule has already been explained to us.
Our teacher has already explained this rule to us.

7.2.2.2. Phrasal Verbs in the Passive

Phrasal verbs are idiomatic combinations of a *verb + adverb*, or a *verb + preposition* (or verb with both adverb and preposition).

There are a number of phrasal verbs that are frequently used in the passive voice, e. g.: *Extra troubles are not what is asked for here. All your services have been paid for in full. All age groups are catered for in our department store. Nuclear waste must be very carefully disposed of. This matter will be thoroughly seen to. Leave it to us and you won't be let down.* A list of some of such phrasal verbs is given below:

to account for, to agree upon/on, to appeal to, to approve of, to arrive at, to ask for, to attend to, to bargain for, to break into, to call for, to call on, to care for, to cater for, to count on, to comment on, deal with, to decide on, to depend on, to dispose of, to hear of, to hope for, to insist on, to laugh at, to let down, to listen to, to long for, to look after, to look at, to look for, to look into, to look to, to object to, to operate on, to pay for, to play with, to put off, to provide for, to read to, to refer to, to rely on, to see to, to send for, to settle on, to touch on, to wait for, to wait on, to worry about.

The following list contains three-word phrasal verbs that are often used in the passive:

to do away with, to find fault with, to look down on, to look forward to, to lose sight of, to pay attention to, to put an end to, to put up with, to take care of, to take notice of, to talk down to, to make fun of, to make fuss of, to make a fool of, to get rid of.

The shore was soon lost sight of. The practice of religious education in Russia was done away with soon after the 1917 upheaval. Summer vacation is something which is always looked forward to.

Quite peculiar is the use of the intransitive verbs live and sleep in the Passive voice:

*This room is not lived in. The bed was not slept in/on.
Her salary cannot be lived on. The committee's decision was slept on.*

7.2.2.3. The Passive Voice of the Verbals. Modal verbs + the Passive Voice Infinitive

Like the finite forms of the verb, the verbals (the infinitive, the gerund, the participle I) may be used in the passive voice (see 10. Verbals):

*Nobody likes to be laughed at.
Being written in pencil, the letter was difficult to make out.
Do you very much mind being treated this way?*

Modal verbs and modal expressions commonly precede the passive voice infinitive (see 9. Modal Verbs):

*He must be talked to about it.
It will have to be done for your own sake.*

7.2.2.4. Adverbs of Manner in Passive Sentences

Adverbs of manner stand immediately in pre- or postposition to the past participle: *The work was well done* or *The work was done well*.

7.2.2.5. The Use of BY and WITH + Object After a Passive Verb

Around 85 percent of sentences with the passive voice do not have an explicit agent. To mention the agent is only necessary when the speaker/writer wishes to say (or the hearer has to know) who or what is responsible for the event. By is used to introduce the active agent — the person or thing or driving force that does the action):

He was killed by a heavy stone. (= A stone fell and killed him.)

With is used when talking about an instrument which helps the agent to do an action:

He was killed with a heavy stone. (= Somebody used a stone to kill him.)

A few transitive verbs refer to states rather than actions and point to what is used for filling, covering or containing. When it is so, the object is put after *with*:

The streets are crowded with people.

Here is a list of some of these verbs: *cram, crowd, decorate, fill, ornament, throng*.

However, there are verbs referring to states which are used with *by* in the passive: *conceal, illuminate, occupy, exceed, inhabit, overshadow*:

She was completely overshadowed by a more talkative speaker.

Some verbs can be used with either *by* or *with* to refer to states: *adorn, cover, overrun, besiege, encircle + by / with*:

In spring trees are covered with blossom.

Note the inclusion of *by* and *with* in questions with *Who(m)* and *What*:

Who(m) was this letter written by?

What was he surprised by?

7.2.2.6. Get-Passive Form

In informal style the verb *get* is fairly frequently used instead of the auxiliary verb *be* to form the passive voice (*The terrorist got arrested (was arrested) with a bomb in his hands*). Note, however, that *get + participle II* may be used in two cases only:

1) when talking about things that are done suddenly, unexpectedly or by accident:

The picture got damaged when we were moving;

2) when talking about things which we do to ourselves:

We got married in June.

Get is not a true auxiliary verb (unlike *be*), that is why there is a structural difference between *be* and *get* passive forms in questions and negative sentences in the simple present and past tenses. *Do* must function as an auxiliary for *get*:

Did the picture get damaged when they were moving? (Cf. be passive: Were the pictures damaged?)

Auxiliary verbs *be* and *have* are used to form progressive and perfect groups of tenses:

We are getting married in the morning. My wallet has got stolen.

7.2.2.7. *The Passive with Verbs of Saying and Believing*

When the source of the reported information is not known / important, or when it seems necessary to be cautious about disclosing it, the following types of passive constructions are used with the verbs of *saying* and *believing*.

It + passive + that-clause

The following verbs are often used in this construction: *agree, allege, arrange, assume, believe, consider, decide, declare, discover, expect, fear, feel, find, hope, know, presume, prove, report, say, suggest, suppose, think, understand*:

It is said that he is rich.

It is believed that the economic situation will get better.

Subject + passive + to-infinitive

The following verbs are regularly used with this construction: *allege, believe, consider, declare, know, recognize, report, say, tell, suppose, think, understand* (see also 10. The Verbals):

He is said to be rich.

The economic situation is believed to get better.

Note the difference in meaning between the following sentences:

They are said to be good friends. — Говорят, они хорошие друзья.

They are told to be good friends. — Им велят быть хорошими друзьями.

They are much talked / spoken of / about. — О них много говорят.

There + passive + to be + noun phrase

This construction is used to report the existence of something and is not very common for the colloquial English:

There is said to be a lot of money in his pockets.

There are known to be lots of poor people in this country.

Only a limited selection of verbs are used in this pattern: e. g. *acknowledge, allege, believe, consider, fear, feel, know, presume, report, say, suppose, think, understand*.

7.2.2.8. Other Uses of *be* + Participle II

Be + participle II = compound nominal predicate (statal passive)

The combination *be + participle II* can denote an action and be a simple verbal predicate expressed by the passive voice (further referred to as **actional passive**):

They were married last Sunday.

The road was closed by the police.

It can also denote a state and then it is a compound nominal predicate consisting of a link verb *be* and a predicative expressed by participle II (further, for the sake of convenience, referred to as **statal passive**):

They have already been long married.

The shop was closed when I got there.

It is sometimes difficult to be decisive about the nature of *be + participle II*. Some useful hints that sometimes may help to tell actional and statal passives apart are given below.

Actional Passive	<p>Get passive form is used: <i>He got wounded. We got married.</i></p> <p>The agent of the action is mentioned: <i>The statue was broken by some vandals.</i></p> <p>There is a succession of actions: <i>We were married and then, only a few months later, divorced.</i></p> <p>The verb is used in progressive or in perfect exclusive tenses: <i>They have just been married.</i></p> <p>There is an adverbial of place, frequency and as a rule, of time: <i>We were married in church.</i></p>
Statal Passive	<p>The verb is used in the perfect inclusive tense: <i>They have long been married.</i></p> <p>There is a homogeneous predicative: <i>We were married and happy.</i></p> <p>When participle II (<i>annoyed at/with, ashamed of, astonished at/by, awed by, bored with, excited about, fascinated at/with, depressed at, disappointed at/with/about/in, puzzled at/by/with...</i>) denotes a state of mind. <i>By/with/at/about + object</i> in this case denotes the cause of the state: <i>We were astonished by/at this news. I was awed by the value of her gift. She is worried about you.</i></p>

Be + participle II = active voice

There is a pseudo-passive construction with verbs of motion or completion in which the participle II is active rather than passive in meaning. Historically this structure comes from the perfect auxiliary *be*:

By the time she got there, her friend was (had?) gone.

I'm done with all that nonsense. (= I have done, i. e. finished.)

Have you finished with your work? — I'm (have?) nearly finished.

Evidently it is difficult (if possible) to distinguish between statal passive and the inclusive perfect auxiliary *be* when there is no context available:

What a terrible day! I'm absolutely finished. (= I'm exhausted.)
(statal passive)

We are finished. (statal passive? present perfect?)

7.2.2.9. Active Voice Verbs with Passive Meaning

A few active voice verbs can sometimes be used with passive meanings. These verbs are:

a) *need, deserve, require, want + gerund:*

This matter deserves going into.

My shoes want cleaning.

Does your gas-tank require filling, sir? (See also 10. The Verbs.)

b) a large number of ergative verbs (verbs which can have the same noun as their object, when transitive, or their subject, when intransitive (*I opened the door. — The door opened*), e. g.: *begin, break, burst, change, close, continue, end, finish, grow, open, slow, start, stop... turn, back, crash, drive, fly, park, run, sail...*; *bake, boil, cook, fry, melt:*

I've changed my ways. — My ways changed.

The driver stopped the car. — The car stopped.

She has crashed her car. — Her car has crashed.

I'm cooking spaghetti. — The spaghetti is cooking.

c) ergative verbs *clean, wash, handle, polish, read, sell + an adverbial of manner:*

Your report reads well.

The new Ford is selling badly.

This surface cleans easily.

My car handles beautifully.

Ergative verbs perform a function similar to the passive because they allow to avoid mentioning the agent of the action.

8. MOOD AND MODALITY

Modality is a grammatical category indicating that the sentence is to be interpreted as denoting a state of affairs which is real or unreal, possible or necessary, desirable or forbidden, obligatory or permitted, certain or probable, etc. Modality is expressed in English by means of a number of moods (indicative, imperative and subjunctive) modal verbs or modal words (e. g. adverbs and adjectives like *maybe*, *definitely*, *sure*, *certainly*, *perhaps*, *probably*, etc.)

Mood, alongside modal verbs and modal words is a means of expressing modality, i. e. the speaker's attitude to actions/states or the relation of actions/states to reality. The English language distinguishes between three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

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8.1. THE INDICATIVE MOOD

The indicative mood is used to represent an action or state as a real fact.

Barbara lives in London.

For a detailed treatment of the forms and meanings of the indicative mood see 6. Tense and Aspect and 7. The Passive Voice.

8.2. THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

The imperative mood represents an action or state as desirable and expresses a request or a command:

Turn off this terrible music!

The imperative mood can be expressed by both synthetic (consisting of one verb) and analytical (multiple-verb) forms. The synthetic

imperative refers to the 2nd person singular and plural and is expressed by the basic form of the verb (*Go!*). The negative form requires the auxiliary *do* (*Don't go!*); *do* can also be used emphatically:

Do be quiet!

To give even more expression to an order or request addressed to the 2nd pers. sg., *you* may be included into the sentence:

You better watch your step!

Commands of this type may sound rude.

The analytical imperative requires *let* with the 3rd person singular and 1st/3rd person plural:

Let her/us/them do it.

Corresponding negative commands are formed with *don't* or *let's not*:

Don't let's go there.

Let's not go there.

Used in similar combinations with the 1st person singular, *let* may be regarded as a notional, rather than auxiliary, verb in the indicative mood (*let me ~ allow me*), which is natural enough, since a request can hardly be addressed to the speaker.

Syntactically, imperative sentences may be treated as one-member complete; some authors regard them as two-member elliptical (incomplete), as the subject (most commonly *you*) is easily understood from the context.

8.3. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The subjunctive mood is used to express an action that is unreal:

If I had the key, we could go inside.

or desirable (not to be confused with the meaning of desirability rendered by the imperative mood: the subjunctive mood denotes wish, often unreal, rather than a command or request):

I wish I were sixteen again.

In the course of its development, the subjunctive mood has undergone considerable change, in both form and meaning, which accounts for the existence of multiple ways of expression and a number of "frozen" set phrases. Present-day English demonstrates a marked tendency not to distinguish between the subjunctive and the indicative, and often uses the indicative in place of the subjunctive, which explains the reason why many British and American practical gram-

mers do not recognize it as a separate grammatical category. Nevertheless, all forms discussed below are to be found in contemporary language, both spoken or written. In analyzing them, special attention should be given to the language register (formal, neutral, informal) and to the dialect varieties (BrE vs. AmE).

8.4. GRAMMATICAL FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

To express the different meanings rendered by the subjunctive mood, a variety of verb forms are used, both synthetic and analytical. None of these forms distinguishes person or number.

8.4.1. Synthetic Forms

1. The present subjunctive¹³ corresponds to the bare infinitive for all persons:

I insist that he come here at once!
It is essential that everybody be present.

As a rule, the present subjunctive is used in set expressions (see below 8.6.1. Uses of the Present Subjunctive):

God save the Queen!

2. The past subjunctive is limited to the verb *were*:

He behaved as if he were drunk.

But even this unique remaining form increasingly gives way to *was*, which appears to native speakers less exotic:

He behaved as if he was drunk.

Were remains in the plural, where it is impossible to distinguish between the indicative and the subjunctive in past time contexts:

They behaved as if they were drunk.

The only expressions making regular use of the past subjunctive, are *I wish I were...* and *as it were*, the former one sometimes alternating with *I wish I was*. All other verbs have lost specific past subjunctive forms, which have been supplanted by the simple past indicative:

¹³ The terms the "present" and, below, the "past" subjunctive reflect verb forms rather than their temporal meanings: examples below illustrate that both present and past subjunctive forms can refer to the present, past, and future.

She behaved as if she knew something very special.

Yet in their meaning these forms remain distinct from the simple past indicative, for rather than denoting an action in the past they denote an action simultaneous with that expressed in the main clause:

She behaves as if she knew something very special.

Such forms may be regarded as past subjunctive identical to indicative. This point of view is the more feasible that true indicative forms may be used in similar circumstances:

She behaves as if she knows something very special.

The same holds true for analytical forms of the subjunctive as well.

8.4.2. Analytical Forms

The term "analytical form" is used to denote a form consisting of one or more primary auxiliaries and a notional verb and will be applied below to forms identical to analytical tense forms in the indicative:

They looked as if they were fighting for their lives. (past progressive)

If you had come, we would have had a good time. (past perfect)

She looked as if she had been crying. (past perfect progressive)

Some of these forms (*were fighting, had been crying*) retain the meanings of respective tenses and may be regarded by some grammarians as indicative. On the other hand, the following sentences are also possible:

He looks as if he was / were fighting for his life.

She looks as if she had been crying.

In these sentences the use of the past continuous and past perfect tenses would not be justified. As in the case of synthetic past subjunctive forms, these may be regarded as analytical subjunctive forms identical to certain indicative tense forms.

Sometimes combinations of the secondary auxiliary verbs *should, would, may, might, could* with various forms of the infinitive of a notional verb are also regarded as analytical subjunctive forms:

She opened the window so that we might have some fresh air.

This group of auxiliary verbs has its origin in modal verbs and retains much of the original modal meaning. Therefore it is often hard to distinguish between true modal verbs (modal auxiliaries) and what some authors refer to as "mood auxiliaries":

She opened the window so that we could have some fresh air.

Below the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, *may*, *might*, and *could* used in combination with the infinitives of notional verbs are referred to as modal verbs or modal auxiliaries (for detailed treatment of the modals see 9. Modal Verbs).

8.5. TEMPORAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

In simple sentences, the subjunctive mood expresses actions referring to the present, past, or future, i. e. the tense distinctions are absolute:

If only she were here. (present)

If only I hadn't said it! (past)

May you be happy! (future)

In complex sentences, where the subjunctive verb forms occur more often, they do not usually express absolute time: their temporal meaning is relative, indicating an action occurring simultaneously, prior to, or later than that in the main clause.

Subjunctive mood forms identical to the past indefinite and past continuous, tend to denote an action/state simultaneous with that of the main clause:

I wish I knew her name!

Forms identical to the past perfect express priority:

Jim looks as if he had seen a ghost.

The perfect infinitive after *should*, *would* also expresses a prior action:

It is amazing that Kate should have said it.

The present subjunctive and forms with *should*, *would*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *shall* generally denote actions occurring later than the actions in the main clause:

It is vital that he talk to her tonight.

Suddenly I wished she would stop smiling.

Due to the predominantly relative nature of tense distinctions expressed by the subjunctive mood, it does not conform to the general rules of the sequence of tenses.

Cf.: *I would help you if I could.*

She said she would help me if she could.

8.6. MEANING AND USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

8.6.1. Uses of the Present Subjunctive

1. Synthetic forms of the present subjunctive are used in a number of set phrases expressing wish, oaths and swearing, etc., most of which are characteristic of archaic style ("formulaic" subjunctive):

Wish *Be it so! / So be it! — Да будет так!* (sounds solemn)
Be it as you wish. — Будь по-вашему.

Long live!.. — Да здравствует!.. (mostly used jocularly)

God / Lord / Heaven help smb!

God / The Lord forgive smb!

God / Heaven forbid! — Боже упаси!

God save us! — Храны нас Бог!

God save the Queen! (part of the British National Anthem)

(*God*) *Bless you! — Благослови вас Бог!* (More often used as a reaction to a person sneezing. Cf.: *Будь здоров!*)

Success attend you! — Да сопутствует вам успех!

Peace be to his ashes. — Мир праху его.

God rest his soul. — Упокой, господи, душу его.

Swearing and threats *God damn (it)!*

Damn!

Confound the cat!

Blast the fool!

Woe be to you if... — Горе тебе, если... (archaic, very emotional)

Others *Manners be hanged! — Долой приличия!*

Far be it from me to regard you as... — Я далек от мысли считать вас...

Suffice it to say that... — Достаточно сказать, что...
(*The situation looks grim. Suffice it to say that we are 3 billion in debt.*)

Come what may... — Что бы ни случилось... (*Come what may, I won't leave you.*)

Be it rain or snow... (concessive meaning similar to Come what may)

If truth be known... — По правде говоря...

... if need be — ...если потребуется.

... as it were... — ...как бы...; ...как бы это сказать...
(*Your ideas are, as it were, very expensive.*)

It is important to bear in mind the difference between the formulaic subjunctive of the type *God save/bless...* and imperative sentences (*Jim, come here!*). In the latter case, the noun is an address (note the comma!), while in the former it is the subject. (Cf.: *Да хранит тебя Бог!*)

2. Occasionally, depending on register (colloquial vs. formal) or dialect (BrE vs. AmE), the present subjunctive may be used in *that*-clauses to express desirability ("mandative" subjunctive):

I suggest that we go home.

I demand that the decision be adopted.

In colloquial AmE desirability is generally expressed by present subjunctive forms:

I insist that Andy stay at home,

while in BrE the present subjunctive is characteristic of official language:

I move that the treaty be ratified.

The modal verb *should* + infinitive is used in *that*-clauses in similar circumstances to express demand, recommendation, suggestion:

I suggest/propose/move/require/insist/demand, etc. that the decision should be adopted. (object clauses)

It is necessary/obligatory/important/required/requested/imperative/essential/vital/urgent, etc. that we/he should follow the rules. (subject clauses)

My suggestion/proposal/idea/intention/plan, etc. is that the ceremony should begin at midday. (predicative clauses)

We agreed with his suggestion/idea, etc. that the argument should be put an end to. (attributive clauses)

As was said, this structure is sometimes regarded as an analytical form of the subjunctive mood.

3. A common way of expressing purpose is with the help of the infinitive, but when the two actions have different subjects, clauses of purpose are used introduced by *so that*, *so*, *that* (rare), *in order that*. The analytical forms employ the modal auxiliaries *may/might, can/could, should*:

She opened the door so that we might/could see the stairs.

Should is more common with the verb in the negative form:

I opened my umbrella so that she shouldn't get wet.

The conjunction *lest* (чтобы не) is characteristic of bookish style:

I opened my umbrella lest she should get wet.

The use of the present subjunctive after *lest* is extremely rare:

He turned away lest she see his tears.

Lest followed by an analytical form with *should* is used to express both purpose and fear; in the former case *lest* introduces an adverbial clause of purpose, in the latter, an object clause:

He was terrified lest his whereabouts should be discovered.

In similar circumstances, AmE gives preference to the present subjunctive.

4. Synthetic forms of the present subjunctive are used in some clauses of concession:

Whatever be your reasons...

Be you God Almighty...

Occasional use of the present subjunctive form of the verb after the conjunctions *ever* and *whether* is regarded archaic:

Everyone has the right to live, whether he be rich or poor.

In official style and in several set colloquial expressions the verb that follows these conjunctions may be omitted:

Whatever his reasons, I won't believe him.

Whatever the weather, we'll have to get there.

However difficult, the work must be done.

Everyone has the right to live, whether rich or poor.

When the clause of concession denotes a real fact, the indicative mood is used: *Though/although you are tired, you have to go on.*

No matter how tired you are, you have to go on.

However tired you are, you have to go on.

Stupid as he is, I hope he will understand me.

8.6.2. Uses of the Past Subjunctive

1. Synthetic forms of the past subjunctive are used in clauses of condition to express unreal condition (see 15.2.5.3. Adverbial Clauses of Condition):

I'd feel safer if I owned this house.

2. They can also be used in clauses of comparison and predicative clauses to express unreal comparison:

I feel as if I were young again.

Tom behaves as if he were drunk.

Unreal comparison is expressed in a variety of subordinate clauses introduced by *as if*, *as though*. In adverbial clauses of comparison or manner, forms are used that are identical to the simple past or past progressive to denote comparison with simultaneous actions/states:

He keeps smiling as if he knew some secret.

Rules of the sequence of tenses are not observed:

He kept smiling as if he knew some secret.

The verb *be*, used independently or as part of the past continuous tense form, is often *were* for all persons:

He looked around as though he were afraid of something.

She lay still as if she were sleeping.

Yet in contemporary English *was* for singular is becoming increasingly popular:

He is eating greedily as if he was terribly hungry.

It should be understood that both *was* and *were* express unreality rather than a reference to the past:

He is eating greedily as if he was/were terribly hungry.

Therefore the "genuine" past subjunctive is only recognizable in the following two cases: 1) when *were* is used with the subject in the singular; 2) when *was/were* is used in a subordinate clause, while the verb in the main clause is in the present tense.

To denote priority, analytical forms are used that are identical to the past perfect or the past perfect progressive indicative:

He was eating greedily as if he hadn't seen food for weeks.

She was breathless as though she had been running.

However, when the verb in the main clause is in the present tense, it becomes obvious that the past perfect forms have the meaning of both priority and unreality (otherwise the present perfect would be sufficient):

He behaves as if nothing had happened.

If comparison refers to the future, the auxiliary *would* is used:

She gave me an angry look as if she would attack me that very moment.

The above examples illustrate the use of the subjunctive mood to express unreal comparison, i. e. a comparison with an imaginary situation:

He walked slowly as if he were carrying a heavy load. (He was not carrying a heavy load.)

When no meaning of unreality is implied, indicative forms are quite appropriate in the subordinate clause:

She continues reading as if she doesn't hear the noise. (She really doesn't hear the noise.)

Unreal comparison can also be expressed in predicative clauses following the verbs *feel, look, sound, etc.*:

I feel as if I were young again.

She looked as though something terrible had happened.

Jack sounded as if he were going to break down.

Similar meaning is rendered by subject clauses introduced by *it + be, seem, look, feel, etc.*:

It was as if the world were going to pieces.

It seemed as though he had done something wrong.

It looks/feels as if it were winter now.

3. The past subjunctive in object clauses (especially after *wish*) serves to express unreal wish:

I wish I were a bird!

The past synthetic and analytical subjunctives are used in object clauses after *wish* or *would rather*:

I wish I were/was you. (simultaneous action)

I wish she had not done it. (priority)

I wish you would/could/might stay a little longer. (future)

The first and second examples express regret rather than genuine wish and are generally translated *Как жаль, что...*. English negative forms correspond to Russian affirmative ones:

She wished she hadn't said it. — Она пожалела, что сказала это.

The subjunctive mood used after *would rather* generally denotes unreal wish referring to the moment of speech:

I'd (much) rather you didn't comment on my words.

Much rather tends to express irritation and may sound rude.

In isolated clauses of condition introduced by *If only* both synthetic and analytical forms of the subjunctive can refer to the unreal present, past, or future:

If only she were here!

If only we hadn't lost the game!

If only it would stop raining!

These structures are close to *I wish* sentences in that the meaning of desirability is generally transformed into regret (except when the

wish refers to the future). They are more emotional than *I wish* sentences, and are more common in oral speech.

In attributive clauses after *It's (high/about) time* the past subjunctive is used:

It's about time we went.

This expression is believed to be somewhat less straightforward than the one with the structures *should + infinitive* or *for + infinitive* (*It's time for us to go/It is time that we should go*) and may be used for politeness' sake.

It is worth mentioning that in all these cases the past subjunctive describes an unreal situation which is imagined to occur simultaneously with the situation denoted by the main clause of a complex sentence. In order to refer to a prior or future imaginary situations analytical forms of the subjunctive are used.

9. MODAL VERBS

Modal verbs (the modals) are a small set of verbs which behave syntactically as a special group of auxiliary verbs even though, unlike the primary auxiliaries *be*, *have* and *do*, they have some degree of lexical meaning. Therefore, they are sometimes called "secondary" or "modal" auxiliaries.

The modals include ten verbs — *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *ought* which are modal in all their uses. The verbs *need* and *dare* can be used in two ways — as modal auxiliary verbs and as ordinary (notional) verbs functioning like main verbs. Some linguists also include *used to* and *had better* in the modals.

9.1. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF MODAL VERBS

The modal verbs can be semantically characterized by taking into account two important factors: a) their lexical meaning and b) their capacity to indicate "a source" of modality.

A. According to their lexical meaning the modals may be divided into two major classes: those expressing possibility and those expressing necessity. The former are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*. Some other expressions are often used to say that there is nothing to prevent the described situation from taking place, or that the subject of the sentence has the ability or is allowed to perform the action denoted by the infinitive: *be able to*, *be capable of*, *be allowed to*, *be permitted to*, etc.

The modals expressing necessity are *must*, *ought*, *shall*, *should*, *need*. In addition to the modal verbs there are some other expressions denoting necessity in English: *have to*, *have got to*, *be to*, *be bound to*, *be obliged to* of which the first three should be accorded special attention.

B. According to their relation to the subject of the sentence the modal verbs can be divided into subject-oriented and speaker-oriented

modals. Subject-oriented or internal modals are *can*, *could*, *need*, *will*, *would* (and the modal expression *have / have got + to-infinitive*). These verbs indicate that it is the subject of the sentence that is the source of the possibility (capacity, ability, intention) or the necessity (obligation, requirement) to perform the action denoted by the infinitive. In declarative sentences with the subject-oriented modals the meaning of the negative particle *not* goes with the modal, not with the main verb (infinitive): *He can't (doesn't have to) do that* means that it is not possible (necessary) for him to do that, and not that it is possible (necessary) for him not to do that.

Speaker-oriented or external modals are *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *ought* (and the structure *be + to-infinitive*). These verbs show that it is the speaker who is the source of possibility (permission) or necessity (order, command, strong advice). In other words, the modality is, in a sense, "imposed" on the subject of a sentence from the outside. The meaning of the negative particle *not* is usually combined with the meaning of the infinitive, not with the modal verb: *He must not do that* means that it is necessary for him not to do it rather than it is not necessary for him to do it.

9.2. FORMAL CHARACTERISTICS OF MODAL VERBS

The modals have different forms. All the modal verbs have stressed pronunciations. When they are stressed, the modals are said to be used in their basic (strong) forms: *can* [kæn], *could* [kud], *may* [meɪ], *might* [maɪt], *must* [mʌst], *will* [wil], *would* [wud], *shall* [ʃæl], *should* [ʃud], *ought* [ɔ:t].

Some of the modals also have unstressed pronunciations [weak forms]: *can* [kən] or [kn], *could* [kəd], *may* occasionally [mə] or [mɪ], *must* [məst], [məs], [mst] or occasionally [ms], *will* [wəl], [əl], or normally [l], *would* [wəd], [əd], or [d], *shall* [ʃəl], [ʃl], [ʃə], [ʃ]⁹, *should* [ʃəd], [ʃd], and before voiced consonants [ʃt].

Besides their basic non-negative forms, the modals are often used in their contracted negative forms: *can't* [ka:nt] in BrE or [kænt] in AmE, *couldn't* [kudnt], *mayn't* [meint], *mightn't* [maɪtn], *mustn't* [mʌsn̩t], *wouldn't* [wudnt], *shouldn't* [ʃudnt] or [ʃədn̩t], *oughtn't* [ɔ:tnt] or sometimes [ɔ:tn] when not final; the contracted negative forms of the verbs *will* and *shall* are *won't* [wount] and *shan't* [ʃa:nt].¹⁵

¹⁴ The forms [ʃə] and [ʃ] are chiefly used before the words *we* and *be*.

¹⁵ The form *mayn't* is not used in AmE and is rare in BrE; *shan't* is rare in AmE, though it is quite common in BrE.

9.3. SYNTACTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF MODAL VERBS

The modals have several important syntactic features in common with the primary auxiliary verbs *be*, *do* and *have*:

- a) with the exception of *ought*, all the modals are followed by the bare infinitive (without *to*) of the notional verb:

You must be patient.

Max should have answered this question.

But you ought to be patient.

- b) in negative sentences the particle *not* is placed immediately after them:

She cannot meet him tomorrow. (Cf.: She didn't meet him yesterday.)

- c) in interrogative sentences they precede the subject of the sentence:

Can you give it to him?

What can we do about it?

- d) in tag-questions they are placed in the tag:

They cannot sing, can they?

- e) the modals can stand alone in a sentence only when they are used as pro-forms for the whole verb-phrase:

Can you see that? — No, nobody can.

The modals have some characteristics distinguishing them from both primary auxiliaries and notional verbs in English:

- a) they cannot take the endings *-s*, *-ing*, or *-ed*; they do not have infinitives or participles or passives;

b) they do not have tensed forms; although the verbs *could*, *might*, *would* and *should* are sometimes, on historical basis, said to be special past forms of the verbs *can*, *may*, *will* and *shall*, there are a number of reasons to believe that they are at present distinct verbs with their own meanings and uses;

- c) the modals cannot form imperative sentences;

d) they do not take *do* when emphasized; in emphatic sentences the modal verb is stressed;

- e) as a rule, in Standard English, two modals cannot be used within one simple sentence:

*They began to think to start working. vs. *They will may can do it.*

All the modals can be used in two ways. One use of the modals is to indicate that the subject of a sentence is probably/certainly doing,

has done / did, or will be doing something. The speaker is saying that a certain situation probably or certainly "exists" at some time in reality. The use of modals indicates only how certain the speaker is about what he or she is saying. The meaning of the sentence can be rendered into Russian with the help of the words like **вероятно**, **наверное**, **может быть**, **должно быть**, **возможно**, **по-видимому**, etc. Since the sentence as a whole expresses or describes what is, was or will probably (or certainly) be the case, this use of the modals can be called **descriptive**. It is associated with the notions of logical — conclusion, belief, opinion, certainty and probability:

He must be tired. — *Он, должно быть, устал.*

She must have seen him yesterday. — *Она, должно быть, видела его вчера.*

It may be dangerous. — *Может быть, это опасно.*

I might see you again. — *Я, может быть, вас еще увижу.*

That can't be Jack — he's in London. — *Вряд ли это Джек, он в Лондоне.*

The modal verbs are also used to indicate that the subject of the sentence (the "doer") intends to do something or that he is capable of doing something, or has no choice but to do something. The speaker indicates that it is possible or necessary for the subject to do something, or that the subject of the sentence is (not) free in his choice of action. The sentence expresses what someone is able or obliged to do and may include the meanings of obligation, order, recommendation, request, advice, promise, willingness, permission, ability, etc. Since what is ordered, recommended or promised is expected to take place (or to be "created") through some action performed by the subject of the sentence, this use of the modals can be called **creative**:

He can speak five languages. — *Он говорит (умеет говорить) на пяти языках.*

I couldn't pass the examination. — *Я не смог сдать экзамен.*

We must get up early tomorrow. — *Мы должны завтра встать рано.*

You may take it. — *Вы можете это взять.*

I think you should go. — *Я думаю, тебе надо идти.*

I will have my own way. — *Я все равно сделаю по-своему.*

In the following paragraphs each modal verb will be discussed separately and in more details. We will start with the discussion of the modals expressing possibility and then proceed to the modal verbs of necessity. Within each section the creative and descriptive uses of the modal verbs will be presented separately. Some expressions which have modal meanings when combined with *to-infinitive* will be also accounted for.

9.4. POSSIBILITY

If something is possible, there is usually nothing one can think of which may prevent it from happening. If the verbs *can* or *could* are used to say that it is possible to do something, then it is the subject of the sentence (or rather the doer of the action) that is thought to possess all the qualities necessary to do it. If we use *may* or *might* we want to emphasize that there is nothing in the current situation to stop the action from being implemented. The verbs *will* and *would* are chiefly related to the idea of intention or willingness of the subject of the sentence to do something.

9.4.1. CAN and COULD

These verbs express possibility; they are subject-oriented verbs and can be used both creatively and in some cases descriptively. The general meaning of these verbs — possibility — includes the notions of ability and permission. *Could* may sometimes act as a past form of the verb *can* but it is also used in sentences referring to events which are expected to happen either in the present or in the future.

9.4.1.1. Creative Contexts

In their creative use *can* and *could* indicate that some qualities of the subject of the sentence enable him to perform the action denoted by the infinitive, or that the person or the object mentioned in the sentence is capable of being acted upon. *Could* differs from *can* in that it may, in an appropriate context, express either a more tentative (present or future) possibility related to a conditional idea (often rendered in Russian as *может быть*) or something which was possible in the past. It must be emphasized that if something can (could) happen, there is only a possibility that it will happen, but it won't (or didn't) necessarily happen in reality.

1. These verbs are commonly used to indicate that it is possible for the subject of a sentence to perform an action, that is to show that the person or object denoted by the subject noun phrase is not prevented from displaying his/her or its qualities by doing something in the current circumstances:

They can achieve agreement tomorrow.

If they tried harder tomorrow they could achieve agreement at last.

Now we can/could manage our own time properly.

In the past we could manage our own time properly.

Reactions to stress can manifest themselves in many ways.

With the negative particle *not* these modals express impossibility:

I cannot / couldn't trust you now.

Gold can't be dissolved in water.

The expressions *can't / couldn't help + gerund* and *can't / couldn't but + infinitive* are used to indicate that something makes one do something, even if one is unwilling to do it:

He can't help feeling that he is being watched.

2. This meaning is often pragmatically associated with the ideas of an offer, suggestion, or request:

How can / could I help you?

I can / could do that for you.

We can / could try asking Jack for help.

We can try asking Jack for help or we can forget all about it.

You could at least tell me what you are going to do.

Can / could we talk about something else?

Can / could you help me with this letter?

Couldn't you come tomorrow, please?

The use of negative interrogative forms often shows that the speaker is irritably urging someone to do something:

Can't / couldn't you just keep quiet about it?

Can't you let him alone?

Can't you men do something?

Sometimes sentences with *can* may be interpreted as commands or predictions:

You can take these invoices up to the boss now.

Peter can expect to receive an important promotion tomorrow.

3. These modal verbs refer to some characteristic behaviour or quality of the subject:

Dogs can be dangerous.

She can be very unpleasant at times.

She could be very unpleasant when she was young.

4. *Can* and *could* are used with verbs of perception (*see, hear, taste, smell*, etc.) to refer to situations in which one is or was receiving information through one's senses:

Can you see that man over there?

He could see nowhere to park his car.

He could hear some strange sound coming from above.

5. *Can* and *could* are often used when the speaker wants to say that the (animate and agentive) subject of the sentence has the physical or mental ability to do something:

He can speak German.

I can/can't open the door.

He could swim very well when he was 20.

His throat hurt so much that he could not speak without pain.

It should be emphasized that these verbs express ability without implying that the action denoted by the infinitive is actually performed. If you say *He can certainly do it*, it may mean at least two things: either you draw the conclusion that "he" can do it because he did it at least once in the past or you just strongly believe that he will do it if he wants to. It does not mean that the subject of the sentence will certainly do it in reality. Likewise, the sentence *Jack could do it* does not mean that Jack did it successfully or that he even tried to do it. What the sentence implies is either that Jack possesses the ability to do something in the near future or that he was capable of doing something in the past, but in either case there is no reference to an actual performance of the action.

It is important to note that an actual performance is not relevant if the subject of a sentence in fact does what he is able to do any time he wants to. The sentence *Helen could play the piano when she was 15* expresses general ability: it means that when Helen was 15, she actually played the piano any time she wanted to.

6. The expression *be able + to-infinitive* is also used to describe general ability in the present (less common), or in the past:

He is able to speak French.

He was able to speak French fluently when he was 20.

To say that someone will have the ability to do something in the future only *be able to* (not *can* or *could*) is used. As a rule, future ability is seen as dependent on some other event:

When he finishes his courses, he will be able to speak French fluently.

One day people will be able to visit Mars.

Be able to may be also used to describe a particular ability, i.e. the ability to perform some specific action in particular circumstances:

He is/will be able to fix your car.

It is important to note that *be able to*, when used to indicate a particular ability in the past, implies that the subject of the sentence actually performs the action. *Could* is not used to express the ability to do something on one occasion in the past, nor is it used to imply that the ability was, in fact, realized. It means that you cannot use *could* instead of *was able to* in the sentence *I was able to pass my exam yesterday* (particular ability) but you are free to use either *could*

or was able to in *He could / was able to speak German when he was 9* (general ability). In negative sentences both *couldn't* and *wasn't able to* may be used for lack of general or particular ability:

Sorry, I couldn't / wasn't able to come yesterday.

He could scare Johnny if he felt like it, but he couldn't scare me.

7. It is *could* with the perfect infinitive that indicates that something was possible in the past but didn't occur:

He could have visited her last week but he fell ill.

You could have won that time (but you didn't).

You could have bought this ring for her (but you didn't).

8. *Can* and *could* may also indicate that the speaker is asking for permission (if he or she is using an interrogative sentence):

Can / could I take this book?

Can / could I speak to the manager, please?

Can / could Jack speak to you for a moment?

Can is used to give (or report) permission (if the speaker is using a declarative sentence):

You can smoke here.

Anyone can park here.

John can come whenever he likes.

She says we can eat the sandwiches.

It must be noted that only *can* (not *could*) is used to give or refuse permission:

*Could I use your car? — Yes, of course, you can (*could).*

I'm afraid, you can't stay here for a week.

Besides asking for permission *could* may be used to report:

a) permission in reported speech:

His mother said he could stay for another hour,

Helen said that you could smoke here;

b) conditional permission which would (not) be given but was not in fact asked for:

He could stay if he asked,

He could have stayed if he had asked;

c) general permission (i. e. permission to do something at any time) in the past:

Last year John could come here whenever he liked,

She said that John could come here whenever he liked.

(Cf.: *Last night he was allowed to (*could) watch TV for two hours.*)

9.4.1.2. Descriptive Contexts

When the verb *could* is used descriptively it serves as indication that even though the speaker is not quite certain that what he/she is saying is true, he/she assumes it to be very likely. In negative and interrogative sentences we use the modals *can* and *could* to say that we can hardly believe that something is the case:

Note that *can* is used descriptively only in negative or interrogative sentences:

He cannot know what the real situation is. — *Едва ли он знает, какова ситуация на самом деле.*

She can't have passed her exam. — *Вряд ли она сдала экзамен.*
Can he be still reading this book? — *Неужели он все еще читает эту книгу?*

Can it be John? — *Может быть, это Джон? (или Неужели это Джон?)*

It can't be true. — *Не может быть, что это правда.*

Could may be used descriptively in all types of sentences:

You could be right. — *Может быть, ты (и) прав.*

It could rain tomorrow. — *Завтра, может быть, будет дождь.*

Could she have sent the letter? — *Неужели она отправила письмо?*

Could it be you? — *Неужели это ты?*

It couldn't possibly be his car. — *Вряд ли это его машина.*

It couldn't possibly have been his car. — *Вряд ли это была его машина.*

To express disbelief about a negative statement the verb *fail* or verbs with negative prefixes (*misunderstand*, *mishear*, *misinform*, etc.) can be used:

She can't / couldn't have failed to get in touch with them. — *Не может быть, чтобы ей не удалось с ними связаться.*

Peter couldn't have misinterpreted my words. — *Не может быть, чтобы Питер неправильно понял мои слова.*

The same meaning may be also expressed when negative statements are preceded by *it cannot/couldn't be that*...:

It can't / couldn't be that she didn't get in touch with them.

9.4.2. MAY and MIGHT

These verbs, in contrast to *can* and *could*, are speaker-oriented modals, expressing external possibility. Using the modals *may* or *might* the speaker means that there is a chance that something will

happen or is happening, that it is possible for something to be done or that it is possible that something will be done. It is the speaker who decides whether something is possible or not without referring to any qualities or characteristics of the subject of the sentence.

Both *may* and *might* can be used in creative or descriptive contexts. Cf.:

Well, we may/might have some lunch. (= it is possible for us to have lunch)

We may/might be wrong. (= it is possible that we are wrong)

Might suggests a tentative, conditional possibility or a lower probability and is used more often than *may*.

9.4.2.1. Creative Contexts

In creative contexts *may* and *might* are used to say that there is a chance for somebody to do something or for something to be done.

1. In contrast to *can* and *could* the verbs *may* and *might* indicate that there is nothing in the current circumstances to stop anybody from doing something. The sentence *These books may be taken from the library* means that the speaker believes there is nothing to prevent anybody from taking the books from the library. The sentence *These books can be taken from the library* implies that the books are available in the library:

You can't escape the possibility that interest rates may go even higher.

The market may go lower but the time to buy is now.

Good water may be obtained from a well near the landing place.

2. This general meaning enables one to use *may* to give or ask permission:

She may work in my room. She won't disturb me.

May I help myself to the wine?

May I have some coffee?

I'll take it, may I?

I'll close the door, if I may?

Might can be used only to ask (not to give) permission:

Might I speak to your boss?

I wonder if I might ask you for a favour?

Such sentences are rather formal and are not very common (especially those with *might*).

Negative creative sentences with *may not* sometimes express prohibition; they are used to refuse permission or to forbid someone to do something:

Students may not keep library books more than a fortnight.

Neither *may* nor *might* is normally used to report permission. *Can* or *could* are used instead, though *might* in indirect speech sometimes conveys the idea of permission being given or asked for in the past:

He said Mary might stay there for a week.

Helen asked if she might come to the party.

3. By using the verbs *may* or *might* one can also ask a polite question or make an offer, or an introductory remark:

May I have your name, please?

Might I offer you a drink?

It may be added that...

It may be mentioned in passing that...

4. *Might* and sometimes *may* are used informally with (*just*) as well to suggest either that one situation is more preferable than another, or that both situations are equally unpleasant:

If I gotta wait for him, I might as well wait for you too, mightn't I?

If this is true, we might just as well regard ourselves as colonies of viruses.

5. Depending upon the context, the verb *might* can also be used to give **advice**, or to make a suggestion, a tentative or sarcastic request, or to reproach somebody if she or he is reluctant to do something:

You might go and see what's going on there.

I think you might explain that remark.

You might be more polite to her.

You might look where you are going..

Might with the perfect infinitive can also refer to some event in the past which was possible but didn't in fact happen:

You might have spoken to her before she left.

6. Sentences with *may* can express hopes and wishes:

May he justify our hopes.

May God be with you.

Long may she live.

Note the word order in these sentences (see also 8.6. Meaning and Use of the Subjunctive Mood).

7. Both *may* and *might* can be used in subordinate clauses of purpose introduced by *so that* or *in order that*:

They struggle to cure diseases so that people may live longer.

9.4.2.2. Descriptive Contexts

The verbs *may* and *might* are much more common in descriptive sentences expressing the possibility that something is or will be happening. They show that the speaker thinks that something is likely to happen in the future or that it seems to be happening at the moment of speaking. The speaker is not certain that what he is speaking about is actually taking place; he or she is only considering, entertaining or suggesting a possibility that something is or will be happening:

Some sort of sense about nuclear armament might one day arise.

She might even come out of it better than he did.

She may be using her maiden name now.

He may be the right man.

Bill may not be at home.

Margaret said Nancy mightn't know which way to turn.

This may or may not happen.

He might not need them.

Note that the negative sentences *He may/might not refuse to come tomorrow* and *He couldn't refuse to come tomorrow* have quite different meanings: the former means that it is possible that he will not refuse to come (= *Может быть, он не откажется*), while the latter implies that it is not possible that he will refuse to do it (= *Вряд ли он откажется/отказался бы*).

With perfect infinitives *may* or *might* express the speaker's opinion about the possibility that something actually occurred in the past. The sentence *They might have seen us* means that though the speaker is not quite sure that "they" saw "us", he still believes that it is likely that they did:

Jim might have handed the material over to Mr Smith.

Mrs Palgrave seemed not only far away; she might never have existed.

The jubilation in the city may have led him to overestimate his popular support in the area.

May and sometimes *might* can be used in concessive constructions to refer to a situation which can be only reluctantly admitted or is just unimportant in view of what the speaker is saying:

Ingenious though these techniques may be, they hardly can be considered practical.

Stupid as he might be, I hope he will understand me.

They may be seven thousand miles away but they know what's going on here.

9.4.3. WILL AND WOULD

Like all subject-oriented modals these verbs commonly express internal modality; they indicate that the subject of the sentence intends or is willing to perform the action denoted by the infinitive or that the characteristics of the subject are such that an actual performance of the action can be taken almost for granted.

9.4.3.1. Creative Contexts

The verbs *will* and *would* are often used in creative contexts.

1. One use of *will* in creative contexts is to make predictions about the future. In this case *will* can be used with all the personal pronouns (*I, we, you, he, she, they, it*), while *shall* is sometimes used only with *I* and *we* (for more detail about *shall*, see below). In this use the verbs *will* and *shall* are usually thought of as auxiliary verbs of the future tense forms (see 6.3. Future Tenses):

Follow the advice we give in this book and you will attain all your health and fitness goals.

He'll be on holiday next week.

It will be lovely to see you next week.

When Achilles reaches the point from which the tortoise starts, the tortoise will have advanced to a farther point.

We shall celebrate our fiftieth wedding anniversary next month.

In many textbooks the short (contracted) form '*'ll*' is treated as an ambiguous form which can be replaced either by *will* or by *shall*. It should be noticed, however, that since the sound [ʃ] never disappears, the form '*'ll*' can only be the contracted form of the verb *will*. If '*'ll*' follows the first person pronouns *I* and *we*, only *will* can be viewed as its alternative. In the case of *I will* (*We will*) the sentence fairly often refers to one's willingness or decision to do something rather than to "pure" future events. If the context supports the idea of intention, promise, or willingness, the speaker uses the full verb *will*, rather than its contracted form '*'ll*'. The meaning of the sentence *I'll be right back* is more likely to express the idea of a mere future. In negative sentences the form *won't* rather than *'ll not* is commonly used.

Questioning your own intentions is unusual; hence, the form *Will I...?* is sometimes used with infinitives, active or passive, denoting future actions which do not depend on the speaker. In the following dialogue the doctor (*I*) and his terminally ill patient (*he*) are discussing the possibility of an assisted suicide. The use of *will* refers to what is going to happen to the patient rather than to what the patient intends to do:

And he said, "I won't have any pain?"

I said, "No."

He said, "Will I be struggling? Will it be hard for my wife?"

And I said, "No, none of that."

He said, "I will die."

And I said, "Yes."

The structure *Shall I + active infinitive...?* in most cases is interpreted as expressing the speaker's wish to know whether the person he is talking to would mind if he (the speaker) did something. Usually, it implies that the speaker is prepared to do what he is talking about and is expecting approval from the addressee:

Shall I tell her that you're nurturing a secret passion?

Since one can never be quite sure about what precisely is going to happen in the future, the notion of futurity in general carries heavy implications. Referring to future events ("pure" future) is only one of many uses of the verb *will*.

2. *Will* may be used with pronouns of all persons to indicate the subject's willingness to do something. Usually *will* is not contracted in these cases. A declarative sentence with the first person subject shows that the speaker (= the subject of the sentence) has just made a decision or promise to do something:

I will certainly help her.

I will stop smoking.

Ring him — or I will, if you like.

It might sound impolite to make direct statements about whether the person you are taking to is willing to do something or not. So in some cases the structure *you will/would* expressing willingness may be found in sentences like:

Try as you will/would, you won't be able to do it.

Say what you will, Jack is a complete failure.

Do as you will.

By using *will* in statements with the second person subject (*you*) the speaker may give a straightforward instruction or an order:

You will start work tomorrow at 6.

You will give it to me.

Will you sit still!

In sentences with the third person subject *will* and *would* are commonly used to refer to someone's willingness or unwillingness to do something:

He will readily accept that.

They wouldn't keep a dog in their house.

Negative statements with *won't* or *wouldn't* may indicate refusal:

*She won't do that for us.
I won't tell you anything.
He wouldn't let you go.*

Sentences with *will* can be sometimes interpreted as promises or threats by the speaker:

*They will pay for that.
You won't get away with that.*

In interrogative sentences with the second or third person subject *will* may refer to what someone intends to do:

*Where will they go?
Will you be coming later?*

3. *Will* and *won't* in questions with the second person subject may be used to make polite requests for action:

*Will you have some more?
Won't you come in?
Will you go and see him now?*

To make requests even more polite or tentative the verb *would* or its negative form *wouldn't* is used:

*Oh! Wouldn't you have some? There's another bottle.
Oh! Before you sit down, would you be an absolute dear and do something for me?*

4. Both *will* (for present time) and *would* (for past time) can be used in sentences referring to habitual or characteristic behaviour of people or to inherent qualities of things:

*You will keep making this silly mistake.
Boys will be boys.
He would borrow my things without asking.
Some men would do more for a dog than they would do for a wife.
This car will do 100 m.p.h.
The room will seat about 50.*

Note that *would* in this case is used only for repeated actions (not for states) in the past. Negative statements with inanimate subjects imply that despite all our efforts we did not succeed in making the objects do what we want:

*The car won't/wouldn't start.
The window won't/wouldn't open.*

5. *Will* and *would* may be used in the subordinate clause of a conditional sentence. In these cases the *if*-clause refers either to the subject's willingness and expresses a polite request, or to the habitual behaviour of the subject of the clause:

If he will be kind enough to fill this form, I'll have his baggage brought in.

Give me this book, if you would.

If you will get drunk every night, she will divorce you.

Will is also used when the *if*-clause, in fact, describes a result of the action of the main clause, i. e. something which will follow if the action is performed:

If it will make me happier. I'll give up smoking. (Cf.: If I give up smoking, it will make me happier.)

(For details of the use of *will* and *would* in the main clause of a conditional sentence see 15.2.5.3. Adverbial Clauses of Condition).

6. *Would* (in subordinate clauses) expresses the idea of future in the past, i. e. it shows that an action referred to by the infinitive is in the future with respect to the situation the speaker is talking about:

They were all aware that it would allow the USA to gain an unbeatable advantage.

In reported speech after a past verb in the main clause *would* is mostly used instead of *will* and *shall*:

I said I would (or should) be seeing Jack come the following week.

He said he would be seeing Jack the following week.

7. *Would* can also be used in place of the simple present or future tense to make the statement sound more tentative, more polite or less definite (Russian often uses the past tense + *был*):

That would be more reasonable.

I would think he will sign the contract.

You are rarely able to do it as often as you would like.

Jim would be the one to talk to her.

The food here comprises a collection of cold soups you would never find in a Japanese restaurant.

8. *Would (wouldn't)* is used after *if only* and *I wish* in sentences expressing the speaker's willingness or insistence that something should (or should not) happen:

If only you wouldn't keep making this silly mistake!

I wish you would come tomorrow.

The last sentence is much more emphatic than *Will you come tomorrow?* and implies that the speaker is aware that the realization of his wish is very unlikely. With *would* + perfect infinitive the speaker expresses his regret that something didn't happen:

If only they'd have got him!

Note also the forms *would rather* and *would sooner* which are used to express preference:

I would rather it hadn't been him.

He would rather live in his native country than go elsewhere.

Note that the phrase *would like* is followed by an infinitive, not a gerund:

Would you like to be involved?

I would like to see him.

I would like to have seen him (or *I'd have liked to have seen him*).

The last sentence implies that the speaker did not see "him".

9. Would is also used in formal expressions like:

Would that it were not so! — Если бы это было не так!

Would that we had seen him before he went to London.

9.4.3.2. Descriptive Contexts

In descriptive use the verbs *will* and *would* express the speaker's belief or conjecture as to what might be the case. Based only on common sense, the speaker is providing his opinion about something:

You will already be familiar with how the computer works.

Would that be what you're looking for?

He wouldn't be sorry, I suppose.

You wouldn't know my friend.

It is, as you will see, an essential branch of each of our studies.

Will or *would* with the perfect infinitive may be used to indicate that what the speaker is guessing about the past might be true:

I met a charming girl yesterday. — That will/would have been my sister.

That will/would have been in the seventies.

9.5. NECESSITY

If it is necessary for someone to do something or for something to happen, there is usually some important reason for it: either it is needed by someone in order to achieve a particular aim or it is the only way out of some particular situation. The verb *must* shows that the speaker believes it is necessary or important for someone to do something or that something should be done. *Must* is contrasted with the structures *have + to-infinitive* and *be + to-infinitive*. The verbs

shall, should and *ought* indicate the speaker's wish or belief that the most appropriate thing to do at the moment is for the subject of the sentence to perform the action denoted by the infinitive. The verb *need* refers to actions beneficial to the subject of the sentence.

9.5.1. MUST

The verb *must* is a speaker-oriented modal expressing external necessity.

9.5.1.1. Creative Contexts

Must is used in creative contexts to indicate that in the speaker's opinion it is someone's obligation or duty to do something.

1. The speaker is expressing his authority by directly imposing an obligation on someone or giving them orders:

You must let me out of here at once.

Six of your men must hold the tunnel at all costs.

2. *Must* is also used to introduce a general rule or pattern of behaviour which is considered by the speaker as the only possible and rightful one in the current situation:

In business you must be clever.

You must never diet so quickly that you lose the muscle tissue that gives your body its shape.

You must work out what suits you best.

The lesson is that you must always keep your defenses strong so that you are prepared for any situation.

3. The speaker is giving his or her firm opinion as to what exactly will be the right thing to do. This may be regarded as an instruction, or pressing advice, or a decision on the speaker's part:

Millions of people must think that the Emperor's grandson is utterly happy.

This is a problem any semantic theory must face.

But this was all nonsense. One must think of something better than this.

This fact must not be overlooked for it is relevant to a proper understanding of his later poems.

The speaker may express his or her own sense of inner compulsion by saying *I must*:

If you don't go, I'm afraid I must.

Lady, I must see your face.

4. Negative sentences with the verb *must* are interpreted as "it is necessary for someone not to do something", i. e. *must not* may express prohibition or a strong demand not to do something:

They must not stand aside except on your personal order.

Odysseus binds himself to the mast with orders that he must not be released.

Interrogative sentences show that the speaker is reluctant to do something or let something happen:

Must you interrupt?

Must they come?

Must I show him all the drawings?

5. With the perfect infinitive the verb *must* may sometimes be used to indicate that in order for something to happen it is necessary for some other thing to have happened first:

In order to get the job one must have completed a secretarial course.

Must is not changed when used in reported speech after a past reporting verb:

Jack said he must give a straight answer to the question.

9.5.1.2. Descriptive Contexts

In descriptive contexts *must* indicates that the speaker believes that what he is saying is certainly true:

How come you're the friend of Judge's boy? You must be telling another lie!

What a bloody fool must I look!

I'm destitute. Without your help I must starve.

With *must + perfect infinitive* the speaker is making an assumption about the past:

*I think she must have been feeling much the same as I was...
He may have suspected, he couldn't have been certain, and afterwards he must have been pretty sure he'd made a mistake.*

Must is not used in negative or interrogative descriptive sentences. *Can't* or *couldn't* is used instead:

*He can't be telling the truth (*He mustn't be telling the truth).
She couldn't have been feeling much the same as I was. (*She mustn't have been feeling...)*

9.5.2. HAVE + TO-INFITIVE

Must as a speaker-oriented modal is contrasted with the structures *have + to-infinitive* and *have got + to-infinitive* expressing internal necessity, i. e. the subject of a sentence is fully aware that for some reason he has no choice but to do something.

1. If one has to do something, one feels that it is their duty, responsibility or obligation to do it:

He has to be with his ailing father.

If inflation and house prices are taken into account, even £50,000 is hardly a fortune for a man who has to find a job and keep a family.

I think we have got to start again and go back to first principles.

2. There may be a sense of inevitability in the actions which have to be carried out. One is forced to do something in order to get out of a worrying situation or to achieve some goal:

Having lost the stars it's made, Broadway now has to look elsewhere for bankable names.

The modern artist — finally severed from any meaningful, coherent tradition — has to invent himself from scratch.

Any ambitions we have have got to be within the terms of these realities.

3. Telling someone what they have to do may be sometimes considered as giving them instructions or advice:

You have to go to bed at 11 p.m.

But you can't be generous, you have to go for the best person for the job.

4. The negative forms *don't have to* and *haven't got to* indicate that someone is free to do or not to do something. If you don't have to do something, there are neither circumstances nor reason why you should do it. It is absence of obligation or necessity that is implied by the sentences containing the negative forms of *have + to-infinitive*:

He doesn't have to look after a family.

So the new film does not have to submit itself to comparison, in any case it stands up quite sturdily on its own.

This sad state of affairs does not have to continue.

She didn't have to fight the whole world to pursue her chosen career.

5. *Have + to-infinitive* can be also found in descriptive contexts. The speaker has solid grounds to believe that what he is saying is true:

Someone's calling. That has to be your mother.

9.5.3. BE + TO-INFITIVE

The structure *be + to-infinitive*, like the modal verb *must*, is used (in the present and past indefinite tense) to express external necessity, i. e. the necessity imposed on the subject of a sentence from the outside of the current situation. Sentences containing *be + to-infinitive* suggest that the necessity or obligation to do something is just a fact of life.

1. The speaker describes the way things stand at the moment and implies that there is no reason for ignoring them:

The independent contractor is one who has agreed to do a piece of work but is to be held free to choose his own method of doing it. Nobody knows what is to become of him.

This estimate is to be compared with the latest figures from the National Institute.

The transformation of brutalized warriors of the 10th century into the Christian knights of the 11th was to have a crucial effect upon Christianity's relationship with Islam.

2. *Be + to-infinitive* is also used to indicate that something is arranged, planned or agreed upon:

To day the General is to visit Gettysburg.

She is to be married next month.

We are to be there by ten.

3. *Be + to-infinitive* is often used in notices, regulations and instructions:

These tablets are to be kept out of the reach of children.

No one is to leave this building until five.

You are to do your homework before you watch TV.

4. In formal texts this structure can be used in introductory phrases like *It is to be noted/understood/expected that...; Attention is to be called to the fact that..., etc.*

5. The structure can be used in the past to refer to some planned or expected events which, in fact, did not happen. In this case the perfect infinitive is used:

Bad weather yesterday postponed the launch of the space shuttle Atlantis, which was to have sent a spacecraft to Jupiter.

6. In conditional sentences the subjunctive *were + to-infinitive* makes a condition sound less probable:

Even if she were to win each of the last four tournaments she still might not win the Challenge Cup.

9.5.4. SHALL

The verbs *shall*, *should* and *ought* are speaker-oriented modal verbs expressing external necessity. They are used to indicate that from the speaker's point of view a particular action is most appropriate in the current situation.

9.5.4.1. Creative Contexts

1. In creative sentences with the first person subject, *shall* may be sometimes used for pure future (prediction): the speaker is describing what he or she is going to do or what is going to happen to the speaker in the future:

The scientists can only wait and hope. Which is what I shall be doing for the next three months.

I shall argue later that this contradiction between mechanistic determinism and free will is a misunderstanding.

We shall not deal with this problem here.

2. *Shall* is used in sentences with the second and third person subject to show that the speaker is predicting something inevitable:

Time has no limit, neither top nor bottom, it has always been and shall be for evermore.

We may be assured that on the Judgement Day "no one shall be made to answer for what he knows nothing of".

This use of *shall* is now obsolete.

3. Since the verb *shall* implies a degree of inevitability about future events, this modal verb is often used in contexts of exhortation, orders, directions, instructions and commands, and is quite commonly found in formal and legalistic English:

The doctrine of political neutrality does not demand that the government shall avoid promoting unacceptable ideals.

They can declare that a certain day shall be a national holiday.

The writs, i. e. the King's commands that a person shall appear in one of the King's Courts in answer to a claim, are issued in his name.

A proposal which restricts liberty shall not be accepted unless supported by good reasons.

4. By using interrogative sentences *Shall I...?* the speaker is asking for someone's opinion, advice or suggestion as to what the speaker is going to do:

Shall I ring at 11 p.m.?

What shall I do for him?

9.5.4.2. Descriptive Contexts

In descriptive contexts the verb *shall* is primarily used to indicate that the speaker strongly believes that something will definitely happen. It does not carry additional implications of insistence or command. It is commonly used with a future time reference and is not found with the perfect infinitive:

If you send me this book, I shall always be grateful.

9.5.5. SHOULD and OUGHT

Should and *ought* are subject-oriented modal verbs which the speaker may use to express his or her opinion of what is the best thing to do at the moment or of what is worth doing in the circumstances.

9.5.5.1. Creative Contexts

1. In creative contexts *should* and *ought* indicate that someone's action, behaviour or attitude is reasonable, appropriate or morally right:

People want high quality service, and that's what money should be spent on.

At what stage in his or her career should a singer decide to quit the stage and concert platform?

The principles that the therapist and patient should adhere to are as follows.

There ought to be a right to protest in public.

We ought not to be surprised to find it missing.

The exercise of authority should make no difference to what its subjects ought to do, for it ought to direct them to do what they ought to do in any event.

Sentences with *should* or *ought* + perfect infinitive refer to some past action or event which, in fact, did not happen:

He was angry at his wife for sheltering in the hut when she should have been outside.

I think someone else should have done it because it is not our responsibility.

There is a very slight difference between these verbs: while *should* is quite appropriate when the speaker is expressing his or her own opinion, the verb *ought* is primarily used when the speaker is appealing to duties, laws and recommendations which have a more objective force.

2. It is only natural to use these verbs to give advice or to reproach someone for someone's action or attitude:

You should remember that adequate physical exercise is essential to good health.

You ought to be ashamed of yourself.

You shouldn't talk to her like that.

You shouldn't have talked to her like that.

Should is common in sentences expressing the speaker's advice in the "if I were you" situation:

(If I were you) I should have accepted this proposal.

Note that sentences with *should + hear, see, etc.* may sometimes mean "It is a pity that someone did not see, hear... something unusual". (Cf. Russian phrases *Ты бы видел*):

You should hear the way he talks to his father.

3. *Should* in interrogative sentences may be used to ask for advice, information, permission or someone's opinion about what you are going to do:

We want a computer program which, given a map and asked "how should I go from A to E?" will answer "A-C-D-E".

Should I not carry on as before but take his advice?

Shouldn't I send her a letter?

Who do you think I should send this letter to?

Sentences beginning with *Why should I?..* are usually considered as expressing the speaker's belief that there is no reason for him or her to do something:

Why should I tell him all that?

4. *Should* can be used in object clauses when the main clause contains nouns, verbs or adjectives expressing the idea of insistence, importance or necessity (see also 8.6. Meaning and Use of the Subjunctive Mood):

The child's welfare required that she should be adopted by the foster parents with whom she had lived for three years.

It is sometimes more important that the law should be certain than that it should be perfect.

In American English these *should*-structures are less common and the present subjunctive is used instead:

It is important that she be adopted by the foster parents.

This kind of sentence sounds rather formal and in a conversational style other ways of expressing the same idea may be found.

Should is also sometimes used in adverbial clauses of purpose after the conjunctions *so that, in order that, lest*, although purpose clauses without *should* are more usual:

The government issued a warning in order that people should be aware of the danger.

The government issued a warning in order that people are (or will be) aware of the danger.

9.5.5.2. Descriptive Contexts

1. The verbs *should* and *ought* in descriptive contexts indicate that the speaker is almost certain that something is happening or is very likely to happen:

The CBI called for Britain to enter the European exchange rate mechanism early next year when inflation should be falling.

Half the pleasure of a southern Chinese meal ought to be the rice; its humble utility need not obscure its worth.

What ought to be exciting about her is her unpredictability.

Sentences with *should* or *ought* + perfect infinitive refer to something which the speaker believes probably happened in the past:

There should have been a lot of students at the meeting yesterday.

2. *Should* is also used in conditional clauses or in clauses of reason after *in case* to show that the probability of the described course of action is rather low. In Russian we use the words *сдѣлать*, *если-маку* in these cases:

If he should win the competition, we'll send him to France.

Should he win, he'll get a good sum of money.

I'll bring the bag back in case someone should take it.

The use of *should* in subordinate *that*-clauses after some verbs and adjectives expressing surprise, confusion, pleasure, regret or disapproval is naturally related to a low probability of the described event which, nevertheless, occurred. Note that the present subjunctive is not possible in sentences of this kind:

It is strange that she should be here.

I'm horrified that she should say that sort of thing to Jim.

It seems inevitable that the development of the mechanical clock should have been primarily due to the Church.

Emotional *should* is usually found in object clauses after *I regret / wonder, am sorry / surprised / astonished / annoyed / content / satisfied, etc.,* in subject clauses (introduced by the formal *it*) after *It is wonderful / natural / strange / singular / inconceivable / absurd / terrible / odd / monstrous / queer that..., It is a pity / shame / wonder, etc. that... and It infuriated / outraged / surprised / startled / puzzled, etc. me that... It strikes me as odd / funny / unusual, etc. that...* It is also used in some set expressions:

*That it should come to this!
To think that it should come to this!
To think that it should have happened to me!
And who should it be but...*

9.5.6. NEED

The verb *need* can be used both as an ordinary notional verb and as a modal auxiliary verb. As an ordinary verb, *need* takes all the forms of a regular transitive verb and may be followed by a *to*-infinitive:

He needs 25 signatures.

They will need 400,000 tons of food aid.

Don't you need to be highly educated to understand it?

They may need to defend their rights against that authority.

The modal verb *need* is virtually restricted to non-assertive contexts, i. e. broad negative contexts and sometimes questions:

I don't think you need worry.

No one need remain ignorant of his duties and obligations.

Need there be this polarized division between tradition and modernity, this crude "battle of styles"?

Need (both ordinary and modal) is a subject-oriented verb expressing internal necessity: it is the qualities of the subject of a sentence that seem to make the situation necessary or unnecessary.

9.5.6.1. Creative Contexts

1. *Need* is used almost exclusively in creative contexts to indicate that it is important for the subject to do something because it may help achieve some other end. The negative forms *needn't* and *don't need* imply that there is no reason why the subject should do something:

*They all realized that they needn't bother to play hard any more.
Our company would like to end up with the situation where no
one need walk more than 300 yards to use their phone.*

The others don't need to know that.

2. There is a slight difference between *needn't* and *don't need* in that the former usually refers to immediate necessity, whereas the latter is more appropriate to describe some sort of general necessity:

I don't need to be more famous.

You don't need to be a super-athlete to succeed.

You needn't glare at me like that!

Needn't may be used by the speaker to give permission to someone while *don't need* shows that something is just unnecessary. A more

important distinction is between *needn't + perfect infinitive* and *didn't need*. The sentence *He needn't have bought the tickets* means that he wasted his time buying the tickets and the sentence *He didn't need to buy tickets* implies that since there was no necessity for him to buy tickets, he didn't do so:

Yes-no questions with *need* suggest that the speaker expects to get a negative answer: *Need I visit them tomorrow? — No, you needn't* (or *Yes, you must*).

9.5.6.2. Descriptive Contexts

When, however rarely, the modal verb *need* is used in descriptive (negative) contexts, it indicates that it was not really necessary, or will not be really necessary, for a particular thing to happen:

Two questions for the administration: Need the quarrel with Cuba ever have happened, and, can it be put into reverse?
Getting married is an awfully complicated business. Actually it needn't be...

10. VERBALS

According to their functions in a sentence verb forms can be classified into finite and non-finite forms. The finite forms perform the function of the predicate. The non-finite forms, sometimes called "verbals", can perform various functions in a sentence except that of the simple verbal predicate. The verbals include the infinitive, the gerund and the participle.

The term "gerund" is the most controversial of the three and should be clarified from the beginning. Some grammarians do not distinguish between the gerund and participle I and speak about the "-ing form". The Collins Cobuild English Grammar (London 1995) prefers the term "-ing noun" to "gerund". There are grammar books which use the term "gerund", but the functions of the gerund are not the same from one grammar to another. In this grammar we distinguish between the gerund and the present participle (participle I), which, in spite of having the same form, function differently in a sentence. The gerund is close to the noun (pronoun) and has several nominal features, while participle I is close to the adjective and has adjectival features. Therefore some of the functions of the gerund and participle I do not coincide. Thus, the gerund, unlike participle I, can function as subject and object. As to the functions of attribute and adverbial modifier, the gerund, when used in these functions, is always introduced by a preposition, while participle I is either introduced by a conjunction (adverbial modifier of comparison and concession) or by nothing at all (attribute, adverbial modifier of time, cause, manner). The only functions in which participle I and gerund can be confused are those of the predicative and complex object. When participle I is functioning as predicative, it is sometimes called a "predicative adjective" since in this case it can be modified by *very* or *too*, or it can be compared. Cf.:

Predicative: *His behaviour was annoying.* (participle adjective)

What she liked most was listening to the music.
(gerund)

Complex object: *We saw him leaving by the back door.* (participle I in a construction)

We saw his leaving by the back door as something strange. (gerund in a construction)

The difference between participle I and the gerund in these examples is clear. It should be noted that the present participle, unlike the gerund, can never be preceded by a possessive (compare *him* and *his* in the constructions).

The gerund is so close to the noun that it can be easily confused with it. Cf.:

The counting of votes will take a lot of time. (verbal noun)

Counting votes will take a lot of time. (gerund)

The verbals have some features in common. First, they indicate whether an action expressed by a verbal is simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, or precedes it. To denote precedence we use perfect forms of the verbals:

I would like to have seen it.

Secondly, all the verbals can be used:

- a) singly: *Annoyed, she went out of the room* (single participle II);
- b) in a phrase: *She spent whole days reading books* (participle I in a phrase);
- c) in a predicative construction: *She noticed him look back* (infinitive construction).

The verbals used in a construction are in predicate relation to a noun or a pronoun, that is in relation similar to that between the subject and the predicate.

10.1. THE INFINITIVE

10.1.1. Forms of the Infinitive

In Modern English we find the following infinitive forms:

- a) the simple (indefinite) infinitive: *(to) write;*
- b) the progressive (continuous) infinitive: *(to) be writing;*
- c) the perfect infinitive: *(to) have written;*
- d) the perfect progressive infinitive: *(to) have been writing;*
- e) the simple (indefinite) infinitive passive: *(to) be written;*
- f) the perfect infinitive passive: *(to) have been written;*
- g) the progressive infinitive passive: *(to) be being written.*

The simple infinitive (*to write*) and the simple infinitive passive (*to be written*) express an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb. It can refer to the present, past or future:

He is sure to know that.

He was too tired to speak.

*He will be too tired to speak tomorrow.
He was to be found nowhere.*

The progressive infinitive (*to be writing*) shows that the action is in progress; it is viewed as incomplete at a certain time-point:

He appeared to be reading.

Note that there are some verbs which are not normally used in the progressive forms (see 6. Tense and Aspect); they do not have the progressive infinitive form either. Instead, the simple infinitive is used. Cf.:

He appeared to be watching us.

He appeared to see what we were doing.

The perfect infinitive (*to have written*) and the perfect infinitive passive (*to have been written*) describe an action that precedes the action expressed by the finite verb. Cf.:

He was only too happy to speak to her.

He was happy to have spoken to her.

The perfect infinitive is widely used with modal verbs to denote unrealized actions in the past (*I could have bought it*) or to voice criticism (*You should have done it*) (see 9. Modal Verbs).

The perfect progressive infinitive (*to have been writing*) indicates that an action in progress began some time before the action expressed by the finite verb took place:

He admitted to have been looking through the programme.

Note that the passive progressive infinitive exists, but it is phonetically awkward and rarely used.

The above-mentioned forms can be used in full, then we have the so-called full infinitive: *He was happy to learn the news*. However, to avoid repetition the infinitive can be omitted in a sentence leaving behind only the particle *to*. This "elliptical form" of the infinitive is used when its meaning is understood from the context:

They advised me to refuse, but I preferred not to.

The infinitive is sometimes used without the particle *to*. In this case it is called the bare infinitive. In Modern English we find the bare infinitive after the following verbs and phrases.

1. Auxiliary verb *do*:

I did not say that...

2. Modal verbs (*can, could, shall, should, may, might, will, would, must*):

You must be tired.

3. The verb *dare* is followed by the bare infinitive in rhetorical questions beginning with *how* or in questions and negative sentences when *dare* is used without an auxiliary. Cf.:

How dare she talk back!

Dare he refuse? — No, he dare not refuse.

Dare he do it?

Dare can be followed by both the bare and the full infinitive when it is used with an auxiliary:

Will he dare (to) refuse?

He did not dare (to) come.

Finally, *dare* is used with a full infinitive in affirmative sentences (which are not very common, though), or when *dare* is used in the participle form. Cf.:

He may dare to propose to her some day.

They passed by, not daring to look up.

4. The bare infinitive is used after the verb *need* when the latter has no auxiliary in interrogative and negative sentences:

Need she go now?

She need not make the choice herself.

When *need* is used with an auxiliary or affirmatively, it invariably takes the full infinitive:

Does she need to go?

I do not need to do the shopping today.

I need to speak to them.

5. Both the bare and the full infinitive can be used after the verb *help*:

I helped her (to) carry the heavy suitcase.

6. *Know* may be used with the bare infinitive only in the present perfect tense when the infinitive becomes part of the objective infinitive construction. However, this use is optional and the full infinitive is also possible in such contexts:

I have never known him (to) say a thing like that.

7. The verb *let* is always used with the bare infinitive, which usually comes after an object:

Let him swim in this river.

Note also sentences like:

Let go (of) the rope!

Live and let live.

The bare infinitive is used when *let* is in the passive form:

A remark was let slip that nothing had been done yet. (obsolete)

8. The causative verb *make* in the active takes the bare infinitive:

She made me get up early.

Make in the passive takes the full infinitive:

I was made to get up early.

Note also the set expression *make do* (= manage):

We will have to make do with what we have got.

9. The verb *have* takes the bare infinitive to mean "to persuade" or "to order":

I will have them come in a moment.

Have in the negative form is used with the bare infinitive to mean "not to allow":

I won't have them behave like that in my house.

10. The verbs *feel, hear, see, watch*, etc. take the bare infinitive in the infinitive constructions (see below 10.1.2. Infinitive Constructions):

I heard them come.

However, when *see* and *hear* are used in the passive, they take the full infinitive:

He was seen to enter the office building.

11. The expression *why not* is used with the bare infinitive to make suggestions and invitations:

Why not go to the cinema tonight?

12. The bare infinitive is used after the expressions *would rather, would sooner or had better*:

I'd rather not say.

Note that these expressions can be used with two bare infinitives:

I'd rather walk than go by bus.

Note also that the perfect infinitive can be used after them to show regret or an unrealized wish in the past:

I became a doctor, but I'd rather have become a lawyer.

I had better have come earlier.

13. The bare infinitive follows the conjunction *but* (= except) when it goes with *do* (+ *nothing, anything, everything*):

*There is nothing to do but tell the truth.
My cat does everything but speak.*

14. Note also that the infinitive without *to* is used after the expressions *cannot* (*could not*) *but* and *can't* (*could not*) *help but* (used mostly in formal English):

It cannot but have some effect on the future developments.

Note also the combination *can but try*:

I can but try to do it. (= I can only try; I can not promise I will succeed.)

15. The bare infinitive is optional in phrases with *all* and *only*:

All you have to do is (to) add water.

The only thing we can do is (to) send a fax.

16. The combination *rather than* is followed by the bare infinitive:

Rather than waste time doing it yourself, why don't you call a plumber?

Note that a gerund can be used after *rather than* instead of the bare infinitive.

10.1.2. Infinitive Constructions

In Modern English the infinitive can be used singly (*I have a nice book to read*), in a phrase where the infinitive has one or more words dependent upon it (*I have a nice book to read on the train*) or in a construction where it is in predicate relation to a noun or a pronoun. The predicate relation is revealed by the following transformation of the sentence: *I have a nice book for you to read; I have a nice book which you can read.*

According to their forms and functions, the infinitive constructions fall into:

a) the objective infinitive construction (OIC) (or complex object constructions);

b) the subjective infinitive construction (SIC) (or complex subject constructions);

c) the *for-to*-construction.

A structure called "the split infinitive" is also dealt with in this section (see 10.1.2.4. The Split Infinitive).

10.1.2.1. The Objective Infinitive Construction

In an OIC, the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. In a sentence, this

construction invariably assumes the function of complex object. The OIC is used after the following groups of verbs.

1. Verbs of three senses: *feel, hear, listen to, notice, overhear, see, watch*, etc. These verbs admit only of the infinitive without *to*. The infinitive construction refers to a complete event:

I saw them arrive.

Mary overheard him tell the children about it.

I watched the sun rise.

She noticed a man steal into the room.

To refer to an unfolding event we use participial constructions (see 10.3. The Participle below).

2. Verbs expressing opinion: *assume, believe, consider, expect, find, hold, judge, know, presume, prove, show, think*. After these verbs we use mostly the full indefinite infinitive, while the use of the perfect infinitive is rare:

They assumed him to be French.

The manager judged him to be unfit for the job.

I found him to be much younger than I had expected.

I have proved it to be feasible.

Everybody expected him to marry at the end of the month.

His visiting card showed him to be a theatre director.

In Modern English the OIC with these verbs sounds formal and the same idea is more commonly expressed by a *that-clause*:

They knew his views to be wrong (= They knew that his views were wrong.),

or the subjective infinitive construction:

They believed him to be a reliable man. (= He was believed to be a reliable man.)

After most of the verbs we find the infinitives *to be* and *to have*. *To be* is often omitted:

We find her (to be) dependable.

3. Verbs of declaring: *declare, pronounce, report*:

They declared him to be insane.

However, in Modern English the OIC is rarely used with these verbs. Cf.:

They declared that he was insane.

He was pronounced dead.

They were pronounced man and wife.

4. Verbs denoting wish and intention. The most common verb here is *want*:

She did not want them to go.

The verbs *wish* and *desire* are now rarely used in this construction. The same applies to the verb *choose* (= wish). Other verbs include *mean* and *intend*:

He meant it to be his last public performance.

We never intended this arrangement to be permanent.

5. Verbs denoting feelings and emotions: *like, can't bear* (= to feel upset about something) and *dislike, hate* which are only rarely used in this construction:

She could not bear him to leave her.

With *like* the gerundial construction is more common (see 10.2. The Gerund). Cf.:

I do not like him to speak in this way.

I do not like him speaking in this way.

10.1.2.2. *The Subjective Infinitive Construction*

In a SIC, the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case. The nominal part of the construction is the subject of the sentence and the infinitive is part of a compound verbal predicate:

He is likely to come soon.

The SIC is very often used with verbs in the passive voice. These verbs include:

a) verbs of perception: *hear, see, observe*:

The baby was often heard to cry,

She was seen to tremble;

b) verbs expressing opinion and judgement: *allege, assume, believe, claim, consider, deem* (formal), *discover, estimate, expect, feel, find, hold, know, predict, prove* (= demonstrate), *reckon, report, rumour, say, see* (= consider), *think, understand*. As has been already said, the SIC is more common with these verbs than the OIC and the number of verbs really used is greater. The full infinitive that follows the verbs is usually *to be, to have*, or a progressive or perfect infinitive:

The house is believed to be haunted.

The Secretary was alleged to be a member of a secret society.

This was deemed to detract from the dignity of the republic.

It was estimated to cost 1,000 pounds.

He was rumoured to be writing a new book.

He was understood to have left for Canada.

The SIC is often used with the following active verbs: *seem*, *appear* (= seem), *turn out*, *prove* (= turn out), *happen*, *to chance* (= happen):

She seemed to believe me.

He appeared to have been deceived.

It turned out to be a very nice party.

The effort has proved to be quite useless.

She happened to be near at the moment.

I chanced to notice her leaving the house.

Finally, the SIC is used with expressions *be (un)likely*, *be sure*, *be certain*:

She was likely to forget it quite soon.

The dispute is unlikely to be settled in the near future.

The growth in demand is certain to drive up the price.

10.1.2.3. The For-to-Infinitive Construction

In a *for-to-infinitive* construction, the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun or a pronoun preceded by the preposition *for*:

I waited for them to say something.

The *for-to-infinitive* construction can have various functions in a sentence:

Subject: *It was impossible for him to go there.*

Predicative: *That is for you to decide.*

Complex object: *They called for action to be taken against the terrorists.*

Attribute: *It was a nice example for you to follow.*

Adverbial modifier:

of purpose: *She put the money on the table for me to see it.*

of result: *She spoke too fast for me to follow.*

10.1.2.4. The Split Infinitive

If a sentence contains an adverb modifying the infinitive, this adverb is usually placed after the infinitive, or after the object, if there is one:

He tried to leave quietly.

We will have to do it immediately.

However, it is rather common to place the adverb between the infinitive and the particle *to* in informal speech:

She is too honest to even think of that.

He promised to really try.

This phenomenon is called “the split infinitive”. There are grammarians who disapprove of this use saying that it is incorrect, and in many cases we can avoid it:

He wanted them to quickly make up their minds. (= He wanted them to make up their minds quickly.)

Yet, there are sentences in which the split infinitive is the only possible variant, for otherwise we would have to change the meaning:

Perhaps you would tell them to kindly stop it.

10.1.3. Syntactic Functions of the Infinitive

10.1.3.1. Subject

The infinitive can be used as the subject of a sentence:

To speak to him about it was something none of them would risk doing.

However, this use is considered to be formal in Modern English. More common are structures in which the infinitive as the extraposed subject is introduced by *it*. In this case, nouns and adjectives are used predicatively to express one's opinion, emotion or recommendation. The adjectives used are:

<i>advisable</i>	<i>foolish (of smb)</i>	<i>reasonable</i>
<i>careless (of smb)</i>	<i>funny</i>	<i>right</i>
<i>characteristic (of smb)</i>	<i>hard</i>	<i>safe</i>
<i>convenient</i>	<i>interesting</i>	<i>surprising</i>
<i>curious</i>	<i>important</i>	<i>stupid (of smb)</i>
<i>dangerous</i>	<i>impossible</i>	<i>typical (of smb)</i>
<i>decent (of smb)</i>	<i>kind / nice (of smb)</i>	<i>useful</i>
<i>desirable</i>	<i>natural (of smb)</i>	<i>useless</i>
<i>difficult</i>	<i>necessary</i>	<i>wrong</i>
<i>easy</i>	<i>pleasant</i>	<i>worthwhile, etc.</i>
<i>fair</i>	<i>possible</i>	

For example:

It would be curious to know the results.

It was decent of her to drive me home.

It would be worthwhile to start an investigation.

The nouns are semantically connected with the adjectives and include: *mistake, crime, offence, a good idea, pity*, etc.:

It is an offence to drop litter in the street.

It would be a pity to miss such an opportunity.

Sometimes a perfect infinitive is used here:

It was stupid of you not to have accepted the offer.

It was clever of him to have behaved like this.

The infinitive as extraposed subject is also used with finite verbs describing the effect of some experience on a person. The verbs used here include: *amaze, amuse, annoy, appal, astonish, bewilder, bother, delight, disgust, distress, grieve, horrify, interest, please, shock, surprise, upset, worry*, etc.:

It pleased him to think of his beloved.

It shocked me to realize that.

The same sentence structure is also used with the verbs *take, cost and pay*:

It took me an hour to get there.

It will take years to repair it.

It will cost millions to implement it.

Does it pay to be nice to them?

10.1.3.2. Predicative

1. The infinitive commonly follows the link verb *be*:

His only dream was to buy a car.

Fairly often, the subject in this kind of sentence is an abstract noun and the infinitive serves to disclose its meaning. Sometimes the infinitive can be preceded by *wh*-words like *where, who, what*, etc.:

The difficulty was where to cross the river.

Occasionally the verb *mean* is used instead of *be*:

To act like that meant to destroy our friendship.

The infinitive can also be used as part of a predicative. In this case it modifies an adjective the meaning of which is not complete without the infinitive:

Granny was always hard to please.

If a verb in the infinitive form requires a preposition, the latter cannot be omitted and goes after the verb:

The bridge is dangerous to walk over.

The subject is never repeated after the preposition. It would be incorrect to say, for example, **The bridge is dangerous to walk over it.* (Cf.: *It is dangerous to walk over the bridge.*)

2. In Modern English we can find structures like:

He is a brave man to do that.

The boy is very sophisticated to know that.

He will be crazy to go there.

The function of the infinitive is not very clear here. From the point of view of structural similarity, we should treat these sentences in the same way as the examples above. However, they are different semantically. In sentences like *He will be crazy to go there*, the infinitive phrase gives the speaker's reason for the judgement given at the beginning of the sentence. From this point of view, the function of the infinitive in similar sentences may be defined as the adverbial modifier of reason. This interpretation is open to discussion.

3. Note that the infinitive following modal verbs and verbal phrases denoting modality constitutes a part of the compound verbal modal predicate. If the infinitive follows a verb of beginning, repetition, duration or cessation, it is regarded as part of the compound verbal aspect predicate (see 14.3.2.2. The Compound Predicate).

10.1.3.3. Object

The function of object is very common for the infinitive. We find the infinitive

- 1) used directly after verbs;
- 2) with an object between it and the verb;
- 3) used after predicative adjectives;
- 4) preceded by a wh-word;
- 5) introduced by it.

1. Verbs followed directly by the infinitive:

<i>afford</i> ¹⁶	<i>ask</i>	<i>choose (= decide)</i>
<i>agree</i>	<i>attempt</i>	<i>claim</i>
<i>aim</i>	<i>beg</i>	<i>consent</i>
<i>arrange</i> ¹⁷	<i>care</i> ¹⁸	<i>dare</i>

¹⁶ The verb *afford* is always preceded by a modal: *I can't afford to take such risks.*

¹⁷ The verb *arrange* is used in the following patterns:

They arranged to meet at four o'clock.

I will arrange for Jack to meet you at the airport. (= Jack will meet you.)

We will arrange with somebody else to buy these tickets.

¹⁸ The verb *care* followed by the infinitive is normally used in negative or interrogative sentences:

I don't care to see this show; Would you care to have a drink with me?

decide	live	resolve
demand	long	scorn (= refuse)
deserve	manage	seek
desire	mean	struggle
expect	need	survive (= live)
fail	neglect	swear
fight	offer	tend
forget	opt	threaten
grow	plan	venture
help ¹⁹	pledge	volunteer
hesitate	prepare	vow
hope	pretend	wait
intend	promise	want
learn	refuse	wish

We asked to see him.

Do not hesitate to ask questions if you have any.

He chose to pay no attention to what she said.

This never failed to infuriate her.

He opted to support the movement.

I tend to go to bed rather late.

Note that in sentences like *I struggled to stay awake*, *She did not live to see the end of the war*, *You will grow to appreciate that* the infinitive performs another function (see 10.1.3.5. Adverbial Modifier below).

Most of these verbs can be used with a passive infinitive:

She refused to be paid a lower salary.

He deserves to be promoted.

The verbs *claim*, *pretend*, *tend* are quite often used with a perfect infinitive:

He claimed to have been there.

He pretended to have heard nothing.

2. Verbs followed by an object + the infinitive:

advise	beg	compel	encourage
allow ²⁰	cause	defy	expect
ask ²¹	challenge	enable	forbid

¹⁹ For the use of *dare*, *need*, and *help* see 10.1.1. Forms of the Infinitive.

²⁰ Special attention should be paid to the verbs *allow* and *permit*. Structures like **It allows to make the following conclusions* are incorrect. If there is no notional subject, a formal one should be inserted: *It allows us/one to make the following conclusions.*

²¹ The verbs *ask*, *beg*, *expect* and *help* can also be followed directly by a full infinitive: *He begged (us) to be allowed to stay.*

force	lead	press	train
get ²²	leave	prompt	trust
help	order	recommend	urge
inspire	pay	remind	use
instruct	permit	teach	warn
invite	persuade	tell	

We asked them to see him.

I encouraged her to tell the truth.

She challenged me to race her to the corner.

I defy anyone to say that I am wrong.

It has led me to change my attitude.

They paid him to be silent.

She reminded me to lock the door.

It prompted me to visit the doctor.

I trust them to solve the problem.

3. The infinitive is widely used as the object of the following predicative adjectives: *glad, happy, lucky, surprised, sorry, curious, afraid, reluctant, pleased*, etc.:

I am curious to know the news.

He is afraid to go there.

The perfect infinitive is sometimes used here to emphasize that the event preceded the emotional state:

I was happy to have been invited.

He was glad to have been given the job.

She was sorry to have missed the opportunity.

With *afraid* we can use both the infinitive and the gerund, but the meaning changes. For more details see 10.2.2.3. Object below.

4. We can often use a full infinitive after a wh-word. The verbs used in such sentences include:

decide	guess	reveal	think
describe	imagine	say	understand
discover	know	see	wonder
discuss	learn	suggest	
explain	realize	teach	
forget	remember	tell	

I do not know how to open the door.

I can not decide whether to go or not.

He asked me which bus to take.

²² The verb *get* is a causative verb, a synonym of the verbs *make* and *have*. Unlike the latter, it is used with a full infinitive. Depending on the context *get* can mean "persuade", "ask" or "tell": *He got Ann to help them; She got the maid to clean the room.*

S. We can use the verbs *consider*, *think*, *find*, *presume*, *believe*, *hold*, *judge* and *make* with the pronoun *it* followed by an adjective or noun and a full infinitive:

He thought it his duty to help them.

I find it hard to believe the story.

This made it possible to accept the invitation.

He made it a rule to get up at seven o'clock.

In all the above examples, it is introductory (*expletive*) and introduces the (extraposed) object of the sentence, that is the infinitive.

6. There are a number of verbs with which we can use either the infinitive or the gerund, but with a change of meaning that can be slight or rather considerable. These verbs include *begin*, *start*, *remember*, *forget*, *like*, *love*, *prefer*, *hate*, *dread*, *regret*, etc. These will be dealt with in 10.2.2.3. Object.

7. With the verbs *come*, *go* and *find* we can use either the infinitive or participle I depending on what we want to express. Detailed treatment of the difference will be given in 10.3.3. Function of the Participles.

10.1.3.4. Attribute

The infinitive as an attribute can modify nouns, indefinite and negative pronouns, ordinal numerals and the substantivized adjective *last*:

They have set up a programme to relieve the poor.

She went to buy something to eat.

They had nowhere to go.

He was the last to arrive.

She was the first to help me.

We did not have the opportunity to buy it.

Sometimes the infinitive in this function expresses the idea of necessity, possibility or arrangement. In this case, the infinitive is quite often passive:

He is a man to rely on. (= who can be relied on)

There were many things to be repaired. (= which had to be repaired)

They spoke about the conference to be held in September.
(= which was to be held in September)

The use of the passive infinitive is sometimes optional and the active infinitive can be used instead. Cf.: *There were many things to repair*, but **They spoke about the conference to hold in September*.

10.1.3.5. Adverbial Modifier

1. The infinitive can function as an adverbial modifier of purpose in a sentence where the subject of the sentence is to perform the action denoted by the infinitive:

We are getting up at 7 o'clock tomorrow to catch the 8 o'clock train.

She went to the airport to meet her sister.

The infinitive of purpose can be introduced by *so as (not) to* or *in order (not) to*:

She trod quietly so as not to wake the child.

She switched off the telephone in order not to be disturbed.

2. Most often we find the infinitive denoting result in structures with *too* and *enough*. *Too* and the infinitive can form the following structures:

She is too happy to say a word.

He is too sensible a driver to take risks.

Joan is too much of a bore to let it pass unnoticed.

The bag is far/much too heavy for her to lift.

We can use *far* or *much* before *too* for emphasis. Mind the word order in structures like *too sensible a driver*. The structure *too + adjective* precedes a noun it modifies. Note also that the infinitive is used with a preposition if the verb requires one: *The room is too cold to stay in.*

Enough and the infinitive form the following structures:

He is a careful enough driver not to take risks.

She was foolish enough to refuse.

The eggs are not good enough to make an omelette with.

There is not enough proof yet for us to make such sweeping conclusions.

There also exists a structure like *He is enough of an optimist not to take it seriously*. But it is not very common and it is better to express the same idea with *He is too much of an optimist to take it seriously*.

In questions it is normal to use *such/so... as + to-infinitive* to express result:

Was he such a fool (so foolish) as to refuse?

The infinitive denotes result in the common request:

Would you be so kind as to help me?

There are also some other structures with *such... as + to-infinitive*:

The case for the prosecution was such as to convince the whole of the jury.

The system can be changed in such a way as to meet all the above-mentioned requirements.

3. The infinitive as an adverbial modifier of comparison is introduced by the conjunctions *as if* and *as though*:

She answered sharply as if to challenge him.

As though to remind him, the clock began to chime.

4. The infinitive in the function of adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances expresses a sequel to the event expressed by the finite verb. There are two types of structures found here:

a) with *only* — to introduce something which immediately follows the action or event described by the finite verb and which we find surprising or unfortunate:

I finally found my watch, only to discover that it had stopped.

They came to the shore, only to discover that all their things had been stolen;

b) without *only*:

She came to the hospital to be told that her husband was better.

In Modern English this use is mostly confined to such verbs as *find, learn, hear, see, be told*, etc., as otherwise there may be a confusion between the function of attendant circumstances and that of purpose. Consider the following example:

She went to London to stay there for a year.

There are two possible interpretations here: She went to London in order to stay there and She went to London and stayed there for a year.

10.1.3.6. Parenthesis

Certain infinitive phrases can function as parenthesis and are placed at the beginning of a sentence, or sometimes at the end. These phrases include:

to start with

to tell you the truth

so to speak

to be more exact

not to speak of

to say nothing (the least) of

to be (perfectly) frank

to put it mildly / simply / briefly

to be honest

needless to say

to be fair

to cut a long story short

Needless to say, it infuriated him.

Her comments were tactless, to say the least.

10.2. THE GERUND

10.2.1. Forms and Uses of the Gerund

1. In Modern English the gerund has the following forms:

- a) the simple (indefinite) active gerund: *reading*;
- b) the simple (indefinite) passive gerund: *being read*;
- b) the perfect active gerund: *having read*;
- c) the perfect passive gerund: *having been read*.

The use of the perfect gerund, both active and passive, is very often redundant, for the time reference of the gerund is normally clear from the context:

They reported seeing the murderer. (= They reported having seen the murderer.)

However, with a number of verbs we often tend to find a perfect gerund, although an indefinite gerund would be sufficient. These verbs include *admit*, *celebrate*, *deny*, *mention*, *recall*. Thus, *Mary denied having seen him* and *Mary denied seeing him* are equally possible.

Sometimes the use of a perfect gerund becomes necessary. It occurs when we want to emphasize that the action expressed by the gerund precedes the one expressed by the finite verb:

He admitted having had the intention to assassinate the Prime Minister. (= He admitted that once he had had this intention.)

This is contrasted with:

He admitted having the intention to assassinate the Prime Minister. (= He admitted he still had this intention.)

2. The gerund can be used singly (*He was intent on winning*), in a phrase (*She left without saying good-bye*), or in a predicative construction (*Mr Smith was against his daughters getting married*).

In a gerundial construction, the gerund is in predicate relation to a noun or a pronoun. The subject of the sentence is not identical with the subject performing the action denoted by the gerund. The nominal elements of the construction can be expressed by a noun in the common case:

Do you remember people of different social classes protesting against the new bill? (= ...как люди разных социальных классов протестовали...)

The possessive of nouns is avoided in informal style and when the noun phrase is lengthy. The possessive is used mostly in formal style when the noun phrase has personal reference:

The very lack of refinement in the circus and its popular appeal probably account for Lautrec's having come to the subject when he did.

The nominal element of the construction can also be expressed by a possessive pronoun or, occasionally, by a personal pronoun in the objective case, the object pronoun being more informal and emphasizing the subject of the action:

He had visions of her coming out to join him and their settling down in India.

I dislike his/him coming here every day.

Various other pronouns — *all, that, this, both, each, something, etc.* — may become the nominal element of a gerundial construction:

She insisted on both of them being wrong.

Gerundial predicative constructions perform a variety of nominal functions in sentences — subject, direct object, prepositional object, postpositional attribute, and adverbial modifier.

10.2.2. Syntactic Functions of the Gerund

10.2.2.1. Subject

1. On the whole, the gerund is more often used at the beginning of a sentence than the infinitive:

Working with him was fun.

This use is not confined to formal English. Still, it is more common to introduce the gerund in a sentence with the help of the pronoun *it*:

It was great fun skiing.

It was difficult persuading him.

There are a few fixed phrases which begin with introductory *it* and are followed by the gerund or gerundial construction as the extraposed subject — *it is fun, it is no/little use, it is no good, it is (not) worth*:

It is no use us trying to clobber the economy with high taxation.

I don't think it is worth working so hard.

It is worth paying attention to what he says.

2. A single gerund as subject can also be introduced by *there* to form the following structures:

There is no knowing what he is up to.

There is no denying his talent.

There is no telling which of them will finish first.

10.2.2.2. Predicative

The gerund can easily function as subject-predicative:

Her only fun was reading books.

The example I gave was measuring a distance by arranging matches end to end.

It should be distinguished from participle I as a part of the progressive form. Cf.:

She was reading a book. (participle I)

10.2.2.3. Object

The gerund, like the infinitive, is widely used in this function after a great number of verbs and expressions. It should be mentioned that the gerund (or the infinitive) which follows a modal verb or a verb of beginning, duration, repetition or cessation constitutes the nominal part of the compound verbal predicate.

1. Verbs always followed by the gerund:

<i>admit</i> ²³	<i>dislike</i>	<i>keep (on)</i> ²⁵
<i>adore</i>	<i>endure</i>	<i>mention</i>
<i>appreciate</i>	<i>enjoy</i>	<i>mind</i>
<i>avoid</i>	<i>entail</i>	<i>miss</i>
<i>begrudge</i>	<i>excuse</i> ²⁴	<i>necessitate</i>
<i>burst out</i>	<i>fancy</i>	<i>need</i>
<i>cannot help</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>postpone</i>
<i>carry on</i>	<i>forgive</i>	<i>practice</i>
<i>contemplate</i>	<i>give up</i>	<i>put off</i>
<i>consider</i>	<i>grudge</i>	<i>recall</i>
<i>defer</i>	<i>imagine</i>	<i>prevent</i> ²⁶
<i>delay</i>	<i>include</i>	<i>propose</i>
<i>deny</i>	<i>involve</i>	<i>recollect</i>
<i>detest</i>	<i>justify</i>	<i>report</i>

²³ The verbs *admit*, *imagine*, *mention*, *propose*, *recollect*, *report*, *suggest* are rarely used with a construction, a *that*-clause is preferred, so that we have two options: *He suggested getting up early* and *He suggested that we should get up early*.

²⁴ Two options are possible with *excuse*: *Excuse me / my being late* and *Excuse me for being late*.

Note that *excuse* also has the meaning "exempt": *The headmaster excused him from doing gym*.

²⁵ *On* is used after *keep* for greater emphasis: *Keep on trying...*

²⁶ *Prevent* can be used both with and without *from*:

The man was instructed to prevent people entering.

Heavy traffic prevented me from coming on time.

<i>require</i> ²⁷	<i>stand</i>	<i>tolerate</i>
<i>resent</i>	<i>stop (= prevent)</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>resist</i>	<i>stop (= cease)</i> ²⁸	
<i>risk</i>	<i>suggest</i>	

She kept (on) saying that she was worried.

He begrudged doing extra work.

She missed having somebody to find fault with.

He contemplated buying a villa in the West Virginia.

She risks losing all her money.

I appreciated hearing from them.

He considered moving to another district.

How do I stop the tap dripping?

Nothing could stop Tim from being a lawyer.

He resented having to explain.

In spite of the noise she carried on writing.

2. The gerund is used after a number of verbs with prepositions:

<i>accuse of</i>	<i>feel like</i>	<i>reproach with</i>
<i>agree to</i>	<i>insist on</i>	<i>speak of</i>
<i>approve of</i>	<i>look like</i>	<i>succeed in</i>
<i>apologize for</i>	<i>object to</i>	<i>suspect of</i>
<i>complain of</i>	<i>persist in</i>	<i>take to</i>
<i>depend on</i>	<i>prevent from</i>	<i>think of</i>
<i>dream of/about</i>	<i>rely on</i>	

He dreamed of having a car.

She apologized for disturbing us.

I object to their coming here.

3. The gerund is used after the following prepositional expressions:

<i>to be aware of</i>	<i>to be guilty of</i>	<i>to be surprised at</i>
<i>to be capable of</i>	<i>to be happy about</i>	<i>to be worth</i>
<i>to be fed up with</i>	<i>to be indignant at</i>	<i>to have enough of</i>
<i>to be fond of</i>	<i>to be pleased/happy</i>	<i>to have difficulty in</i>
<i>to be tired of</i>	<i>about</i>	<i>to look forward to</i>
<i>to be for/against</i>	<i>to be proud of</i>	<i>there is no point in</i>
<i>to be/get used to</i>	<i>to be sure of</i>	<i>what is the use of...?</i>

²⁷ An active gerund with *need* means the same as a passive infinitive: *The room needs redecorating* = *The room needs to be redecorated*. *Require* and *want* are also sometimes used in this way: *The dress wants cleaning*.

²⁸ *Stop* can be used with an infinitive of purpose. Cf.:

She stopped talking. (= She didn't talk any longer.)

She stopped to talk to her friend. (= She stopped and began to talk to her friend.)

*I am used to getting up early.
The risk is worth taking.
What is the use of waiting?
I will be looking forward to seeing you.
She had difficulty finding the book.*

4. There are a number of verbs which can be followed by either the infinitive or the gerund.

We use the infinitive after the verbs *remember*, *forget* if we remember or forget to do something we have or had to do:

*Remember to lock the door. (= Не забудь закрыть дверь.)
I forgot to ask him.*

We use the gerund if we remember or forget something that took place in the past:

*She remembered seeing this film. (= Она помнила, что смотрела этот фильм.)
She forgot ever going there.*

The difference between the infinitive and the gerund used after the verbs *like*, *love*, *prefer*, *hate* is revealed mostly in the negative forms. We use the infinitive when we anticipate the future events, so that the meaning of these verbs is close to "wish", "want":

*I did not like to tell her that. (= I did not want to, thought it unwise.)
I preferred not to speak at all.*

We use the gerund when our feelings accompany or follow what is going on, so that the meaning of these verbs is close to "not enjoy":

I did not like being a nuisance but I felt that I was.

In the affirmative we can use both the infinitive and the gerund with practically no difference in meaning:

*I love skating/to skate.
I prefer staying/to stay at home.*

However, to express a particular action in the past the infinitive is commonly used:

I preferred to stay at home.

Note also the usual patterns with *prefer*:

*I prefer walking in the park to staying at home.
I prefer to walk in the park than (to) stay at home.*

Cannot bear + infinitive is used to indicate that something we have to do is upsetting us:

He couldn't bear to see us go.

We use *cannot bear + gerund* to speak about something we dislike:

I could not bear living with them under one roof.

The verb *dread* is used with the infinitive of *think; regret* — with the infinitive of *say, tell, inform*:

*I dread to think what is going on there. (= I try not to think.)
I regret to say that you are not accepted.*

We use the gerund when we want to describe something unpleasant that is most likely to happen in the future (*dread*) or has happened in the past (*regret*):

*He regretted having told her that.
I dreaded them coming.
I dread going to the dentist but I am going.*

If you are afraid to do something, you try not to do it at all in a particular situation:

*She was afraid to go. (= She did not go.)
He was afraid even to move. (= He did not move.)*

We use *be afraid + gerund* to show that somebody wants to avoid an awkward situation or is generally afraid of something or somebody:

*The girl was afraid of offending anyone.
The boy was afraid of going to school, though he went there every day.*

Begin, start and *continue* are used both with the infinitive and the gerund with practically no change in meaning. Yet, with *begin* and *start* there is a tendency to use the infinitive for events that are impersonal or involuntary, and the gerund for voluntary actions:

*She began to grow angry.
Her car started to overheat.
We started packing our things.*

Cease, a formal equivalent of *stop*, usually takes the gerund:

They should cease slandering you.

Only the infinitive is used with all the four verbs when they are in the continuous form:

*He was beginning to understand the situation,
or when the verb that follows is not used in the continuous form:*

He has ceased to be our ally.

Two options are possible with the verbs *advise*, *intend*, *recommend*:

1) verb + gerund:

She advised taking a bus.

He intended staying until the small hours.

He recommended limiting the amount of fat in her diet;

2) verb + (pro)noun + infinitive:

He advised me not to buy that suit.

The doctor did not recommend her to have children.

Intend can also be used with the infinitive alone:

He intends to marry her.

The gerundial construction is not common.

The infinitive is used when the verb *go on* means "proceed":

She went on to emphasize the growing need to tackle environmental problems.

The gerund is used when *go on* means "continue":

She went on repeating her story.

The verb *mean* (= intend) takes the infinitive:

He meant to get up early.

Mean (= entail) takes the gerund:

This will mean going to bed earlier.

The verb *try* (= attempt) takes the infinitive:

He tried hard to be successful.

Try (= experiment) takes the gerund:

Try drinking salted water.

In informal English *try + infinitive* is often replaced by *try and do something* without any change of meaning:

Try and come in time.

The verb *understand* (= have the impression) takes the infinitive:

I understood her to say that she did not like mice.

Understand (= understand why) takes the gerund:

I cannot understand people liking it.

10.2.2.4. Attribute

When used as an attribute, the gerund is always preceded by the preposition *of*. Fairly often the gerund modifies an abstract noun:

*She had a feeling of being surrounded by enemies.
He does not stand a chance of winning.
I considered the possibility of joining the Labour party.
They give the impression of not working hard enough.*

10.2.2.5. Adverbial Modifier

In this function the gerund is also preceded by a preposition.

1. As an adverbial modifier of time the gerund follows the prepositions *after, before, on, since*:

They have not spoken a word since leaving the party.

On closing the door she remembered that she had not turned off the light.

On has the same meaning as *when*, emphasizing that the first event is not completed but overlaps the second.

2. As an adverbial modifier of manner the gerund is used with *by* and *in*:

They escaped by sliding down a rope.

The whole evening was spent in deciding whether to go or not.

3. In the function of adverbial modifier of purpose, the gerund is introduced by *for*:

It turned out that the suitcase had been used for carrying drugs.

4. Gerunds introduced by *for fear of, owing to* are adverbial modifiers of cause:

They did not mention it for fear of hurting her feelings.

5. As an adverbial modifier of concession the gerund is introduced by *in spite of and despite* (more formal):

Despite spending her childhood in a village she does not know much about country life.

6. When the gerund is introduced by the preposition *without* it is regarded either as an adverbial modifier of condition or as an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances. Cf.:

You cannot make an omelette without breaking eggs. (a proverb)

She went by without looking up.

In all the above-mentioned functions we can find gerundial constructions, while a single gerund is rather rare.

10.3. THE PARTICIPLE

10.3.1. Forms of the Participle

There are two participles in English — **participle I** (present or *-ing* participle) and **participle II** (past or *-ed* participle).

The forms of participle I coincide with those of the gerund:

- a) the simple (indefinite) active: *reading*;
- b) the simple (indefinite) passive: *being read*;
- c) the perfect active: *having read*;
- d) the perfect passive: *having been read*.

Participle I perfect (both active and passive) is used when it is necessary to emphasize that the action expressed by the participle precedes the one expressed by the finite verb. Participle I perfect is mostly used to express temporal and causal relationships.

Participle II of most verbs has only one form. If the verb is regular, we add *-ed* (*-d*) to the infinitive: *work* — *worked*. Participle II of irregular verbs is their “third” form. It should be noted that some irregular verbs have two different forms of participle II:

<i>awake</i>	— <i>awaked / awoken</i>	<i>mow</i>	— <i>mowed / mown</i>
<i>burn</i>	— <i>burned / burnt</i>	<i>show</i>	— <i>showed / shown</i>
<i>dream</i>	— <i>dreamed / dreamt</i>	<i>spell</i>	— <i>spelled / spilt</i>
<i>hang</i>	— <i>hanged / hung</i>	<i>spill</i>	— <i>spilled / spilt</i>
<i>lean</i>	— <i>leaned / leant</i>	<i>swell</i>	— <i>swelled / swollen</i>
<i>leap</i>	— <i>leaped / leapt</i>	<i>tread</i>	— <i>trodden / trod</i>
<i>learn</i>	— <i>learned / learnt</i>	<i>wake</i>	— <i>waked / woken</i>
<i>light</i>	— <i>lighted / lit</i>		

Note also that the form *hanged* is used when *hang* means “to kill somebody by tying a rope around their neck”.

Some verbs have different participle forms for verbal and adjectival use. Cf.:

<i>You have drunk too much.</i>	— <i>a drunk / drunken sailor;</i>
<i>He has shaved and washed.</i>	— <i>a clean-shaven man;</i>
<i>The trousers have shrunk.</i>	— <i>shrunken trousers;</i>
<i>The ship has sunk.</i>	— <i>a sunken ship.</i>

10.3.2. Constructions with the Participle

Both participle I and participle II can be used singly (*She went away crying; The tree was cut down*), in a phrase (*Do you know the man standing at the entrance? Shaken by the news, she stood motionless*), or in a predicative construction (*I saw them stealing apples in my garden; She found the lock broken*).

- The participle can form four predicative constructions:
- a) the objective participial construction (OPC);
 - b) the subjective participial construction (SPC);
 - c) the absolute participial construction (APC);

10.3.2.1. The Objective Participial Construction (OPC)

As with other non-finite constructions, the participle in a OPC is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or an object pronoun which denotes a person or a thing performing the action denoted by the participle:

I heard them talking loudly.

The OPC with participle I is used after the following groups of verbs.

1. Verbs of perception: *feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, perceive, see, smell, spot, spy, watch*:

They noticed a ship approaching the island.

Suddenly he spied a shark coming towards them. (formal)

I overheard them quarrelling.

The participial construction is used instead of the infinitive construction to refer to part of an event, to emphasize the idea of process.

2. Verbs of encounter: *catch, discover, find*:

She caught them eating jam.

The infinitive construction after *find* refers to something found out by investigation:

They found him to be innocent.

The participial construction denotes something discovered by chance:

They found a man lying in the ditch.

Note that it is sometimes very difficult to distinguish between the participial construction and an attributive phrase with a participle as attribute.

3. Causative verbs: *get, have*:

I will get/have the house looking nice.

He had me swimming in a week.

The OPC with participle II is used after the following verbs.

1. Perceptual verbs: *see, hear, feel*:

She heard her name mentioned.

2. Volitional verbs and expressions: *would like, need, want*:

I want this watch repaired quickly.
You need your eyesight tested.

3. Causative verbs: *get, have*:

She had her car serviced.

4. The verb *consider*:

I consider the case closed.

The objective participial construction always functions as complex object in a sentence.

10.3.2.2. *The Subjective Participial Construction (SPC)*

The participle is in predicative relation to the subject of the sentence expressed by a noun or a pronoun:

She was seen running away.

The nominal part of the construction performs the function of the subject, while the verbal part expressed by the participle performs the function of part of a compound verbal predicate.

This construction is mostly used with perceptual verbs (SPC with participle I) and verbs of encounter (SPC with participle II):

He was found talking to himself in a whisper.

The girl was discovered crouched under the table.

10.3.2.3. *The Absolute Participial Construction (APC)*

1. In the APC, participle I or participle II is in a predicate relation to a noun in the common case or pronoun in the nominative case. The APC is used, along with adverbial clauses, to introduce a subject different from the subject of the finite verb:

The weather being cold, they decided not to go to the lake. (Cf.:
As the weather was cold they decided not to go to the lake.)

Participle I indefinite is used in this construction to refer something that is going on at the same time as the event described by the finite verb or to mention a fact that is relevant to the fact stated by the finite verb:

Her voice trembling, she asked him, "Where am I to go now?"
The door being locked, he could not get in.

Participle I perfect or participle II are used to refer to something which happened before the event described by the finite verb:

The question having been asked, the minister had to answer it somehow.

The absolute participial construction can function as an adverbial modifier of time, cause, attendant circumstances and condition. Participle I perfect is used mostly in the first two functions which very often overlap:

The text having been analyzed, she proceeded to write the summary. (adverbial modifier of time)

The lights having gone out, they had to go to bed. (adverbial modifier of cause)

She slowly went to the door, her leg still aching. (adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances)

Time permitting, I will stay there longer. (adverbial modifier of condition)

The door locked, she put the key in her pocket. (adverbial modifier of reason)

2. When the APC functions as an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances, the preposition *with* can be used with it, so that we have the prepositional absolute participial construction:

*The old woman stood up, with tears running down her face.
I wonder if you could do that with your eyes closed.*

Participle I indefinite and participle II are generally used after *with*.

Both the absolute construction and the prepositional absolute construction can be used without a participle:

She stood very erect, her body absolutely stiff with fury.

She came into the room, her face pale.

He walked by, with his dog by his side.

Apart from a few stereotyped phrases like *everything considered, present company excepted, weather permitting, god willing*, absolute constructions are rare in Modern English and occur mostly in written descriptive language.

10.3.3. Functions of the Participles

10.3.3.1. Attribute

In this function we find both participle I indefinite (active or passive) and participle II.

1. Participle I as an attribute can modify nouns and some pronouns:

Those working have no time for that.

It can be used both in pre-position (when it precedes the noun) or in post-position (when it follows it). In pre-position, participle I is usually used singly:

She could not stand the blinding lights.

The use of single participle I in pre-position may present a problem, for not every participle can function in this way. In fact, only those participles that indicate a permanent or characteristic feature can be usually used in pre-position. For example, we can say *reassuring smile*, but it is hardly possible to say **reassuring girl*. The thing is that a person cannot be permanently reassuring, but when we say something like *a reassuring face* we characterize the face, classify it. Likewise, we say *a wandering minstrel* (= one who does it habitually), but not **wandering person*. Compare also *a shocking woman* and *shocking words*. The first one is appropriate only if the woman always shocks other people, but inappropriate if she is saying something shocking to somebody at that moment. It should be noted also that participle I in preposition is commonly used with the indefinite article:

A barking dog woke him up. (classifying meaning of the article)

With the definite article participle I is used when the article has generic meaning (which is again connected with the idea of permanence): *the beginning student*.

Summing up, we can say that participle I in pre-position is incompatible with anything taking place or being true only at the moment of speech or over a short period of time.

Participle I with accompanying words is widely used in post-position instead of an attributive clause:

People coming to see her could not believe their eyes. (= People who came...)

John, fishing next to Mike, caught a big fish. (= John, who was fishing...)

However, we cannot replace a clause with a participial phrase when the clause refers to a repeated action or a habit:

People who read newspapers always know what is going on in the world. (Cf.: **People reading newspapers always know...*)

or when it contains a verb that describes mental states — *know, believe, like*:

Those who believe it will believe anything.

An exception may be made when a participial phrase denotes the cause of an event:

Knowing how dangerous the place was, she decided not to go there.

A clause cannot be replaced by a participial phrase if the clause refers to an event completed before what is described in the rest of the sentence:

The boy who went with us got lost on the way home.

2. Participle II as an attribute can also be used in pre-position and post-position. In pre-position participle II can be used singly or in a phrase. The basic principles determining the use of participle II are the same as those operating with single participle I. However, participle II has its own peculiarities. Note that participle II of intransitive verbs is rarely used in pre-position: **the arrived guests*. There are some exceptions. Firstly, participles II of a few words (*accumulated, dated, escaped, faded, fallen, retired, swollen, vanished, wilted*) can precede nouns they modify: *a fallen tree, a retired colonel, wilted flowers*. These participles always have an active meaning. Secondly, when participle II of an intransitive verb is modified by an adverb, it can be used in pre-position: *the newly arrived guests*.

Participle II of many transitive verbs can be used in pre-position. However, participles that refer to an action rather than a state are much less commonly used. Cf.: *a damaged car, a broken cup*, but **the built plant, *the mentioned book*. The use of many participles varies according to the context; they are more common in pre-position when they have permanent reference, or when they are modified by an adverb:

a married man (permanent characteristic),
the newly-born baby,
the above-mentioned writer,
the recently-built plant.

A participial phrase used in pre-position is always detached and has an additional meaning of an adverbial modifier:

Annoyed by his words, she went out of the room. (reason)

Participle II in post-position can be used singly:

Money lent is money spent (proverb),

or in a phrase:

They came to a tree broken by the recent storm.

A participial phrase in post-position can also be detached:

His comedies, loved by many people all over the world, have been translated into many languages.

There are a number of participles which are normally used in post-position:

the place visited,
the items taken/left,

*the money sent / spent,
the letters received / shown,
all the people involved / questioned,
the grant obtained,
the drawbacks found / discovered.*

These participles usually refer to something dynamic, not permanent.

10.3.3.2. Adverbial Modifier

Participle II in this function is always preceded by a conjunction.

1. Adverbial modifier of time.

When there is no change of subject, we can use the participle instead of an adverbial clause of time:

Coming into the room, she saw that somebody had broken the window. (= when she came... she saw...)

Participle I perfect is sometimes used in this function in written English when it is necessary to emphasize that the action expressed by the participle precedes the action expressed by the finite verb:

Having finished his breakfast, he rushed out of the room.

However, it should be noted that we use the perfect participle mostly when the sentence would sound ambiguous otherwise. The above example, if modified, would contain ambiguity:

Finishing his breakfast, he rushed out of the room.

So, on the whole, participle I indefinite is preferred when two actions take place at the same time:

Walking past the shop, he noticed his reflection in the shop window,
and also when one action follows the other:

Leaping out of bed, he dressed very quickly.

Participle I as an adverbial modifier of time can be preceded by the conjunctions *when* and *while*:

She fell while / when skiing downhill.

You should be very careful when / while dealing with such people.

She listened attentively while pretending not to.

Participle II as an adverbial modifier of time is introduced by the conjunctions *when*, *while*, and *once*:

Once roused, he would not cool down.

When analyzed, the theory proved to be false.

2. Adverbial modifier of cause.

Both participle I (indefinite and passive) and participle II can be used in this function:

He changed his mind, realizing that the whole thing was useless.

Sentences with participle I as an adverbial modifier of cause belong to formal style:

Being ill, he could not go to work. (= As he was ill... .)

Having once heard him lie, she could not believe him any longer.

A participial phrase with participle I often has causal meaning when it premodifies a noun/pronoun so that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between the function of an attribute and that of an adverbial modifier of cause:

Frightened by the thunder, the dog began to howl.

3. Adverbial modifier of comparison.

Both participle I indefinite and participle II are introduced by the conjunctions *as if*, *as though*:

She ran to the house as if trying to escape.

She nodded as if convinced by what was saying.

4. Adverbial modifier of manner/attendant circumstances.

Participle I can have both functions, which sometimes combine:

She was busy cooking in the kitchen. (manner)

The girl was sitting in the corner weeping bitterly. (attendant circumstances)

He came running to see what was going on. (manner)

She came knocking on the door. (manner or attendant circumstances)

Participle II denoting manner is introduced by *as*:

Fill in the application form as instructed.

Note that the verbs *come* and *go* are used with the infinitive to denote purpose:

She went/came to see the new house.

Come is used with the infinitive as object to denote a gradual change:

She came to like the song.

Come and *go* are used with participle I to describe manner or activity:

She came rushing.

He went hunting in the woods.

5. Adverbial modifier of condition.

Participle II is used here after the conjunction *if*:

The thing is very fragile. If dropped, it can break into very small pieces.

Participle I is used in this function only as part of an absolute participial construction.

6. Adverbial modifier of concession.

Participle II and participle I as adverbial modifiers of concession are introduced by the conjunctions *while, whilst, though*:

While liking dogs, he never let them come into his house.

Though discouraged by the lack of support, she went on trying.

10.3.3.3. Predicative

Both participle I (infinitive) and participle II can be used as predicatives:

The idea itself was disturbing.

She was disappointed.

Note that with participle II the verb *get* can be used instead of *be* in Modern English:

They tell us that in the end the criminal always gets caught.

The subject somehow got taught.

10.3.3.4. Parenthesis

Both participle I and participle II are used in parenthetical expressions: *frankly/generally speaking, judging by appearances, stated/put bluntly*:

Put bluntly, she had no chance of winning.

10.3.3.5. Dangling Participle

As has been said, we often use participles instead of finite clauses when the subject does not change. The normal attachment rule for both participle I and participle II is that their subject is assumed to be identical in reference to the subject of the finite verb.

Getting into the train, she remembered that she had forgotten the ticket. (= When she was getting... she....)

Sometimes, however, ambiguous sentences may be found:

**Waiting on the platform, a policeman arrested him.*

In this case it is not clear who was waiting on the platform, *he* or the *policeman*. This participle is called "misrelated" or "dangling" and should be avoided. Sometimes misrelated participles occur in sentences with it as subject:

Having missed the train, it seemed wise to me not to go at all.
When using the device, it must be remembered that...

It is a formal subject in these sentences and cannot serve as a subject to the participial phrase. Possible variants here are:

As I missed the train, it seemed...
When using the device, you/one should remember...

Some participles (*considering, regarding, speaking*) are habitually used in sentences where they might be thought to dangle:

Speaking of fruit, does anyone want an apple?
Regarding of political authorities, the most obvious danger is of a change of government.

However, such sentences are quite acceptable, since the participles function here as prepositions or conjunctions.

11. ADJECTIVES

In English adjectives form a word-class which serves to attribute a property or characteristic to the noun. Adjectives have three basic functions: premodifier of a noun (*a small house, a beautiful woman, an important decision*), subject predicative (*Our house is small but comfortable; Mary is beautiful*) and object predicative (*We all considered the Committee's decision important*).

11.1. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ADJECTIVES

Looking at an English word in isolation, we cannot tell which particular word-class it represents. Many adjectives are derived from words of other word-classes. It is mainly through their syntactic function that we recognize certain words as adjectives. Moreover, word-formation through conversion further complicates classification by parts of speech since the same word can be used as noun, verb, adjective, preposition etc. "A Grammar of Contemporary English" (R. Quirk et al.) gives examples of the word *round* representing several different classes of words. Cf.: *a round of golf* (noun); *They round the corner* (verb); *a round object* (adjective); *He came round to see us* (adverb, BrE); *They sat round the table* (preposition).

However, there is a vast number of English adjectives that can be recognized by their **adjectival suffixes** and **prefixes**. Based on affixation, we can identify three structural subclasses of adjectives: **simple adjectives**, **derivative adjectives** and **compound adjectives**.

1. Simple (monosyllabic or disyllabic) adjectives. They are one-stem words without prefixes or suffixes: *big, brown, light, nice, clever, effete, rancid*, etc.

2. Derivative adjectives are derived from other words by means of suffixes, prefixes or both. The typical adjectival suffixes are:

- able / -ible: *comfortable, suitable, sensible, credible;*
- al: *accidental, medical, global;*
- ant / -ent: *indignant, stagnant, intelligent, ancient;*

- en:** *golden, woolen, silken;*
- ful:** *useful, careful, doubtful;*
- ic:** *dramatic, ironic, heroic;*
- ish:** *feverish, reddish, childish;*
- ive:** *active, comprehensive, corrective;*
- less:** *hopeless, harmless, careless;*
- ly:** *lovely, friendly, orderly;*
- ous:** *famous, curious, ambitious;*
- some:** *quarrelsome, burdensome, troublesome;*
- y:** *heavy, hungry, pretty.*

Some adjectives are derived from participles and, therefore, retain the participial endings:

- ing:** *interesting, charming, tempting;*
- ed:** *beloved, dilapidated, degraded.*

The majority of adjectival prefixes negate the property described by the stem: **un-**: *happy — unhappy, legal — illegal; im-*: *proper — improper; in-*: *significant — insignificant.*

The Latin prefixes **pre-** and **post-** are used to form time-related adjectives from noun or adjective stems:

- pre-**: *prewar, preschool, preglacial, premillennial, prenatal;*
- post-**: *postwar, postgraduate, postglacial, postmillennial, postnatal.*

3. Many **compound adjectives** consist of two or more stems: *bottle-green, light-hearted, one-sided, man-eating, tongue-tied, wind-blown, day-to-day, out-of-date, etc.* They may be either hyphenated or written as one word.

11.2. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Two factors make it difficult to compile an unambiguous semantic classification of adjectives:

1. It is hard to think of states or properties as distinct from particular things that are in these states or have these properties. One cannot visualize objects that correspond to words describing properties and characteristics. Instead, there are things in particular states or having particular properties to which the combination of noun plus modifying adjective corresponds.

2. Due to conversion and homonymy, it is difficult to base a classification of adjectives on the presence or absence of particular semantic

features. Many existing classifications overlap because an adjective can fit a classification in one of its meanings, but not in others.

We will consider three mainstream semantic subclassifications of adjectives: **inherent / noninherent**, **static / dynamic**, and **gradable / non gradable**. All three to a large extent determine the syntactic functions and usage of the **adjectival word-class**.

1. Inherent / noninherent

According to their meaning adjectives fall into two semantic subclasses: **inherent adjectives** and **noninherent adjectives**. The core of the subclass of inherent adjectives consists of adjectives which describe permanent and inseparable properties of things or states. These properties or states include composition (*woolen, wooden, metallic*), physical state (*solid, liquid, porous, hard*), nationality / provenance (*French, American, Russian*); function (*mechanical, automatic, operational*); field of knowledge (*scientific, mathematical, linguistic*)²⁹.

The subclass of noninherent adjectives describes noninherent characteristics, i. e. those which do not constitute an essential element of specific things or states, and are, therefore, sometimes called descriptive adjectives. They include size (*big, small, tall, short*), position (*close, far, low, high*), and evaluation, ethical, aesthetic, economic (*moral, beautiful, cost-effective*).

The difference between inherent and noninherent adjectives can be seen from the following examples:

a silken dress — a dress made of silk. (*Silken* is an inherent property, permanent and inseparable from the referent (*dress*).)

silken skin — very smooth, healthy skin. (*Silken* is a noninherent (descriptive) adjective which provides the evaluation of the referent (*skin*).)

Cf. some other examples: *a wooden house / a wooden actor; a metallic construction / a metallic voice; an astronomical year / an astronomical sum*.

However, in Modern English grammar the notion of inherent adjectives is extended to all adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly. Thus, *old* in the noun phrase *old man* is considered an inherent adjective while *old* in *old friend* is looked upon as a noninherent adjective (because it qualifies not the person as a whole, but rather a certain characteristic / aspect: an old friend is not necessarily an old man or woman). Cf.: *an old man* — *This man is old*, but not *an old friend* — **This friend is old*.

The semantic differences between inherent and noninherent adjectives have a bearing upon their position within a string of premodi-

²⁹ Inherent adjectives coincide with the Russian subclass of *относительные прилагательные*.

fiers: inherent adjectives come closer to the noun than noninherent adjectives. Cf.: *a very old brown wooden house*, but not **a wooden brown very old house*; *a beautiful young Russian woman* but not **a Russian young beautiful woman*.

2. Static/dynamic

There are certain similarities in the way verbs and adjectives function in the sentence. Accordingly, verbal characteristics can be also applied to adjectives, as in the distinction between static and dynamic adjectives. The opposition static/dynamic is related to whether a verb or an adjective (as predicative) can be used in the progressive form or in the imperative. Cf.:

John was working on the problem all day (dynamic), but not
**John was knowing the problem* (static).

Work on this problem until you solve it! (dynamic), but not **Know the problem!* (static).

A similar distinction can be drawn among adjectives. Although in most cases adjectives are static, a considerable number of them can acquire dynamic features when they refer to aspects of human behaviour, i. e. states and processes which a person can control. Cf.: *John is being difficult/careful/troublesome today*, but not: **John is being tall/young today*. Also *Be careful/cheerful! Don't be shy/greedy!* but not **Be tall/slim! Don't be old/fat!* There are many examples of adjectives that have dynamic features :

abusive, ambitious, brave, careful, careless, complacent, cruel, disagreeable, enthusiastic, extravagant, faithful, foolish, friendly, funny, generous, good, greedy, hasty, helpful, impatient, irritable, jealous, kind, lenient, loyal, mischievous, naughty, nice, noisy, serious, shy, slow, stubborn, stupid, suspicious, tactful, thoughtful, forgetful, timid, troublesome, vicious, vulgar, wicked, etc.

3. Gradable/non-gradable

Depending on their morphological structure and meaning (inherent/noninherent), English adjectives can take either inflected or periphrastic forms of the comparative and superlative degree. Let us first consider the rules of formation and spelling rules. The marker of the comparative degree is *-er* while that of the superlative degree is *-est* (note that the definite article *the* is nearly always placed in front of the superlative form of an adjective). Monosyllabic and disyllabic adjectives (ending in *-y, -ow, -er, -ie* as well as those with the last syllable stressed) take the inflected forms of the comparative and superlative degree:

*tall — taller — the tallest,
narrow — narrower — the narrowest.*

There are several spelling rules that should be remembered when forming the comparatives and the superlatives:

a) if a monosyllabic adjective ends in a (written) consonant, this consonant is doubled in the comparative and superlative forms:

*fat — fatter — the fattest,
big — bigger — the biggest.*

Most monosyllabic adjectives with inflected comparatives can also take the periphrastic forms especially when they are used predicatively and are followed by a *than* clause: *Nick is more fat than John is³⁰*;

b) if the base ends in a mute -e or in -ee, e is dropped before the inflection:

*grave — graver — the gravest,
free — freer — the freest;*

c) if a disyllabic adjective ends in -y which is preceded by a consonant, -y is replaced by -i in the comparative and superlative forms:

*dirty — dirtier — the dirtiest,
happy — happier — the happiest.*

Note that if -y is preceded by a vowel, it remains unchanged:

grey — greyer — the greyest.

When the adjective denotes a lower intensity of a particular property in the referent, it is preceded by *less* in the comparative degree and *the least* in the superlative degree, no matter whether the adjective is mono- or polysyllabic: *tall — less tall — the least tall; dirty — less dirty — the least dirty, important — less important — the least important*. Note that the adjective *lesser* is used to denote a comparatively smaller extent, degree or importance of the referent:

These customs are common in Europe and to a lesser extent in America.

Polysyllabic adjectives take periphrastic forms of the comparative and superlative degrees: the adjective is preceded by an adverb which indicates the degree of intensity of the property. For the comparative degree, the adverb *more* is used; for the superlative — *most*:

*important — more important — the most important,
beautiful — more beautiful — the most beautiful.*

Adjectives preceded by *most* are not always superlatives. *Most* can be used as an intensifier with the meaning of *very, highly, extremely*. In this case it is used without the definite article: *The news*

³⁰ There is a *more... than* construction which functions with certain restrictions. The first adjective in this construction cannot take an inflected form: *He was more angry than frightened*, but not * *He was angrier than frightened*.

was most disturbing; The presentation was most interesting. If an adjective is part of a noun phrase, *most* is preceded by the indefinite article: *It was a most exciting experience.*

Several evaluative adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives irregularly:

<i>good</i>	—	<i>better</i>	—	<i>the best,</i>
<i>well (healthy)</i>	—	<i>better</i>	—	<i>the best,</i>
<i>bad</i>	—	<i>worse</i>	—	<i>the worst,</i>
<i>many</i>	—	<i>more</i>	—	<i>the most,</i>
<i>much</i>	—	<i>more</i>	—	<i>the most,</i>
<i>little (+ noncount)</i>	—	<i>less</i>	—	<i>the least.</i>

The adjectives *far* and *old* have two sets of comparatives and superlatives:

<i>far</i>	—	<i>farther</i>	—	<i>the farthest,</i>
<i>far</i>	—	<i>further</i>	—	<i>the furthest,</i>
<i>old</i>	—	<i>older</i>	—	<i>the oldest,</i>
<i>old</i>	—	<i>elder</i>	—	<i>the eldest.</i>

There is a slight difference in meaning between the two sets of comparatives and superlatives of the adjective *far*. The first set usually refers to distances:

The town was located a little farther south than we expected.

The comparative form of the second set is used to convey the idea of "another, additional":

For further information contact the organizing committee of the conference. Any further assistance is out of the question.

The forms *elder* and *eldest* are restricted in both their position and meaning: they are used only attributively and only with reference to family members or a closely related circle of people: *Peter is John's elder brother; Mary is the eldest daughter in the family; We consulted our elder colleagues.* The comparative *elder* is also used in the set phrase *an elder statesman* referring to a retired person whose opinion and advice are sought by his/her colleagues, friends, etc.

The semantic oppositions inherent/noninherent and static/dynamic are closely connected with gradability. Most noninherent, dynamic adjectives are gradable, while the core of the inherent adjectives and some static adjectives are non-gradable.

Most inherent adjectives (referring to composition, provenance, nationality, or field of knowledge) do not permit either inflected or periphrastic comparative or superlative forms: **This woman is Frencher than that one; This is the Frenchest woman I know; This house is more wooden than that one; This house is the most wooden*

in the whole village. On the other hand, noninherent adjectives that denote such characteristics as dimension and evaluation, form both comparatives and superlatives. Cf.:

This house is bigger than that one.

This is the biggest house in the whole village.

This woman is more beautiful than that one.

She is the most beautiful woman I know.

11.3. COMPARATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS WITH ADJECTIVES

When we focus on comparing people and things, we can follow three directions of comparison.

1. Higher intensity:

John is taller than Peter.

John is the tallest of the students.

If personal pronouns occur in the second part of the comparative construction, they are used in the nominative case in formal contexts:

John is taller than I.

John is taller than I am;

or in the objective case in informal conversation:

John is taller than me/him.

2. Same intensity:

John is as tall as Peter.

Mary is as beautiful as Julie.

Note that negative constructions in this case can take two forms: *John is not as tall as Peter* or *John is not so tall as Peter*. These constructions are interchangeable.

3. Lower intensity:

John is less tall (shorter) than Peter.

John is the least tall of the students.

Mary is less beautiful than Julie.

Mary is the least beautiful of the students.

In this case, we shall note the functional difference between *less* and *fewer* when they denote quantity. *Less* refers to noncount nouns: *less water, less space, less effort*, while *fewer* describes smaller numbers of countable objects. In Modern English, especially American English this difference is frequently neglected: *Fewer students than*

*we expected came to the meeting, not *Less students than we expected came to the meeting.*

All gradable adjectives are characterized by the use of **adverbial intensifiers** such as *very, rather, considerably, highly, extensively, extremely: a rather interesting book, a very big house, an extremely difficult problem, a highly competitive job, etc.* However, the intensifiers cannot be used with inherent adjectives. Cf.: **a rather wooden house, *an extremely French language, *a rather mathematical solution.*

It should be noted that evaluative adjectives denoting a highly intensive positive or negative characteristic do not take intensifiers (esp. *very*): **very wonderful, *very outrageous, *highly disgusting, etc.* Cf. with Russian: **очень прекрасный, *очень отвратительный.*

Intensifying premodifiers can precede both comparative (*much, very much, a great deal, a good deal, far, a lot, and, informally, lots, heaps*) and superlative (*very, much, quite, by far*) adjectives:

The new version of his essay is much better/much more convincing.

The new version of his essay is so very much better/so very much more convincing.

The new version of his essay is a lot better/a lot more convincing.

The new version of his essay is a good deal better/a good deal more convincing.

They worried about the growing tendency of the very best professionals to leave the country.

They were much the most dangerous people in the city.

She is by far the best teacher.

She is the best teacher by far.

Note that *very* can only be used with superlative adjectives formed by adding *-est* and with irregular superlatives. It is placed between the and the superlative form of an adjective. *Much* precedes the superlative and *by far* may both precede and follow it.

Downtoning modifiers (*rather, a little, a little bit, hardly, scarcely, somewhat*) are predominantly used with comparative adjectives:

The new version of his essay is rather/somewhat better/more convincing.

The new version of his essay is a little/a little bit better/more convincing.

The new version of his essay is scarcely/hardly better/more convincing.

Russian and English differ dramatically in the formation of their superlatives. While in Russian superlative phrases like *самый худший/самый лучший учитель* can be easily formed, in English similar phrases are not acceptable. Cf.: **the most best/worst teacher.*

11.4. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

As noted above, the syntactic function of a word is the only reliable way of determining its word-class attribution. Adjectives have two main functions: that of modifiers of nouns and that of predicatives. Although most adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively, there are some adjectives that can only be used as modifiers or predicatives.

11.4.1. Adjectives as Modifiers of Nouns

1. Adjectives that can be used both attributively and predicatively are usually termed “central adjectives” because they form the core of the adj ectival word-class. Central adjectives include all noninherent (descriptive) and dynamic adjectives as well as those inherent adjectives which refer to colour and dimension. Cf.:

a lovely house — Their new house is lovely.

a tall man — John is tall.

a heavy bag — My bag is heavy.

a white blouse — Her blouse is white.

Adjectives as modifiers of nouns can either characterize the referent as a whole or denote specific aspects of it. The first group of noun phrases is represented by the following examples: *a large house, an old man, a scientific problem*, etc. The second group of noun phrases includes evaluative adjectives characterizing their referents through their activity or function: *a good knife* (= a knife that cuts well), *an excellent car* (= a car that drives well), *a good soldier* (= a soldier who fights well), *a good swimmer* (= a swimmer who swims fast).

The meaning of the adjective in a noun phrase can also depend on the meaning of the noun it refers to. With animate nouns, such adjectives as *sad, gloomy, happy, merry* describe the state of the referent: *a sad girl, a happy mother, a gloomy passenger*. If the noun is inanimate, the adjective acquires a causative meaning: *a sad book* (= a book that makes the reader sad), *a gloomy house* (= a house that makes people feel uncomfortable/sad); *a happy environment* (= an environment that makes people feel good).

Adjectives are most frequently used before the noun they modify. They may also be used as postpositives. Postpositives fall into four groups:

a) cliches: *the president elect* (= a newly elected president who hasn't taken the office yet); *the Security Council members proper*

(= strictly defined as members of the Council); the parties concerned / involved; the funds available, etc.

Some of them can also be used in pre-position: the available funds, the concerned parties;

- b) legal terms: *court martial*; *attorney general*, *notary public*, etc.;
- c) adjectives representing a reduced relative clause:

The people (who were) present at the rally opposed the new law.

They have a car (which is) more expensive than mine.

Complications (which are) possible during the postoperative period will be dangerous for the patient's condition;

d) complex indefinite pronouns such as *somebody*, *anybody*, *nobody*, *something*, *anything*, *nothing*, etc. can be modified only post-positively:

Anyone (who is) responsible would have turned off all the lights before leaving the building.

There is nothing (which is) interesting on the TV tonight.

What will you eat? — I'd like to try something (which is) exotic.

2. There are several groups of intensifying adjectives that are restricted to the attributive position:

1) **emphasizers**, such as *mere*, *sheer*, *outright*: *sheer waste*, *utter slander*, *sole occupant*, *chief executive*, *entire population*, *entire income*, *utter folly*, *mere child*;

2) **amplifiers**, such as *main*, *entire*, *chief*, *sole*, *utter*: *main evidence*, *entire income*, *chief witness*, *sole occupant*, *utter stupidity*.

None of the above adjectives can be used predicatively.

Another group of amplifiers can be used only attributively in one sense and as central adjectives in another. These include *absolute*, *complete*, *real*, *total*, *perfect*, and some others. Cf.:

a complete loser — **The loser is complete.* (= законченный неудачник — *Неудачник был законченный);

a complete failure — *The failure was complete.* (= полная неудача — Неудача была полной.)

In the first case the adjective describes a specific aspect of the person, while in the second it describes the referent in its entirety. Cf. also: *total rubbish* — **The rubbish was total; total defeat* — *Their defeat was total.*

Some adjectives which are attributive only show a clear connection with adverbs: *the present minister* (= presently a minister), *a former president* (= formerly a president); *an occasional visitor* (= occasionally a visitor).

11.4.2. Adjectives Used as Predicatives

Predicative adjectives can modify the subject or the object of a sentence.

11.4.2.1. Adjectives as Subject Predicatives

There is a whole range of verbs that can serve as linking verbs between the subject of the sentence and the adjectival predicate. The verb *be* is undoubtedly at the top of the list. The other linking verbs can be divided into two groups.

The first group includes:

a) opinion verbs such as *appear, seem*:

The woman appeared/seemed sad.

The house appeared/seemed suitable for a large family;

b) phrasal verbs denoting change of state of the referent: *become, grow, turn, remain*:

He has become more responsible at his work place lately.

His friends grew old and boring.

Her hair turned white from constant worries.

The audience remained silent.

The second group consists of verbs related to the senses: *look, smell, taste, sound, and feel*. Cf.:

She looked/sounded happy.

The flowers smelt beautiful.

The food tasted delicious.

He felt strong and healthy.

Special attention should be paid to the differences in the use of adjectives and adverbs denoting evaluation, namely: *bad/badly* and *good/well*.

Bad/badly. When a verb functions as a linking verb, only the adjective *bad* can be used. Cf.: *The students felt bad* (physically or morally), but not **The students felt badly*; *The food smelt bad*, not **The food smelt badly*. After action verbs only the adverb *badly* should be used: *She sings badly; They work badly*.

Good/well. The word *well* can function both as an adjective and as an adverb. The same rule as in *bad/badly* applies here: if the word *well* follows a linking verb, it is an adjective: *You look well* (= you look to be in good health). After the linking verbs *be, feel* and *look* the meaning is usually restricted to the referent's physical state. In other contexts the adjective *good* is used. Cf.: *She looks good in this dress* (= this dress becomes her). However, after action verbs the word *well* is treated as an adverb: *She sings well* (= she sings beautifully); *He writes well* (= he writes skilfully).

There are also miscellaneous action verbs which can take both adjectives and adverbs as compliments without any semantic changes:

She bought her house cheap / cheaply.

She drives her car slow / slowly.

He always speaks loud / loudly.

They came back quick / quickly.

Adjectives as predicatives can take complements, i.e. they can be followed by prepositional phrases. A large group of adjectives take prepositions in the predicative position:

at: *He is good at mathematics.*

She is expert at driving.

about: *She is crazy about her fiance.*

The students are concerned about their jobs.

You are wrong about it.

The children were excited about the trip.

for: *We are grateful for his help.*

She is famous for her discoveries.

These clothes are suitable for cold weather.

These toys are safe for small children.

from: *They are free from all accusations.*

John is different from Mary.

in: *John and Mary are different in their tastes.*

Russia is rich in minerals.

The man was blind in the left eye.

of: *He is capable of anything.*

They are guilty of a heinous crime.

We are confident / sure of our success.

They are critical of the new government.

He is jealous / envious of other people's success.

Parents are usually proud of their children.

We are sick of those regulations.

She was conscious / aware of being trapped.

We were ignorant of their plans.

She is fond of hiking.

We are suspicious of their intentions.

The result of the experiment was worth of all the effort.

on: *Jim is keen on visiting France.*

Children are dependent on their parents.

to: *Jinni is grateful to her friends.*

Their mistake is evident to all of us.

Their position is superior to ours.

She did not feel equal to facing the defeat.

He was attentive to all their requests.

We have always been true to our friends.

Sleep is necessary to health.

with: *Our professors were happy with our results at the examination.*

The director was furious with his employee for his sloppy work.

Besides prepositional complements, predicative adjectives can take the infinitive as a complement (*He was happy to see his family again*) or a *that*-clause (*I am sorry that you have to hear all of this*).

11.4.2.2. Adjectives as Object Predicatives

Adjectives as object predicatives are used with opinion verbs such as *consider, think, believe*:

We consider her responsible.

They thought him stupid.

Adjectives as object predicatives are used in various causative constructions:

She made everyone around her miserable. (= Her behaviour caused everyone around her to be miserable.)

He pushed the door open. (the result is that the door is open)

She tied the rope tight and started climbing the rock.

11.4.2.3. Adjectives that are Predicative Only

Predicative adjectives resemble verbs and adverbs. They usually denote a temporary state of a person or thing. Some of them begin with an *a-* and are, therefore, called *a-adjectives*:

The man is asleep.

We stayed awake all night.

The boat is afloat.

The house is ablaze.

We are afraid of reforms.

Lie is aware of the deceit.

They all look alike to me.

The victim was still alive when the police arrived.

She was alone in the house.

In addition to *a-adjectives* there are other adjectives that can be used only as predicatives: *glad, loath, tantamount, subject*. They take complements — to-infinitives or prepositional phrases with the preposition *to*:

We were glad to see Mary.

I am loath to sell my old furniture.

Their statement is tantamount to a threat.

He was subject to unprecedented humiliation.

11.4.3. Adjectives and Nouns

Full conversion of adjectives into nouns is not typical of the English language. Most nouns derived from adjectives are the result of ellipsis, e. g.:

The students were reluctant to take the finals so early. (finals = final examinations)

I'd like a pint of bitter, please. (bitter = type of beer)

The blacks and the whites in this small town are trying to reach a compromise on school reform.

However, adjectives are frequently used as heads of noun phrases without reaching full conversion. There are certain restrictions on their use: a) substantivized adjectives always take the definite article; b) they do not have the category of number; c) they do not inflect for the genitive case; d) their referents are plural or generic:

The young are prepared to change the world.

The poor are getting desperate.

The rich have lost all sense of reality.

It should be noted that adjectives denoting nationalities can be used in both the singular and the plural when they function as nouns: *a Russian/the Russians/Russians; an American/the Americans/Americans.*

11.4.4. Adjective Sentences and Clauses

In some cases adjectives can form sentences and clauses.

Exclamatory Adjective Sentences. When we are overwhelmed by an emotion, adjectives serve as the easiest means of expressing excitement or disgust: *How nice of you! How wonderful! Gorgeous! Excellent! How perfectly disgusting! Absolutely outrageous!*

Supplementive Adjective Clauses. The supplementive adjective clause is another example of an elliptical clause, with only the adjective remaining on the surface. Clauses of this type are not common in everyday conversations. They can be found in fiction, newspaper reports and in stage directions. They usually precede the sentence:

Angry and disappointed, I gave the dean and his secretary a piece of my mind.

Most important, the new developments at the front-line seemed promising for the allies.

12. ADVERBS

The adverb was comparatively recently recognized as a major part of speech. It adds information about an action, a property or a statement. Because it is a highly heterogeneous word-class, linguists still differ on its boundaries. The problem is further obscured by the fact that many grammarians discuss adverbials rather than adverbs, including in this category, alongside adverbs proper, also prepositional and non-prepositional groups such as *last May, over the weekend, just after midnight*, as well as set expressions such as *at last, in detail, for sure, in all probability*, on the basis of their modifying function. Although they are functionally similar to adverbs, they form morphologically distinct subsets. Therefore they will be viewed here as lying outside the scope of the present discussion.

Adverbs proper include both open-class and closed-system items.

Open-class items constitute a set that can be indefinitely extended by using productive adverbial affixes and/or compounding (*happily, anticlockwise, overboard*).

Closed-system items constitute a fixed set whose members can be listed and change relatively little from one period of language history to another (*already, yesterday, there, hence, above, etc.*).

In terms of communication register, some adverbs are felt to be informal (*someplace, anyways, anyhow* (AmE)), whereas some others are restricted to very formal written English (*thenceforward, there-upon, whereby*).

An adverb can be part of compound or composite words, such as:

a) **compound adjectives**: *politically-minded people* (but: *broadminded/narrow-minded people*), *his long-awaited arrival, a long-drawn-out novel, a high-rise building*;

b) **compound nouns**: *a high-flyer, well-being, a go-between, a holdup*;

c) **phrasal verbs³¹**: *touch down, tear apart, talk away, etc.*;

d) **composite (correlative) conjunctions**: *hardly... when, scarcely... when, barely... when, no sooner... than*.

As a part of speech, the adverb is distinguished by specific meaning, form and function.

³¹ Phrasal verbs are only conventionally listed here with compound words; their morphological status remains undetermined.

12.1. SEMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVERBS

The categorial meaning of the adverb can be broadly defined as property of an action or of a property. Some of the adverbs show how, when or where something happens (*tenderly, nowadays, away*) or indicate the extent of quality (*fully, exceedingly, enough, very*); others express an evaluation of what is being said either with respect to the form of the utterance or to its content (*literally, regretfully*) still others serve as discourse markers, expressing the logical ordering of ideas in discourse (*secondly, next*). Accordingly, the classification of adverbs based on their meaning and supplemented by semantic function, normally includes the following headings.

Adverbs of time, which express a particular point in time or a time period (*now, recently*), duration (*long*) and frequency (*often, seldom, regularly*). Some of the time adverbs identify a period of time directly (*nowadays, always*); others identify a period of time indirectly, by implying another point of time understood from the context: *subsequently* (i. e. soon after another event), *ultimately* (i. e. after a series of other events), *simultaneously* (i. e. at the same time as another event), etc. There is also a subgroup of "relative time" adverbs: *already, still, yet*.

Adverbs of place, which denote place, direction and distance: *downtown, anywhere, forwards, around, near*.

Adverbs of manner, which describe the way the action is carried out, the means or the instrument used: *drive carelessly, electronically tested, examine microscopically*. The meaning of manner can be blended with other meanings:

He translated the book perfectly. (manner with result)

I was walking slowly. (manner with time)

Adverbs of degree, also termed **adverbs of extent**, with the subtypes of **intensifiers**, denoting a high degree: *too, completely*; and **downtoners**, suggesting an incomplete or low degree: *somewhat, pretty*.

The adverb *rather* can be used as either an intensifier, to add force to a statement, or a downtoner, to reduce the force of a criticism or to make a statement less direct. Cf.:

He was fond of gardening and grew rather fine roses. (an intensifier)

I was rather puzzled by their reaction. (a downtoner)

When the intensifier *too* combines with the particles *not* and *only*, it takes on additional shades of meaning. *Not too* is used as a form of understatement to convey irony:

*She was not too happy to be left out.
He's not too quick on the uptake.*

Only too means very in contexts like this:

I'll be only too glad to lend you a hand.

In familiar speech, some adverbs of degree (i. e. *awfully*, *terribly*, *frightfully*, etc.) have little meaning apart from their emotive force. Note that they can be used to intensify expressions of both positive and negative emotions:

We were terribly upset.

The party was terribly exciting.

In a formal style, the degree adverb *much*, which normally combines with *very*, can stand alone before certain verbs, but only in mid-position:

I much admire your achievement.

We much regret the controversy that precludes further cooperation.

Adverbs of viewpoint (or **adverbs of aspect**), which express the idea that we are looking at a situation from a particular aspect or point of view: *historically*, *financially*, *grammatically*, etc. Viewpoint adverbs can modify a noun, an adjective or a whole sentence:

The English language is orthographically a hybrid.

Nouns like "chairperson" and "flight attendant" are politically correct.

Moneywise, Paul is very careful if not mean. / What are you going to do moneywise?

Grammatically (speaking), this structure is quite acceptable.

Truth adverbs (or **sentential adverbs**, or **modal words**), which express what the speaker has to say about the truth of an utterance, or the speaker's assessment of the event as possible, predictable, etc., for instance: *perhaps*, *undoubtedly*, *allegedly*, *presumably*, etc.:

Tips are included, presumably.

He has certainly done his best.

The goalkeeper allegedly broke his leg.

Although the adverbs *yes*, *no* and *please* clearly stand apart, they can, with certain reservations, be classed with sentential adverbs.

Comment adverbs (or **adverbs of opinion**), which express the speaker's attitude to what s/he is saying or why s/he is saying it: *funnily*, *luckily*, *frankly*, etc.:

Unfortunately, his last novel was rejected by the publisher.

The fraud didn't receive any media coverage, surprisingly.

*Ironically (enough), she developed the very traits of character
— that she hated in other people.*

Linking adverbs, with the subsets of

a) **conjunctive adverbs** (*also, consequently, otherwise, yet, nevertheless, etc.*), which express the logical and semantic relationship between statements in a multiple sentence or in discourse:

You'd better pay at once; otherwise, they will charge you a considerable interest (a conjunctive adverb expressing contrast);

b) **text adverbs**, or discourse markers (*secondly, anyway, incidentally, etc.*), which show how discourse is organized in terms of topic development and ordering:

That was Cynthia Smith. Incidentally, her father is running for governor. (a text adverb expressing a change of subject)

I wish I hadn't taken sides with them. Anyway, it doesn't matter now. (a text adverb expressing dismissal of the previous statement(s))

Focus adverbs, which are otherwise treated as particles³²: *even, only, just, etc.* They differ from the other subclasses of adverbs in that their meaning is context-dependent. In other words, they can hardly be said to have a lexical meaning of their own; rather, they have a pragmatic function. Focus adverbs combine with various parts of the sentence, making their meaning more salient:

I must ask you yet again to keep to the point.

He did not mean to insult you; he only / merely offered you a loan.

That's just what the doctor ordered.

Many of George's friends, and indeed / even George himself, had no idea what was about to happen.

Some of the focus adverbs convey an added meaning of the speaker's attitude:

My son's exhausted. — Exhausted indeed! He's just playing truant. (ironic)

Sometimes it is difficult to draw the line between adverbs of degree and intensifying adverbs:

The explanations were far / all too complicated.

She's still better as Ophelia than she was in the part of Juliet.

³² Structural particles, words like *not* and the infinitive particle *to*, are not included in the group of focus adverbs, as they are used for structural rather than pragmatic purposes.

Note that there is a great deal of overlapping among the subclasses of adverbs. Cf.:

She looked at me strangely. (an adverb of manner)

Strangely, they never turned up. (a comment adverb)

So far we have dealt with prose fiction. Now, the crown of literature is poetry. (a linking adverb (discourse marker))

I'm now taking a course of university management. (an adverb of time)

How ever did you manage to appease her? (an adverb of degree)

Have you ever tasted oysters? (an adverb of time)

You can easily score 20 on the cloze test. (an adverb of manner + result)

She is easily (= without doubt) the best instructor in college. (a truth adverb)

Their new baby is absolutely adorable! (an adverb of degree)

Do you think so? — Absolutely! (a truth adverb)

The visitors have just arrived. (an adverb of time)

Don't worry, it's just a peal of thunder. (a focus adverb)

Note also that there can be a difference in pronunciation. When the adverbs *altogether* and *absolutely* come before the word they modify, serving as intensifiers, the stress falls on the first syllable; when they come after the word (*The two approaches are different altogether*) or when they stand alone (*Absolutely!* — serving as truth adverb), the main stress falls on the third syllable, while the first syllable has the secondary stress.

A few instances of overlapping notably meet with disapproval on the part of grammarians. For instance, *hopefully* is essentially a manner adverb:

"Do we have any chance of winning?" he asked hopefully.

In recent years, however, it has been increasingly used as a comment adverb:

Hopefully, (= It is hoped that; We hope that) the industrial dispute will have been settled by the end of this month.

Although it occurs quite often, especially in the language of the media, it is still regarded by many linguists as nonstandard.

Likewise, *regretfully*, which is also primarily a manner adverb (e. g. *She smiled regretfully*) is frequently used as a comment adverb meaning *I regret that* or *It is regrettable that*, but this use remains unacceptable to many careful speakers.

12.2. MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVERBS

Adverbs are varied in form. Their formal, or morphological characteristics allow us to consider adverbs from the point of view of their word-building structure and from the point of view of their variability.

12.2.1. Word-building Structure

Classification of adverbs based on their word-building structure includes the subsets of simple, derivational and compound adverbs.

Simple adverbs consist of a plain stem. They are unrelated to other words: *once, soon, well, perhaps, etc.*

A number of simple adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjectives: *fast, hard, late, right, solo, straight, wrong.*

This piece is to be played solo by the flute / When did you first travel solo? (an adverb)

There's a famous solo passage for the flute in Bach's Second Suite. (an adjective)

Don't take me wrong. (an adverb)

Sorry, wrong number. (an adjective)

You mustn't drive so fast on a slippery road. (an adverb)

Is this a fast train? (an adjective)

The choice between the forms with or without -ly is often determined by idiomatic usage. Cf.: *tightly (= closely; strictly) packed/bound / controlled; to sit tight (= wait quietly and patiently).*

There are also cases when the simple adverb and the corresponding adjective differ in meaning. Cf.:

Adverb	Adjective
<i>I clean (= completely) forgot about it (informal).</i>	<i>The floor is spotlessly clean.</i>
<i>They rushed clean (= right) through the hedge.</i>	<i>She has a clean driving licence</i>
<i>We were dead tired after the game.</i>	<i>The battery is dead.</i>
<i>The man is fast asleep.</i>	<i>Is this a fast train?</i>

Some simple adverbs are informal variants of derivational adverbs in -ly. Among these, *cheap(ly), loud(ly), quick(ly), slow(ly), direct(ly)* are the most common:

*You can buy floppy disks cheap / cheaply in the market.
Must you talk so loud / loudly?*

Go slow / slowly here.

Our company had to contact the suppliers direct / directly.

Note that *direct* as an adverb is mostly found in BrE in talking about journeys and timetables:

They drove / flew / went direct to Edinburgh.

The form without *-ly* occurs only after the verb or else after the object (if any). Cf.:

*He shouted loud / loudly. But He loudly shouted something to them. (*He loud shouted... .)*

*He rode the bike slow / slowly down the road. But He slowly rode the bike down the road. (*He slow rode the bike... .)*

With longer or less common expressions, and in more formal contexts, the derivational variant with *-ly* is clearly preferred to simple adverbs:

Did you have to criticize the performance so loudly?

The Cabinet ministers need to take action quickly.

In informal AmE, many other adjective forms are also used adverbially:

He behaved real strange.

Drive friendly.

Do you work out regular?

This use, however, is to be avoided in formal contexts.

The simple adverb *first* and its derivational variant *firstly* used as discourse markers are interchangeable:

First / Firstly, we will deal with the problems of morphemic analysis.

Informal AmE makes use of the simple adverbs *real* and *sure*; this use, however, is avoided in formal contexts:

She was real nice to us. (informal)

It sure is snowing. (informal)

Sometimes *easy* is also used adverbially, but this usage is restricted to set expressions: *take it easy; easy come, easy go*, etc.

The adjective and the related adverb in *-ly* sometimes differ in meaning:

The present outline deals with the history of American lexicography. (an adjective)

They will arrive presently / in a short time / soon / directly. (an adverb)

This is hard work. (an adjective)

She has hardly done any work at all recently. (an adverb)

Derivational adverbs are derived from adjectives (*luckily, completely, knowingly, decidedly*³³) and occasionally from nouns (*partly, purposely*), pronouns (*otherwise*), and numerals (*thirdly, fivefold*) by adding adverb-forming affixes.

The most productive adverb-forming suffix is *-ly*. Another frequently found suffix is *-ward / -wards*. The variant *-ward* is more typical of BrE, and the variant *-wards* — of AmE: *backward(s), homeward(s), southward(s)*. However, the form used with phrasal verbs is always without *-s*:

We look forward to hearing from you.

The ship's clocks will be put forward one hour tonight.

Note also the following adverb-forming semi-affixes³⁴:

-wide: *to spread nationwide / worldwide;*

-fold: *to increase threefold / tenfold;*

-wise: *to rotate clockwise / anticlockwise, crosswise,
to get a word in edgewise (or edgeways);*

-ways: *to look at somebody sideways;*

-style: *to ride a horse cowboy-style;*

-fashion: *to lunch picnic-fashion.*

The semi-suffix *-wise* has become particularly productive in recent decades, especially in AmE:

It is not a bad movie, starwise. (= as regards the stars)

Dollarwise, the contract might seem enticing. (= as far as the financial aspect is concerned)

Can you manage transport-wise, or shall I fetch you in my car?

Another formally distinct subset, known as “*a- adverbs*”, is formed with the morpheme *a-* and the stem of a verb, noun or adjective: *abroad, aboard, adrift, ahead, astray, astride*, etc. As the morpheme *a-* is non-productive in present-day English, these items can be described as a transitional category between simple and derivational adverbs:

He was led astray by bad advice.

How can I know what lies ahead?

Welcome aboard!

My uncle taught me how to ride a pony astride.

There are some spelling rules governing the formation of derivational adverbs.

The final *-y* is changed into *-i* before *-ly: funnily, gloomily.*

³³ The fact that some of these adjectives, in their turn, derive from participles is irrelevant to the present discussion.

³⁴ The combining capacity of these morphemes allows treating them as semi-affixes. Clearly, they stand midway between stems and affixes.

Similarly, -y is changed into -i before other adverb affixes: *contrary* — *contrariwise*, *many* — *manifold*. However, -y is kept after a vowel (*coy* — *coyly*) and in one-syllable stems ending in -y (*shy* — *shyly*, *wry* — *wryly*). But *day* — *daily*, *gay* — *gaily*.

There are some other spelling changes, too:

-le > -ly: *gentle* — *gently*, *simple* — *simply*, *feeble* — *feeblely*;

-ic > -ically: *basic* — *basically*, *intrinsic* — *intrinsically*, *ironic* — *ironically*;

-ue > -uly: *true* — *truly*, (*un*)*due* — (*un*)*duly*;

-ll > -lly: *full* — *fully*, *droll* — *drolly*;

-able/-ible > -ably/-ibly: *noticeable* — *noticeably*, *incredible* — *incredibly*.

Note also the following word formations: *whole* — *wholly*, *public* — *publicly*.

There are related pairs of adverbs, with the suffix -ly and without it, which have different meanings. Cf.:

Derivative adverbs	Simple adverbs
<i>There's hardly any food left in the fridge.</i>	<i>I'll have to work hard today.</i>
<i>The novel is nearly finished.</i>	<i>There's a disco quite near.</i>
<i>They praised his work highly.</i>	<i>How high does this kite fly?</i>
<i>He deeply regrets his outburst.</i>	<i>The scuba diver went very deep.</i>
<i>I can't talk freely about my private life.</i>	<i>You can have these brochures free.</i>
<i>I mostly eat cornflakes for breakfast.</i>	<i>Paul spoke most of all.</i>
<i>The problem is fairly easy.</i>	<i>Are you going to fight fair?</i>
<i>Mix the batter with finely chopped nutmeg.</i>	<i>That suits me fine. (informal)</i>
<i>He was justly condemned for his perfidy.</i>	<i>They've just arrived.</i>
<i>These issues are widely discussed.</i>	<i>Open the door wide. The man was wide awake.</i>
<i>You rightly assume that the debate was useless.</i>	<i>I'll be right back.</i>
<i>She spoke to me rather sharply last night.</i>	<i>Can you call me at nine sharp? Turn sharp left after the next lights.</i>
<i>My brother will be back shortly.</i>	<i>He only stopped short of bowing to them. She cut me short when I started speaking.</i>

Derivative adverbs	Simple adverbs
<i>I wrongly supposed that she was reticent.</i>	<i>You guessed wrong; the answer is no.</i>
<i>The baby was dressed prettily.</i>	<i>That's pretty awkward! (informal)</i> <i>Susan married a millionaire; she's sitting pretty.</i>

Although the most productive adverb-forming affix is *-ly*, it is not peculiar to adverbs alone. A few words ending in *-ly* occur as both adverbs and adjectives. The most common is perhaps *early*:

It's the early bird that catches the worm. (an adjective)
He called me terribly early this morning. (an adverb)

The word *kindly* is used in the same way:

Everyone had a great affection for the old man: he was a gentle, kindly soul. (an adjective)
She spoke kindly to me. (an adverb)

Some adverbs of frequency also coincide in form with adjectives: *daily*, *weekly*, *monthly*, and *yearly*. However, they are less frequent as adverbs than the corresponding noun phrases used as adverbial modifiers: *every day*, *each week*, etc. Besides, the use of these adverbs suggests that something is done according to schedule or obligation rather than personal commitment. Cf.:

Financial reports are issued weekly.
I visit my grandparents every week.

The adverbs *weekly*, *monthly* and *yearly* are often replaced with prepositional noun phrases:

I get paid on a monthly basis.
They paid him a monthly fee.

Note that there are a number of adjectives in English which end in *-ly* and can therefore be confusing, as they may look like adverbs to a non-native speaker:

<i>comely</i>	<i>friendly</i>	<i>lively</i>	<i>orderly</i>
<i>costly</i>	<i>homely</i>	<i>lovely</i>	<i>scholarly</i>
	<i>leisurely</i>	<i>motherly</i>	

These adjectives do not form adverbs by a further addition of *-ly*. However, they combine with the nouns *way*, *manner*, *fashion*, *spirit*, etc. in prepositional phrases to perform a modifying function, e. g. *in a motherly way*, *in a friendly/homely spirit*, *in a scholarly fashion*, *in a leisurely/orderly manner*. Note that the Russian language uses adverbs in these functions: *дружески*, *по-матерински*, *по-домашнему*, *упорядоченно*.

Compound adverbs are generally formed by putting two stems together: *everywhere, hitherto, offhand, headlong, online*, etc.:

We were chatting online all night.

I'm afraid I won't be able to supply this reference offhand.

The man dived headlong/headfirst into the pond.

The company shall henceforth/henceforward be called Lynx.

A few compound adverbs consist of more than two stems: *herein-after, hereinbefore, thereinafter, theretofore*. They occur in very formal contexts.

The three-stem degree adverb *whatsoever* is used for emphasis:

Sorry, but there's nothing whatsoever I can do about it.

Some of the compound adverbs are peculiar only to informal AmE: *everyplace, someplace, anyplace, noplace*.

12.2.2. Variability (Degrees of Comparison)

Another formal criterion is that of variability. Adverbs can be classified as **variable** and **invariable**. Most adverbs are invariable in form. Only a relatively small proportion of adverbs are variable, or **gradable**, i. e. they have the absolute, the comparative and the superlative degree of comparison.

Comparison can be expressed grammatically, by the inflected forms in *-er/-est*, e. g. *fast — faster — (the) fastest*, or lexically, using the adverbs *more/most* to express a higher and the highest degree, and *less/least* for a lesser and the least degree: *effectively — more/less effectively — (the) most/least effectively*.

In intensification, *more* and *less* can be repeated to express a continuing increase and decrease, respectively:

He spoke more and more nervously.

She reacted to the queries less and less adequately.

Short adverbs that coincide in form with adjectives (*early, fast, hard, late, long, low, soon, etc.*) have comparatives and superlatives with the suffixes *-er* and *-est*, respectively:

Can't you walk any faster?

Alex drove (the) fastest and got fined for speeding.

Longer adverbs form degrees of comparison lexically. *Less* and *(the) least* are used with both short and long adverbs.

Practically speaking, the superlative degree of adverbs occurs more rarely than the comparative degree.

Note that the final *-y* changes into *-i-* before the affixes *-er* and *-est* in comparatives and superlatives:

Easier said than done.

Who got up (the) earliest that morning?

There are a few irregular forms of comparison:

well — better — (the) best,

badly — worse — (the) worst,

much — more — (the) most,

little — less — (the) least,

far — farther/further — (the) farthest/(the) furthest.

The adverbs that have variant forms with *-ly* and without *-ly* have two sets of comparative and superlative forms:

You could have bought this video cheaper/more cheaply in the market.

The adverb *often* can have the forms *oftener* and *oftenest*, but the variants with *more/most* are more common by far:

You should feed the goldfish more often.

No article is used with superlative adverbs when we compare the same person or thing in different situations:

Mark sings loudest when he feels happy.

This tendency can best be illustrated using a diagram.

However, the definite article can optionally be used when comparison of different persons or things is made:

He sings (the) loudest of all in the choir.

It should be noted that *the* can also be used with comparatives in certain contexts:

a) in complex sentences with clauses of proportion (see 15.2.5.9. Adverbial Clauses of Proportion):

The harder you work, the sooner you master the tricks of the trade;

She laughed louder the better she understood his broken English;

b) before the infinite in an adverbial modifier of purpose:

"What big teeth you have, Grandmother," said Little Red Riding Hood. "(All) the better to eat you with," answered the Wolf;

c) in the pattern with *not... any the + comparative, none the + comparative*:

He's rather lazy, but I don't like him any the less for it;

He's rather lazy, but I like him none the less for it;

d) in some set expressions: *to be the worse for wear, to be all the better for sth*, etc.

12.3. FUNCTIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADVERBS

Adverbs often coincide in form with members of other word classes. In fact, isolated words do not always allow us to decide what part of speech they represent. It is through their syntactic function that we recognize certain words as adverbs. Cf.:

Is this a through train? (an adjective)

We walked right through the park. (a preposition)

We walked right through. (a place adverb)

We haven't eaten since morning. (a preposition)

I haven't heard from him since he graduated. (a conjunction)

He graduated last year; I haven't heard from him since. (a time adverb)

They sat at a low table. (an adjective)

The servants bowed low. (a manner adverb)

Her voice died away, changing pitch as it faded. (a noun)

The night was pitch dark. (a degree adverb)

Tomorrow is January 27th. (a noun)³⁵

I'll get through to you tomorrow. (a time adverb)

There, now! Be careful what you say! (an interjection)

Did you make any friends there? (a place adverb)

The adverb performs a modifying function in a phrase. It can modify:

- a) a verb in its finite or non-finite form, e. g. *drove carefully; to try hard, walking slowly, internationally recognized;*
- b) an adjective, e. g. *extremely useful, regrettably few, politically correct, fair enough;*
- c) another adverb, e. g. *maddeningly slowly, strangely enough;*
- d) a noun or a prepositional phrase, e. g. *enough money, to be fool enough, rather a mix-up, quite some translator, not much of a writer, right in the middle, etc.*

In these cases, the adverb acts as adverbial modifier in a phrase.

Besides, an adverb can modify a whole clause or a sentence, acting as sentence modifier or parenthesis:

Frankly, I don't approve of euthanasia.

Those most affected by the crisis are probably farmers.

Elena beat her husband at Scrabble three times today. — Four, actually.

³⁵ The fact that time expression such as *tomorrow, today, and yesterday* can be used in the possessive, or genitive case (e. g. *yesterday's newspaper, tonight's programme*) provides further evidence that they form a class distinct from adverbs. However, linguists who do not recognize the category of case in English often quote these and similar examples as adverbs, so as to show that the morpheme 's no longer serves as case affix in present-day English.

Some place and time adverbs can be preceded by prepositions. For instance, *here* and *there* occur after *along*, (*a*)*round*, *down*, *from*, *in*, *near*, *out (of)*, *over*, *through*, *up*. *Home* can be used with *at*, *from*, *near*, *toward(s)*. Other adverbs are used with *from*: *above*, *abroad*, *below*, *downstairs*, *indoors*, *inside*, *outside*, *within*, *without*, *upstairs*.

Consider the following examples of time adverbs used with prepositions:

I'll save this slice of cake for later.

We'll have to put it off till tomorrow.

Until recently, progress in simultaneous interpretation theory was slow.

Note that the adverbs *too* and *how* cause the shift of the indefinite article when they modify an adjective in a noun phrase:

How good an athlete is he?

She's too experienced a diplomat to make this kind of blunder.

With plural nouns and non-count nouns, where the indefinite article is not possible, the adverb *how* cannot be used in modification — it is replaced by *what* in exclamatory sentences:

What nice people (they are)!

Rather may or may not cause the shift of the indefinite article:

That was rather an unusual story.

That was a rather unusual story.

Whereas adverbs in the above examples are syntactically optional, an adverb (or another adverbial expression) is sometimes necessary to complete a sentence:

We went there yesterday.

(On the phone): *Hallo! Nicholson here. Are you there?*

Adverbs (with the exception of prepositional adverbs) are not normally used in the function of predicative. Note that the English language employs adjectives after such link verbs as *be*, *smell*, *sound*, *look*, where the Russian language employs adverbs. Cf.:

It is/sounds ridiculous! — Это (звучит) смешно!

This tastes bitter. — На вкус горько.

The flowers smell sweet. — Цветы пахнут сладко.

If these verbs are used as notional verbs rather than link verbs, they naturally combine with adverbs of manner:

She smelled the fish cautiously.

However, the verbs *feel* and *be* can be followed by an adjective or an adverb, with a difference in meaning:

I feel good. (= happy, comfortable, etc.)

I am (feeling) quite well this morning. (= healthy)

I feel / am poorly today. (= ill) (BrE informal)

Their parents feel very strongly / keenly about early marriages.

(= have a very intense or serious attitude towards something)

The Johnsons are quite well off / badly off. (= rich / poor)

The adverb *badly* sometimes replaces *bad* in the expression *to feel bad / badly about something*. (= to feel rather sorry and sad about something)

As has been mentioned, it is mostly prepositional adverbs that can be used predicatively, i. e. as complements of the verb *be*:

The engagement is off. (= broken, not taking place)

Trouser suits are in / out at the moment. (= in fashion / out of fashion)

What's on at the Coliseum tonight? (= showing, happening)

What's up? (= What's the matter? / What's going on?)

When the show was over, the audience burst into applause. (= finished)

The same goes for the subset of *a*-adverbs (see 12.2.1. Word-building Structure). Note the contrast between *a*-adverbs and predicative *a*-adjectives (otherwise called words of the category of state, like *afraid*, *alike*, etc.); the former admit of the "Go" transformation, whereas the latter do not:

They were abroad / aboard. > They went abroad / aboard. (adverb)

*They were alike / afraid. > *They went alike / afraid.* (predicative adjective)

It is only occasionally that adverbs (place adverbs, to be more precise) can act as subject:

Over here is where I hang my clothes. (informal)

Different kinds of adverbs go in different positions in the sentence. There are three normal positions for the adverb: initial, medial and final. One adverb, *enough*, is placed after the adjective it modifies:

She isn't tall enough to be a fashion model.

With nouns, *enough* is normally found in premodification:

Do you have enough money to pay the bill?

Postmodification by means of *enough* is found with predicative nouns to denote quality rather than amount. Note that the predicative noun thus modified takes no article:

I was fool enough to agree.

He wasn't man enough to keep face.

Another postmodifier is *else*:

What else did she say?

How else could they have solved the problem?

I know little else about the matter.

In newspaper language, *then* is used in premodification: *the then Cabinet*, etc.

Some adverbs can go in all three positions, e.g.:

Now he's quite well-off.

He's now quite well-off.

He's quite well-off now.

Generally speaking, linking adverbs mostly go in initial position; adverbs of degree, frequency and some adverbs of manner go in mid-position, most adverbs of time, manner and place go in final position.

Note that in AmE mid-position adverbs are often put before auxiliary verbs and link verbs, even when the verb is not emphasized. Cf.:

They probably have left by now. (AmE neutral; BrE emphatic)

They have probably left by now. (BrE neutral)

Adverbial modifiers in final position usually come in the order "manner — place — time". However, this sequence normally includes at least one adverbial phrase or is limited to two items; a succession of all three types of adverbs is rare indeed:

He worked hard there yesterday.

To sum up, the following are the common positions (front, mid, or end) of adverbs according to their subtypes:

Subclass of adverbs	Position in the sentence
Adverbs of time (a point in time): <i>today, tomorrow</i>	END or FRONT
Adverbs of time ("relative time"): <i>already, still, yet</i>	MID or END
Adverbs of time (frequency): <i>always, rarely, seldom</i>	MID
Adverbs of place: <i>upstairs, forward(s), inside</i>	END
Adverbs of manner: <i>cautiously, fast, chemically</i>	END or MID
Adverbs of degree: <i>almost, entirely, exceedingly, very</i>	directly before the word they qualify
Truth adverbs	various
Comment adverbs	FRONT or MID
Linking adverbs	FRONT or MID
Focus adverbs	Directly before or after the word they qualify

There are a few grammatically distinct subsets of adverbs that cut across the headings mentioned in the above paragraphs. These are largely closed-system items; they stand apart and can therefore be contrasted to all other adverbs outside a given subset.

12.3.1. Interrogative / Relative Adverbs

Interrogative/relative adverbs (*when, whenever, where, wherever, how, however, why*), together with the interrogative/relative pronouns *who/whom, whose, what(ever) and which(ever)*, belong to the class of wh-words. They can be used as question words to open special questions, or else they can be used as subordinators, to link clauses in a complex sentence:

When does the winter term begin?

You never know when you will need this fax number.

I'd like to talk to you whenever convenient.

12.3.2. Negative and “Broad Negative” Adverbs

There are a limited number of adverbs that make the utterance negative. The adverbs *no, never, nowhere* (and also *noplace*, restricted to informal AmE) are negative adverbs proper; *barely, hardly, scarcely, rarely, seldom* and *little* are described as broad negatives. The latter mean “almost not” and sound less categorical than negative adverbs proper, serving as a form of understatement:

They rarely/rarely if ever/rarely or never visit my homepage in the Internet.

These items can be fronted for emphasis; their fronting, like the fronting of negative phrases with *not* or *no*, causes inversion, similar to that of interrogative sentences:

Rarely have I seen a happier couple.

Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few.

Nowhere else had he felt so much at home.

Little did she know that the neighbours were going to sue her.

No longer will they abuse your patience!

12.3.3. Pronominal Adverbs

Pronominal adverbs are compound adverbs built up using the pronominal stems *every-, some-, any-, and no-*. The core of this subset is formed by the place adverbs *everywhere, somewhere, anywhere, nowhere*.

The adverb *everywhere* has neutral polarity; in other words, it is found in negative, positive and interrogative contexts:

There were lots of Chinese ornaments everywhere.
You can't really pin up her photographs everywhere!
Why do you plant lilac shrubs everywhere around?

Nowhere makes the utterance negative:

My hockey stick is nowhere to be found.

The use of the adverbs *somewhere* and *anywhere* follows the same rules as the use of the indefinite pronouns *some* and *any* (see 3. The Pronoun):

Have you seen this kind of flower anywhere? (an interrogative sentence)

I haven't seen this kind of flower anywhere. (a negative sentence)

Hello, Billy! Is mummy around somewhere? (an interrogative sentence with a positive bias)

The informal AmE adverbs *everyplace*, *someplace*, *anyplace*, and *noplace* fall into the same category.

Other adverbs occupy a marginal place in this subset.

Firstly, they do not form as complete a paradigm as that of -where compounds. For instance, *how* does not combine with *every* and *no* to form compounds. *Anymore* (AmE), *anyway*, *someday* (AmE) and some others stand alone.

Secondly, they have developed a number of meanings, e. g.:

anyhow: 1) = in any way or by any means whatever;

2) = in any case;

3) = carelessly; neglectfully;

anyway: 1) = in any manner whatever;

2) = nevertheless, at any rate, anyhow.

Thirdly, the related *some-* and *any-* derivatives can differ semantically, structurally and/or stylistically. For instance, *somewhat* is an adverb of manner, whereas *anyhow* is a text adverb. *Nohow* is non-standard AmE. *Sometime* (AmE) (= at an indefinite or unstated time in the future) and *sometimes* (= upon occasion, at times, now and then) differ in meaning, whereas the related phrases *every time* and *any time* have not developed into compounds.

12.3.4. Prepositional Adverbs

A distinct functional subset is that of **prepositional adverbs**. As the term suggests, they coincide in form with prepositions. The most common are:

<i>about</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>under</i>	<i>up</i>	<i>past</i>
<i>around</i>	<i>above</i>	<i>after</i>	<i>along</i>	<i>without</i>
<i>down</i>	<i>before</i>	<i>below</i>	<i>between</i>	<i>by</i>
<i>off</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>since</i>
	<i>on</i>	<i>over</i>		

Cf.: *She ate a sandwich in the morning and an apple in the afternoon, with nothing (in) between.* (a prepositional adverb)
You shouldn't eat between meals. (a preposition)

Prepositional adverbs combine with common verbs to form phrasal verbs, i. e. idiomatic combinations of a verb and a prepositional adverb. They are an important feature of the structure of English, occupying a place between phrases and compounds.

Some grammars use the term **adverbial particles** to refer to adverbs that are attached to phrasal verbs³⁶.

The use of phrasal verbs has increased dramatically in the past few decades: from having been considered purely colloquial they have come to be widely used in academic writing, in official reports and in the mass media. Some of them are pushing their more traditional one-word synonyms into second place. Therefore, they deserve special consideration.

A phrasal verb can combine both with an adverb and a preposition: *to do away with something*, *to run out of something*, etc. On the other hand, an adverb sometimes adds little to the meaning of the verb:

Norman rang me (up) yesterday.

We waited (around/about) for half an hour, but they never turned up.

In terms of transitivity, which involves the position of the adverb, we distinguish three subtypes of phrasal verbs (see also 5.4. The Verb Phrase):

a) intransitive phrasal verbs:

Be careful! This gun can go off! (= fire);

b) monotransitive phrasal verbs:

She put away the books.

She put the books away.

She put them away.

I won't put up with this;

³⁶ Russian linguists traditionally use the term *последоз* for the adverbial component of phrasal verbs.

c) ditransitive phrasal verbs:

It's not my fault you've had a bad day today. Don't take it on me.

In sentences with a monotransitive phrasal verb, the adverb can come between the verb and the noun object or after the noun object. Two variations of this pattern are as follows:

a) that in which the adverb always precedes the noun object; in other words, the adverbial particle cannot be detached from its verb:

The local factory puts out (= produces) carts and bicycles;

b) that in which the adverb always follows the noun object:

Will it put your wife out (= annoy) if I bring another guest?

Did I get my point across to you?

The pronoun object always comes between the verb and the adverb. Some phrasal verbs can be both transitive and intransitive. Cf.:

She likes to show off. (= draw attention to herself)

She likes to show off her jewels.

The terrorists blew up the factory.

The gas tank blew up.

Phrasal verbs are easily substantivized: *a hideout, a crossover, a breakthrough, take-off, a breakdown*, etc.

12.3.5. Deictic and Anaphoric Adverbs

Some of the time and place adverbs, such as *tonight, ago, today, tomorrow, yesterday, now, then, here, there, below, therein, right, left*, etc. are **deictic words**. This means that their reference is determined by the act of communication and by the speaker/addressee roles, rather than by the intrinsic lexical meaning of these adverbs.

Adverbs in deictic use make direct reference to a point in time or space with a view to the moment of speaking and to the speakers. For instance, *five years ago* means "five years back from the time when communication takes place"; *now* and *then* are contrasted as "near to" and "distant from" the moment of speaking. Likewise, the adverbs *tomorrow* and *yesterday* are perceived as following the day of communication or preceding it, respectively. A person on the first floor of a high-rise building might say: *A deafening noise came from above*, whereas one on the twentieth floor would say under the same circumstances: *A deafening noise came from below*. Also, *to the right* means just that to one of the participants, but not necessarily to the other.

The adverbs *here, there, now* and *then* often combine in coordinate groups: *here and there, here, there and everywhere, now and then, here and now, then and there* (sometimes also *there and then*).

Their deictic quality is weakened if not lost altogether in some set expressions: *Hi there! There now!*

Deictic adverbs *there*, meaning "in that place", and *here*, meaning "in this place" can be used in a noun phrase; they come after the noun when the phrase is preceded by the demonstrative pronouns *that* and *this*, respectively:

That man there is staring at you.

This girl here is going to play the guitar for us.

Note that the demonstrative is not normally used before personal names; informal constructions like *Jane here* and *Nick there* imply that the person in question is known to the speaker but not necessarily to the hearer. Also, the phrase with *here* shows that the person referred to is spatially near and capable of joining in the conversation, whereas the phrase with *there* shows that the person referred to is spatially distant from the speaker and hearer.

Adverbs in anaphoric use provide contextual reference, highlighting a particular section of the discourse, pointing backward (anaphoric reference proper) or forward (cataphoric reference):

The differences of register are disregarded here. (= in this context; in the present paper)

The figures quoted above (= before this sentence) *have increased threefold in recent years.*

The figures quoted below (= after this sentence) *have increased threefold in recent years.*

13. PREPOSITIONS

The preposition is a part of speech used to show a relationship between the two parts of a sentence. Most often prepositions show how the two parts are related in space (*in, on, etc.*) or in time (*during, at, etc.*). They can also show means (*by, with, etc.*), or some other relationship (for example, figurative relationships in phrases like *by heart* or *on time*).

English prepositions are open-class words. This means that new prepositions can be formed from other parts of speech, such as *considering, during, granted*, which are formed from participles, or *minus* and *plus*, which are formed from Latin adjectives. Sometimes such prepositions are termed "marginal" prepositions. The process of forming new prepositions is an extremely slow one, so the above-mentioned open-class characteristics should be viewed with reservations.

Lexical meaning in prepositions is a debatable question. Some of them are considered void of it, e. g. *by, of, to*. Other prepositions demonstrate very definite meanings, e. g. *above, between, into, etc.* According to the borderline point of view, prepositions as a class of words, represent a specific blending of lexical and grammatical meanings.

13.1. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF PREPOSITIONS

Morphologically English prepositions can be categorized into simple and complex prepositions.

Simple prepositions consist of one word (historically they can be complex words, though): *about, above, across, after, along, alongside, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, but, by, despite, down, during, following, for, from, inside, in(to), near, of, off, on(to), opposite, out, outside, over, past, round, save, since, through, to, toward(s), under(neath), up(on), with, within, without, etc.*

Complex prepositions consist of more than one word. These can be two-word prepositions, like *ahead of, apart from, because of, close to, due to, except for, from behind, from inside, from under, instead of, near to, out of, etc.* or three-word prepositions, e. g.: *as far as, by means*

of, in accordance with, in addition to, in front of, in spite of, in terms of, on top of, with reference to, with regard to, with respect to, etc.

Complex prepositions are not necessarily composed of prepositions like *in* or *out of*. Very often they are formed differently, i.e. are composed of different parts of speech, e.g. of an adverb and a preposition: *ahead of, away from*; or an adjective and a preposition: *due to*; a conjunction and a preposition: *because of*; a preposition, a noun and a preposition: *in front of, with reference to*, etc.

13.2. MEANING OF PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions express a variety of meanings:

1. Place, Position, Location (spatial).

Spatial prepositions include *at, (a)round, beside, by, on, in, above, below, in front of, after, between, behind, across, through, near, next to, opposite, off, over* and others.

In is used when a place is thought of as three-dimensional or as an area:

They are in the sitting-room.

Do you like swimming in the sea?

He lives with his family in Brooklyn.

There are hundreds of people in the streets and in the squares of the city.

Note that *in* is also used with the words *sky* and *tree*.

At is used when a place is thought of as a point or when the building is thought of quite generally as a place where something happens:

I arrived at the station by the evening.

Let's meet at the bus stop.

Sarah is at home, but Fred is still at university.

We decided to stay at the Holiday Inn.

In should be used when we think of a building itself:

There are seventy bedrooms in the Holiday Inn.

At is used with cities, towns and villages when the place is thought of as a point:

Passenger trains rarely stop at Lawrence.

At is used with addresses, when the house number is given:

The US President lives at 1700 Pennsylvania Avenue.

Both *at* and *in* are used with buildings:

We decided to have dinner at/in a Chinese restaurant.

She works at/in the post office.

On is used when a place is thought of as a surface or a line:

*There are pictures on the walls and rugs on the floor of the room.
Los Angeles, San Francisco and Seattle are on the West coast of
the USA.*

On is also used with the number of the floor:

*Their apartment is on the last floor of the building, and there is
no elevator.*

Above and **over** both mean "higher than":

The sky is over our heads.

He rules over a great tribe.

Below and **under** both mean "lower than":

*There was a night club below my hotel room and I couldn't sleep
because of the noise.*

Children under fourteen are not recommended to see this film.

Above and **under** are used when one thing is not directly over or
under another:

His hut is just above the creek.

The creek was below the old man's hut.

Over is used to mean "covering", while **under** means "covered by":

*He spread his handkerchief over his face to keep the flies off.
He hid under the bedclothes.*

Both **over** and **across** are used to mean "on / to the other side of":

My house is just across / over the street.

*The Golden Gate Bridge over the strait linking San Francisco Bay
with the Pacific is one of the most spectacular places in the city.*

2. Place, Movement and Direction.

Prepositions showing movement or direction to or from an object
are as follows: *away from, into, onto, out of, along, up, down, past,
(a)round, to, toward(s), from, from...to, through,* etc.

It should be noted that with the verb *arrive, at or in* are used depending on the place of arrival. *In* is used when the destination is a country or town, while *at* is used with other places. The verb *get* in this meaning is used with the preposition *to*:

We arrived in New York on a cold windy day.

We got to New York on a cold windy day.

I arrived at the hotel early in the morning.

3. Time.

Many of the words which function as spatial prepositions also appear as temporal ones. They can either express some point of time (*at 5 o'clock, by next Monday, in August, on Monday*) or period of

time (*for six weeks, during the weekend, until tomorrow*). Most commonly used prepositions of time are: *in, on, at, during, following, throughout, until, till, before, since, after, for, between, by*.

At is used to show a specific time of the day: *at 3 o'clock p.m., at noon, at lunchtime, at night, at midnight*; with the names of public holidays: *at Christmas, at Easter*; with the word *weekend(s)*: *at the weekend, at weekends*.

In is used when a particular part of the day is mentioned, except night: *in the morning, etc.* *In* is also used with longer periods: *in August, in the summer, in 1492, in the 18th century*; or to denote the period of time which is to elapse before something is going to happen: *I hope to see you in a week.*

On is used with the names of the days of the week or with phrases which include the word *day*: *on Monday, on the day of his arrival*. Note that *on time* means "at exactly the right time" while *in time* means "early enough". Cf.:

The plane left New York at 11:00 a.m. and landed at San Francisco International Airport on time. (on schedule)

In my school classes always start on time. (in accordance with the timetable)

He discovered the fire in time to stop it spreading.

No preposition is used with the deictic expressions *last, this, next, before yesterday, today, tonight, tomorrow*, or with the quantifying word *every*:

Last year/month/week/time I met him at the Wilsons.

This year/month/week I don't go to the gym.

Next year/month/week/time I will be more careful.

What are you doing tomorrow evening?

Every morning she jogs in the park for exercise.

At the end is used to denote some point where something stops. *In the end* means "finally", "eventually". Cf.:

I saw light at the end of the tunnel.

At the end of the film I felt very bored.

At first I didn't like him, but in the end we became good friends.

Until and *till* are used to mean "up to the time when", the choice between them is chiefly a matter of personal preference, though *until* is often considered more formal.

By is used to mean "not later than":

I'll wait until ten o'clock.

He works from morning till night, day after day.

Now he is out, but he'll be back by midday.

Note the difference between the preposition *before* and the adverb *ago*: *before* is used to mean "before a past time", while *ago* means "before now":

This novel was published a couple of months ago. Hemingway wrote his novel "A Farewell to Arms" in 1929; his first novel "The Sun Also Rises" had been written three years before.

4. Cause and Purpose.

These prepositions can express a variety of meanings: physical or psychological causes, reasons, purposes, targets, recipients, motives, and destination. They include: *because of, from, on account of, at, to, for, out of*, and some others:

People were shocked at the news. (cause)

He had to guess at the meaning of the word. (purpose)

He was fined for drunken driving. (reason)

Because of his bad leg, he could not walk as fast as the others. (reason)

She asked us not to be noisy, for fear of waking the baby. (motif)

The ship was making for the open sea. (destination)

It's a machine for cutting steel. (destination)

I have brought the books for you to examine. (recipient)

Give this book to me. (recipient)

5. Means.

These prepositions express such meanings as manner, instrument, and agency. They include: *as, with, without, by, in, like*:

To kill two birds with one stone. (means or instrument)

He makes a living by teaching. (means)

Leave it as it is. (manner)

Don't talk like that. (manner)

I can't translate this text without a good dictionary. (instrument)

Note that the preposition *by* is used to show how we travel: *by car / bus / bicycle / train / underground / ship / road / air / sea*:

I very rarely travel by air.

By is not used with *my, a, the* before *bus, car, bicycle*, etc.:

He usually goes to work in his car.

In is used with cars and *on* — with bicycles, motorbikes and public transport, e. g. with buses, trains:

He invited me for a ride on a motorbike.

She decided to go from Minneapolis to Kansas-City on the train.

6. Accompaniment.

The meaning "in the company of" or "together with" is expressed by the preposition *with*:

Is there anyone with you or are you alone?

7. Support and Opposition.

These two meanings are usually expressed by the prepositions *for*, *against*, *with*:

He who is not with me is against me. (support and opposition respectively)

We must vote for this plan. (support)

He always quarrels with his wife. (opposition)

8. Having.

The meaning of possession is usually expressed by the prepositions *of*, *with*, *without*:

She is a woman of great accomplishments.

She is a beautiful girl with huge blue eyes.

He was working without any hope of reward.

9. Concession.

This meaning is expressed by the prepositions *in spite of*, *despite*, *notwithstanding*, *for all*, *with all*:

Despite what she says, this is a remarkable book.

With all her faults he still liked her.

Notwithstanding the snowstorm, our plane left on time.

10. Reference.

These are quite formal prepositions, except for *as for*, *as to* and *as far as*: *with reference to*, *with regard to*, *with respect to*, *in accordance with*, *according to*, *in terms of*, *considering*, etc.:

As for you, I never want to see you again.

According to the timetable, the train is due here at 12:30.

With reference to your letter of 5 July, we are pleased to confirm your reservation at the Sheraton Hotel for the nights of 17, 18, 19 of July.

11. Exception and Addition.

These meanings are expressed by *except(ing)*, *except for*, *with the exception of*, *but*, *apart from*, *besides*, *as well as*, *plus*, *minus*, and some others:

No one but him showed much interest in the proposal.

The vacation was great, apart from the hotel room which was depressing.

I have two more brothers besides John.

13.3. THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

1. The preposition always syntactically governs a nominal phrase in the sentence, and normally it is not stressed. There are cases, how-

ever, when a preposition is separated from the word it is syntactically linked with and placed at the end of the sentence. In this case it is stressed:

I know what you are dreaming about.
Nobody likes to be shouted at.

When the meaning of a preposition is emphasized, it may also be stressed:

It is outrageous! It is beyond my understanding.

Some prepositions are restricted in their frequency or style, especially those borrowed from foreign languages:

versus — “against”, shortened to *v* or *vs* in print. It is used in law or sport, e. g.: *Robinson v Brown, Manchester United vs Nottingham Forest*;

circa — “about”, shortened to *c* or *ca* in print. It is used when the exact date is unknown, e. g.: *He was born ca 150 BC*.

There are also some dialect uses, such as *towards* in British English vs *toward* in American English, etc.

Many English prepositions have homonyms among conjunctions, adverbs, and adverbial (postverbal) particles. For instance, in the sentence *Put the book on the table*, *on* is a preposition governing the noun *table* and relates the verb *put* to the phrase *the table*, indicating where the book should go, while in the sentence *Go on reading*, *on* is a particle and the form *go on* is a phrasal verb.

The fact that many English prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and adverbial (postverbal) particles are identical in form, may create for students of English some difficulties in interpreting the meaning of a sentence. It is necessary to differentiate between their respective functions. The adverb, unlike the preposition, conjunction, and postverbal particle, is a part of the sentence; postverbal particles and verbs form one single entity — phrasal verbs; differentiation between the preposition and conjunction is sometimes particularly complicated:

After dinner we went for a walk. (preposition)

After three hundred years Rembrandt is closer to the heart of the modern world than any other painter. (preposition)

After I wash the dishes, I'll join you in the sitting room. (conjunction)

I will look after your cat while you're on holiday. (part of a phrasal verb)

I'd better not see you after. (adverb)

I brought this book for you. (preposition)

For several years I did not hear from her. (preposition)

The compass is a very useful device, for it enables one to determine polarity. (conjunction)

What are you looking for? (part of a prepositional verb)

The construction which follows the preposition in the sentence is called "prepositional complement":

It was not too far to walk home from the party. (noun)

He refused from what was offered to him. (clause)

The combination of a preposition with its complement is called a "prepositional phrase" which can perform different syntactic functions. Its principal functions are:

a) **postmodifier** in the noun phrase: *Three Men in a Boat; Cat on a Hot Tin Roof; The Man in the Brown Suit;*

b) **adverbial**: *I arrived on the bus on Thursday, in the rain. They called me shortly after midday;*

c) **complementation of a verb**: *He lay on the floor; Are you going to apply for the job? Does this book belong to you?*

d) **complementation of an adjective**: *I am angry about all the mess you've made. I am not very good at mathematics. He is very different from his sister.*

Normally, a preposition is followed directly by its complement. In some cases, however, this does not happen and the preposition is deferred:

This news is much spoken about.

Has the doctor been sent for?

He is a nice person to deal with.

2. Prepositions can often be used figuratively: *in low waters; be wet behind the ears; be out of hand; pay through the nose* — these and lots of others should be learned individually as elements of idiomatic usage.

3. Note some typically used phrases with prepositions:

attitude to / toward(s)

to be angry / excited / worried / nervous / annoyed / furious about

to be pleased / disappointed / bored / happy / polite with

to be engaged / married to

to be keen on

to be good / bad at

to be surprised / shocked / astonished / amazed at / by

to be afraid / ashamed / aware / jealous / conscious / envious / capable / proud / suspicious / fond / full / short / tired of

to be similar to

a book on (English literature), but a book of postage stamps

a lesson / class in (English)

a lecture on/about (English Lexicology)
a seminar on (creative writing)
an answer/invitation to
by mistake/accident/chance
by credit card
to go on holiday/journey/trip/business
to dream about (while asleep)
to dream of (= imagine or consider)
to battle at
an argument/row over
to object to
a ticket to the theater/the cinema/a train/a plane, but for a show
a view of (a lake, etc.)
in somebody's name (e.g. a letter)
a key to (a door)
to charge with, but accuse of
a trip/tour of/about the country

Part II

SYNTAX

Syntax is the part of Grammar that deals with sentences and the inter-sentence relations between the words and/or clauses constituting sentences. Being abstract in nature (it is mostly concerned with relations and not with forms), syntax often allows a variety of interpretations of one and the same syntactic phenomenon, which explains the difference in approaches and analyses inherent in this branch of Grammar.

14. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

A sentence is a self-sufficient unit of communication which is in its form a grammatically structuralized unit of predication.

All sentences can be classified according to two principles:

1. The communicative value of the sentence.
2. The structure of the sentence.

14.1. COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

There are four communicative types of the sentence: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. Each of them has its own grammatically structured form. Most of them can be both affirmative and negative (which will be discussed separately).

Form	Affirmative	Negative
Declarative	<i>He likes dogs.</i>	<i>He does not like cats.</i>
Interrogative	<i>Do you like snakes?</i>	<i>Don't you like yourself?</i>
Imperative	<i>Do it again!</i>	<i>Don't do it again.</i>
Exclamatory	<i>What a nice girl she is!</i>	—

Traditional grammar has suggested that the communicative function of a declarative sentence is to make a statement, the function of an interrogative sentence is to ask a question, that of an imperative sentence — to give commands, and that the function of the exclamatory sentence — to express the speaker's / writer's feelings.

In fact, each of the four types can fulfil several functions at a time. One particular sentence form is not tied to one sentence meaning. The following examples may well illustrate this:

Form	Example	Meaning
Declarative	<i>He does not like cats?</i>	Interrogative
Interrogative	<i>Nice day, isn't it?</i>	≈ Declarative
Imperative	<i>Do it again!?</i>	Interrogative + exclamatory
Exclamatory	<i>What a dear you are.</i>	Declarative (expressing affection)

14.1.1. Declarative Sentences

A declarative sentence is a statement (either affirmative or negative) about a fact, an event, an action or an attitude. Declarative sentences normally have direct word order, i. e. the subject precedes the predicate. They are normally pronounced with a falling intonation:

*All cats are grey in the night.
He will not set the Thames on fire.*

14.1.2. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences ask questions. There are five types of interrogative sentences: **general questions**, **special questions**, **alternative questions**, **tag questions**, **echo tags**; each type having its own distinctive form.

Various grammar books offer different lists of question types, which can be explained by the level of generalization assumed by the authors.

14.1.2.1. General Questions (Yes/No Questions)

General questions are formed by placing the auxiliary / modal verb (the operator) before the subject and giving the sentence a rising intonation. General questions require the answer Yes or No:

*Does she know you?
Have you ever been to Monaco?
Are they sleeping?
Must we really do it?*

Negative general questions rather express surprise, doubt or disappointment than ask a question:

Doesn't she know you?

Haven't you ever been to Monaco?

Aren't they sleeping?

Mustn't we really do it?

They are translated into Russian with the help of the words *разве*, *неужели*, and they are responded to according to their meaning, not the form:

Haven't they got a car? (=Разве/Неужели у них нет машины?)

– Yes, they have. (=Да / *Hem, есть.*)

– No, they haven't. (=Да / *Hem, нету.*)

14.1.2.2. Special Questions (Wh-questions)

Special questions begin with interrogative words *who/whom/whose, what, which, when, where, why, how* with an operator (an auxiliary verb) to follow. Normally a singular verb form is used in subject-questions. However, a plural verb can occur in questions about the subject when this subject is predictably plural:

Who is laughing there?

Who are playing in that team?

When did you see him last?

In Modern English only *which* can be followed by *of*:

Which of them has done it?

Who did you give my money to? (informal)

Whom did you give my money to? (formal)

To whom did you give my money? (very formal)

Where did you start from? (informal)

From where did you start? (formal)

Whose books are these?

In questions about the subject group no operator is needed when the predicate verb is in the simple present or simple past tense:

Who teaches you grammar?

What car came first?

All the question words except *which* and *whose* can be given greater emphasis by adding *ever* which is written as a separate word and is often heavily stressed. Such questions express anger, concern, admiration or surprise:

Who ever would have thought that? (=Да кто бы мог так подумать?)

What ever did she tell you? (=Да что такого она вам сказала?)

Where ever did you find that? (=Да где вы это нашли?)
Why ever didn't he come? (=Да почему же это он не пришел?)

The elliptical *wh*-question with *why* followed by the bare infinitive usually carries the force of an inducement:

Why do it? (= Don't do it.)
Why not go there? (= Go there.)

Wh-questions can be negative in form and express various degrees of surprise:

Why didn't you tell us about it?
Who will not marry me?

Special questions are sometimes called **content** questions because they require specific answers.

14.1.2.3. Alternative Questions

An alternative question offers a choice between two or more alternatives and requires a specific answer. Structurally alternative questions resemble general questions but the former have a disjunctive conjunction *or* linking two homogeneous parts of the sentence. The part that comes before the conjunction is spoken with a rising intonation; the part after the conjunction — with a falling intonation:

Is she really / rich or just \ well off?
Shall we go to the / movies, a / cafe or stay at \ home?

Care should be taken not to confuse the alternative question with the general question where the conjunction *or* is rather copulative (=and) than disjunctive (offering a choice). They can be distinguished only by their intonation patterns. Cf.:

Do you play / chess or \ draughts? (alternative question)
— *I play draughts only.*
Do you play / chess or / draughts? (general question)
— *No, I play only card games.*

There are crossbreeds of an alternative question and a special question:

What would you like, soft or strong drinks?
Which would you prefer, gold or silver?

14.1.2.4. Tag Questions (Question Tags)

1. Form and Meaning. A tag question consists of two parts separated by a comma. The first part is a statement, the second a *tag*. A tag is a two-word question consisting of an operator (an auxiliary/modal

verb, the verb *be*, sometimes the verb *have*) and a personal pronoun. The operator is repeated from the statement and the pronoun refers to the subject of the statement. There are four types of tag questions. For the first two most common types of tag question, the tag is negative if the statement is positive (1) and vice versa (2):

- 1) *The earth is round, isn't it?* (positive statement + negative tag)
- 2) *The earth is not flat, is it?* (negative statement + positive tag)

The meanings of all types of tag questions, like their forms, involve a statement and a question; each of them asserts something, and the used intonation reveals the focal point of communication. When the tag element has a rising intonation, it is a question; when the tag element has a falling intonation, it is rather a statement or an exclamation but not a genuine question.

Questions that need answers:

The earth is round, ↗ isn't it?
The earth is not flat, ↗ is it?

Either no response is expected or a confirmation is hoped for:

The earth is round, ↘ isn't it?
The earth is not flat, ↘ is it?

Two less common types of tag questions are the tag questions in which both the statement and the tag element are of the same denomination, either affirmative or negative:

- 3) *You'll do that, will you?* (positive statement + positive tag)
- 4) *So you won't do that, won't you?* (negative statement + negative tag)

Tag questions where both parts are positive (3) may have either rising or falling intonation. Tag questions with both parts negative (4) are rarely used as they are offensively aggressive. Cf.:

So she is here, ↗ is she? (request for confirmation of a deducted conclusion)
You'll clean my shoes, ↗ will you? (patronizing order)
So she is here, ↘ is she? (disappointment, suspicion)
You won't call me names, ↘ won't you? (threatening order)

A tag element can also be added to imperatives and exclamations. The operator with imperatives is *will*, *won't*, *can*, *can't* or *could*:

Open the door, will you?
Do sit down, won't you?
Don't do that, will you?
Shut up, can't you?
How nice she is, isn't she?

2. Usage. The tag element after the pattern *I am...* is *aren't I* (or *ain't I* in AmE):

I'm right, aren't I?

There can be used as the subject in both parts of a tag question:

There is something fishy in it, isn't there?

This and *that* in the statement are replaced by *it* in the tag element:

This / that (notebook computer) is very expensive, isn't it?

Let's in the statement is represented by *shall we* in the tag element:

Let's do it, shall we?

A statement can be made negative with the help of the negative pronouns *nothing, nobody, etc.* and (semi)negative words *seldom, rarely, scarcely, hardly, barely, few, little*:

Nothing / little is known about it, is it?

She can hardly do it, can she?

He scarcely seems to care, does he?

When the subject of the statement is *somebody, someone, anybody, anyone, nobody, no one, everybody, everyone*, the plural personal pronoun *they* (and the plural form operator) is used in the tag element:

Nobody knows it, do they?

Anybody can do it, can't they?

The negative tag can sometimes be unabbreviated in a formal style or for special emphasis:

We have unanimously come to this agreement, have not we? (or have we not?).

If the speaker is making a statement about him / herself and wants to check if the other person has the same opinion or feeling, s/he can put a tag with stressed *you* after the statement:

I like coffee, don't you?

There are a number of set phrases that can be used in place of the tag element. They are: *right?, OK? (informal)* or *isn't that so/true?, don't you think/agree? (formal style)*. These phrases are invariant, i.e. they have the same form whether the statement is positive or negative:

We are no longer enemies, right?

We're friends now, OK?

When replying to a tag question the answer refers to the statement, not to the tag.

Question tags are usually translated into Russian with the help of the words *не так ли?*, *не правда ли?*, *ведь*:

They haven't got a car, have they? (=У них ведь нет машины, не так ли?)

— Yes, they have. (=Да / Нем, есть.)

— No, they haven't. (=Да / Нем, нету.)

14.1.2.5. Echo Tags (Response/Reply Question)

An echo tag is a response, in tag form, to a preceding affirmative or negative statement:

She loves him. — Oh, does she?

He doesn't like her. — Doesn't he?

Echo tags express interest or concern when they are pronounced with a rising intonation. Their most common use is just to show that we are listening:

I've got a terrible headache. — ↗ Have you? I'll get you an aspirin then.

They aren't too happy together. — ↗ Aren't they? I'm really sorry about it.

When pronounced with a falling intonation, echo tags express surprise, disbelief, disapproval or anger:

I've got the sack. — ↘ Have you? But it's outrageous!

A negative echo tag may be given as a reply to an affirmative statement to express emphatic agreement:

She looks terrific today. — Yes, doesn't she? (=Да уж точно.)

14.1.3. Exclamatory Sentences

An exclamatory sentence expresses surprise or some other strong emotion. Exclamations typically begin with *what* + (adjective) noun or with *how* + adjective/adverb usually but not necessarily followed by the subject and the predicate. Exclamations are pronounced with a falling intonation. In writing they usually end with an exclamation mark:

What a (nice) girl (she is)!

How nice (it is)!

How merrily she laughs!

True exclamatory sentences (*What* and *How* patterns) are always affirmative in form.

It is worth repeating that the communicative value of the sentence is not tied to one sentence form. Declarative, interrogative and im-

perative sentences may be filled with various emotions and begin to function as semi-exclamations:

*She is such a nice girl!
This girl is so nice!
But he isn't my friend!
Isn't it wonderful!
Do it again!?*

14.1.4. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences express commands, prohibitions, requests, invitations and warnings. Imperatives are constructed with the help of the Imperative Mood verb form that coincides with the base verb form.

14.1.4.1. Imperative Sentence without a Subject

Imperative sentences are mostly elliptical, i. e. they usually have no subject:

*Sit down.
Stay here.
Be happy!*

Imperative sentences are pronounced with a falling intonation; in writing they end in a full stop or an exclamation mark.

The imperative verb has no tense distinctions. The progressive form is rare, the perfect form is not usually admitted:

*Be listening to me next time.
Have read this paper by the time I am back.*

Passive forms are possible, particularly get-passive:

*Be guided by my words.
Get dressed this moment.
Get lost!*

The imperative can be softened by adding a tag-element with *will* / *would* or *can* / *could you* and a rising intonation:

*Sit down, will you?
Shut up, can't you?
Be quiet, could you?*

The imperative can be made more emphatic by putting *do* before the imperative verb form:

*Do forgive me.
Do try to be more polite with your Granny.*

14.1.4.2. Imperative Sentence with a Subject

Although imperative sentences usually have no explicit subject, *you* is sometimes used before the imperative verb form to suggest irritation/anger or insistence and is always heavily stressed:

You be quiet.

You mind your own business.

To give emphasis or to avoid ambiguity, a pronoun or noun may be used as subject of the imperative sentence:

Nobody move!

Somebody fetch me a glass of water.

Women with children go to the fire exit first.

Care should be taken not to confuse the vocative (addressee) and the subject of the imperative sentence. Cf.:

Peter, stay here or Stay here, Peter. (vocative)

Peter stay here. (subject)

Vocatives may take initial, final or medial position and are always set off by commas. The difference between the vocative and the imperative subject is confirmed by their possible co-occurrence, as in *You, Peter, stay here.*

14.1.4.3. Negative Imperatives

Negative Imperatives are constructed with *do not* (or *don't*) placed in the initial position:

Do not open the door.

Don't be silly.

Don't you try to do it again.

Don't anybody answer the phone.

14.1.4.4. Imperatives with LET

First and third person imperatives can be formed by the imperative *let* followed by a personal pronoun in the objective case or a noun in the common case. Imperative *let* denotes an offer, order, instruction, or wish:

Let me do it.

Let her/him/them have a look at it.

Let us/Let's think about it again.

Let the best man win.

Imperatives with *let us* can be negated in two ways: a) with informal *don't*, and b) with *not* before the infinitive (more formal):

Don't let us speak about it any more. (informal)

Let us not speak about it any more. (formal)

The negative third person imperative *let him/her/them* is rarely used in Modern English. The modal verb *must* or the modal expression *be + to-infinitive* are usually used instead:

He/She/They must not speak about it any more.

They are not to do it again.

A tag element *shan't we* may be added to a *let's* sentence:

Let's split the difference, shan't we?

14.1.5. Negative Sentences

An affirmative (positive) sentence is made negative by placing a negative word inside the sentence structure. There are ten negative words (negators) in the English language:

<i>not</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>no one</i>
<i>no</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>nor</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>none</i>

14.1.5.1. *Not as a Negator*

The most commonly used negative word is *not*, which is usually placed immediately after the operator (an auxiliary or modal verb) or after the verb *be*. In spoken English and in informal written English, *not* is often shortened to *-n't* and attached to the end of the verb: *are not — aren't, do not — don't, cannot — can't, will not — won't*, etc.

It is interesting to note that there are often two possibilities for short (contracted) forms in informal English: negator contraction and operator contraction. Cf.:

I haven't done it. *He won't come.* *They're not here.*
I've not done it. *He'll not come.* *They aren't here.*

The operator *do* has only negator contracted form:

I don't know this rule.

Only operator contraction is possible with the first person singular of the verb *be* in declarative negative sentences:

I'm not interested.

In question tags and negative general questions the plural form of negator contraction is used:

*I'm right, aren't I?
Aren't I beautiful?*

Ain't [eɪnt] is a very common negator contraction in dialects and uneducated forms of British and American English and it stands for *am not*, *are not*, *is not*, *have not* and *has not*:

I ain't going to do it.
You ain't right.
It ain't necessarily so.
I ain't got any money on me.
He ain't been here for ages.

14.1.5.2. Double Negation

Note that it is almost always unacceptable to use two negative words in one simple sentence. The multiple negatives in non-standard English are intensifying, and do not neutralize each other: *No one didn't ever say nothing about it.* = *No one ever said anything about it.*

Double negation is possible in Standard English only if both negators have their full meaning and the resulting positive meaning is emphasised:

Don't just say nothing. (= Say something.)
I can't not tell you the whole truth. (= I have to tell you the truth.)

14.1.5.3. Negation with HAVE

Have may function both as an operator and as a notional verb. When used as a notional verb in AmE/informal BrE, or as a modal operator (in the phrase *have + to-infinitive*), *have* normally has *do*-support in negative and interrogative sentences. Cf.:

We haven't done it. (auxiliary)
I haven't got any money. (auxiliary; AmE, informal BrE)
I haven't any money. (notional verb; BrE formal)
I don't have any money. (notional verb; AmE, informal BrE)
I don't have tea for breakfast. (notional verb)
We don't have to do it. (have + to-infinitive)

14.1.5.4. Other Negators

No

No is a negative determiner which is used before a singular or plural noun group to say that something is not available:

I have no money.
No man can do it.
There were no children in their family.

NEVER

Never is an adverb that is used to say that something was not, is not or will not ever be the case. *Never* is usually placed immediately after the first operator or the verb *be*:

We have never been here before.

She is never pleased about anything.

You can never keep your word.

A negative statement can be made emphatic by using *never* followed by *do/does/did* before the bare infinitive:

She never comes on time. *I never liked him.*

She never does come on time. *I never did like her.*

Never can begin a sentence with inverted word order, which is characteristic of a literary style:

Never has he mentioned these facts before.

Never regularly begins imperative sentences:

Never say "never".

NEITHER and NOR

Neither and *nor* are both used at the beginning of negative replies to negative statements to mean "also not". They are followed by inverted word order. Instead of *neither or nor, not... either* (with normal word order) can be used:

Neither do I.

Nor do I. (less common)

I don't like him either.

Neither... nor... are used together to say that neither of the alternatives is possible, likely or true. *Neither* goes in front of the first alternative, *nor* goes in front of the second one. The verb usually agrees with the nearest noun or can be plural in an informal style:

Neither the Browns nor their neighbour was / were at home.

They had neither food nor shelter.

Both *neither + singular noun (+ singular verb)* and *neither of + plural noun (+ singular / plural verb)* are used to negate a set of two things:

Neither course is acceptable.

Neither of the courses is / are acceptable.

Neither alternative excludes a satisfactory solution.

Neither of the alternatives excludes / exclude a satisfactory solution.

(For information about *nothing, none, no one, nobody* see 3. The Pronoun; for *nowhere* see 12. The Adverb.)

14.1.5.5. Broad Negatives/Semi-negatives

There are several words that are negative in meaning but positive in form. They are: *seldom, rarely, scarcely, hardly, barely, few, little*:

I seldom see him. — Neither do I.

Some people rarely or never go to the dentist.

There is scarcely any sense in it, is there?

You can hardly do it, can you?

It has made few changes in her life.

He cares very little for his reputation.

When placed at the beginning of the sentence, semi-negatives usually cause subject-operator inversion:

Rarely have I seen anything of that sort of things.

Few changes has it made in her life.

14.2. STRUCTURAL TYPES OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

There are two structural types of simple sentences:

Two-member sentences with two main members — *a subject* and *a predicate* present or perceived within the structure of the sentence: *She is sleeping.*

One-member sentences with one main member which has a non-definable syntactical function within the sentence structure: *Bright summer day.*

There is much controversy in treatment of what is called here "a one-member sentence". Structurally it is a phrase or a separate word that is used both as a means of communication and/or as merely a unit of nomination: *Winter arrives in Germany* (two-member sentence); *Russian winter* (one-member sentence); *The Winter of Our Discontent* (a unit of nomination). Some linguists restrain from ascribing such structures to any type of the sentence.

Both two-member and one-member sentences can be unextended (having only the main member(s) of the sentence) and extended (having secondary member(s) of the sentence: an object, an adverbial or an attribute).

14.2.1. Two-member Sentences

A two-member sentence is classed as **complete** when it has both main members of the sentence — *a subject* and *a predicate* physical-

ly present in the sentence: *They* (the subject) speak (the predicate) *English well*.

A two-member sentence is classed as **elliptical (incomplete)** when either of or even both main members of the sentence are absent from the sentence structure but can be easily recovered. Ellipsis (grammatical omission) regularly occurs in conversation in replies and questions.

Here are some examples of elliptical sentences, with an indication of what has been omitted:

Who's done it? — Tom (has done it). (The predicate is missing.)

Will she come? — (I) Hope so. (The subject is missing.)

How do you feel? — (I feel) Strange (The subject and a part of the predicate are missing.)

Where have you sprung from? — (I've sprung from the) Back yard. (Both the subject and the predicate are physically absent from the structure of the sentence.)

14.2.2. One-member Sentences

One-member sentences are mostly used in descriptions and in emotional speech. They consist of a main member of the sentence (either of nominal or verbal origin) which can be unextended or extended:

Home! (nominal unextended)

Sweet home! (nominal extended)

To come. To see. To conquer. (verbal unextended)

To come home! To see your folks! (verbal extended)

14.3. PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

Sentences of various types are made up of elements that are distinguished by their position, their relation to each other, and, often, by a certain semantic content. These elements are called parts of the sentence and they are classified into **principal parts** — more or less self-sufficient members of the sentence, and **secondary parts** that modify the principal parts or each other.

The principal parts of a two-member sentence are traditionally considered to be the **subject** and the **predicate**.

The secondary parts of a sentence make the sentence extended and are the **object**, the **adverbial modifier** and (slightly lower in rank) the **attribute** and the **apposition**.

Besides the principal and secondary parts of the sentence there are so-called independent elements standing outside the structure of the sentence. They are the **parenthesis** and the **vocative**.

14.3.1. The Subject

The subject is a principal part of a two-member sentence. It refers to the person or thing whose action or state is defined by the predicate. The subject controls the form of the verb which typically follows (in declarative sentences) the subject.

14.3.1.1. Ways of Expressing the Subject

The subject can be expressed by different parts of speech.

1. A noun in the common case:

Science is organized knowledge.

Tom has just left.

Occasionally a noun in the independent possessive case is used as the subject of the sentence:

My aunt's is a nice place.

The jury's was not the right approach.

2. A pronoun:

a) personal in the nominative case:

I am hungry;

b) in a very informal style the objective personal pronoun is used in elliptical responses with *too*, *nor* and *neither*:

I'm glad it's Friday. — Me too! (= I am too)! Us too! (= We are too);

I don't want to do it. — Nor me! Me neither!;

c) demonstrative:

This is not right;

d) compound:

Everybody knows it;

e) distributive:

All is OK;

f) negative:

Nothing ever happens to me;

g) independent possessive:

Yours is not the best plan;

h) interrogative:

Who has done it?

3. A substantivized adjective or participle:

The old believe everything.

The middle-aged suspect everything.

The young know everything.

4. A numeral (cardinal and ordinal):

The two were evidently at a loss.

The first and the second stood silent.

5. An infinitive:

To err is human.

6. A gerund:

Jogging keeps you fit.

7. Any part of speech used as a quotation;

"On" is a preposition.

14.3.1.2. Structural Classification of the Subject

When expressed by a verbal, subjects structurally fall into three groups: **the simple subject**, **the phrasal subject**, and **the complex subject**.

1. The simple subject is expressed by a single word-form:

To see is to believe. (a single infinitive)

Lying is a great sin. (a single gerund)

2. The phrasal subject is expressed by a group of words functioning as one syntactic unit:

To see her is to fall in love with her. (an infinitive phrase)

Continuous lying is always monotonous. (a gerundial phrase)

3. The complex subject is expressed by a predicative complex:

For us to see her was a rare treat. (an infinitive construction)

Her lying to everybody was very monotonous. (a gerundial construction)

14.3.1.3. It as the Subjects of the Sentence

When the pronoun *it* is used as the subject of a sentence, it may represent a thing, a living being or a notion and then it is a **notional subject**.

When the pronoun *it* has no definite reference and performs a purely grammatical function of the subject, it is a **formal subject** also called **empty** or **dummy it**.

1. Notional it. When it is a notional subject, the pronoun it has the following meanings. It stands for a definite thing or abstract idea — personal it. The personal it is usually translated into Russian with the help of personal pronouns *он*, *она*, *оно*:

The house was dark. It was evidently empty.

His theory was not impossible. It was inappropriate.

It points out some person or thing expressed by a predicative noun or a pronoun (a noun or a pronoun that follows the verb *be*) — cataphoric demonstrative it. Sentences of this type name people and things:

Who is there? — It's Tom.

Who's broken the cup? — It's him.

It refers to the thought expressed in a preceding statement — anaphoric demonstrative it:

He came early. It made us change our plans.

Demonstrative it is usually translated into Russian by *это*.

2. Formal it. The formal subject it can be found in the following sentence patterns.

Impersonal it is used in sentences

a) that describe the state of weather, environment:

It is raining there now. (the verbal predicate denotes an action)

It is dark/dirty/nice here. (the nominal part of the predicate denotes a state and is expressed by an adjective)

b) that present the idea of time, temperature, distance:

It is morning/late/5 p.m. now.

It's time to do it.

It's a long way to Tipperary.

c) that describe situations. In this case there is always a link verb and a predicative clause to follow:

It seemed that she knew everything.

It appeared he had calmed down.

Introductory it introduces the real (extraposed) subject of the sentence expressed by an infinitive, a gerund, a verbal phrase or construction, a subject clause in a complex sentence:

It's really good to see you.

It's no use doing this again.

It's nice for you to talk about such things.

It seemed quite evident that she knew everything.

Sentences with introductory it thus contain two subjects: the formal introductory subject it and the extraposed subject expressed as

stated above. Such sentences can be transformed (contrary to the growing tendency) into sentences with the meaningful subject in the initial position:

To see you is really good.

That she knew everything seemed quite evident.

Emphatic it is used in the principal clause of a complex sentence to emphasize the predicative — the word that follows the verb *be*. Sentences with emphatic *it* are often called “cleft” sentences because a simple sentence is split up (cleft) into two clauses:

Tom phoned Mary yesterday. (simple sentence, no emphasis)

It was Tom who phoned Mary yesterday. (subject is emphasised)

It was Mary who Tom phoned yesterday. (object is emphasised)

It was yesterday that Tom phoned Mary. (adverbial is emphasised)

Note that after emphatic *it* the verb *be* is always singular:

It was Tom and Mary that talked over the telephone yesterday.

The conjunction *that* is normally used in sentences with emphatic *it*. When the subject of the simple sentence is emphasized, *who* (referring to persons) is possible instead of *that*. To emphasize the object referring to people, *who* and *whom* are possible instead of *that*:

It was in London that they met.

It is Tom that/who took my girlfriend from me.

It is Mary that/who/whom Tom took away from me.

When the emphasized subject is a pronoun, there is a choice between the nominative and the objective cases of the personal pronoun:

It was me who opened the letter. (informal)

It was I who opened the letter. (formal)

Emphatic *it* can emphasize any member of the simple sentence except the predicate.

3. The formal introductory subject *there*. There are sentences where the notional subject is introduced by the word *there* (unstressed) with a simple predicate expressed by the verb *be* (*appear, follow, live, come, exist*) to follow:

There is a book on the desk.

There appeared a stranger at the door.

Once upon a time there lived a king.

Such sentences express the idea of the existence or coming into existence of a person or a non-person denoted by the notional subject and are called existential sentences.

The construction with *there* allows new and/or important information to come at the end of the sentence thus making this information more prominent.

The form of the verb *be* normally agrees with the notional subject, but in informal English the verb may be singular even when the postponed subject is plural:

There are two students in the classroom.

There is two students in the classroom. (informal)

The formal subject *there* should not be confused with the adverbial of place expressed by the adverb *there* (always stressed): *There we shall meet you.*

14.3.2. The Predicate

The predicate is the second principal member of the sentence. Semantically it denotes an action performed by / over the subject or a state ascribed to the subject. Alongside with it, the predicate expresses the relation of the action to reality, the direction of the action, the time and the aspect of the action.

Normally the predicate contains a finite verb which grammatically agrees with the subject.

According to the semantics and the structure, the predicate is classified into two major types: the simple predicate and the compound predicate.

14.3.2.1. The Simple Predicate

The simple predicate denotes an action or a state which is represented as an action. Structurally the simple predicate falls into two groups³⁷: the simple verbal predicate and the simple phraseological predicate.

1. The simple verbal predicate which is expressed by a finite verb in a synthetic or analytical form:

Everyone lives by selling something.

We know nothing about it.

You will be immediately recognized.

The car made off at once.

³⁷Some grammarians maintain that there is a simple nominal predicate expressed by a noun, or an adjective, or participle I, e.g.: *He a gentleman! She pretty! Me telling lies?* Such an approach to the treatment of this pattern seems plausible but yet not adopted in this book. Sentences of this type are characteristic of colloquial English but marginal in use. Here they are treated as elliptical in form (compound nominal predicate with its link verb omitted) and either exclamatory or interrogative in meaning.

*We have been paying you a lot of money.
I'll take this picture of yours with me.*

2. The simple phraseological predicate which is expressed by a phraseological unit typically consisting of a finite monotransitive verb that has partly lost its concrete meaning and a noun (see 5.4. The Verbs Phrase):

She made fun of everybody and everything.

We have been paying too much attention to you.

I'll take care of that.

All of a sudden she changed her mind and put an end to the conversation.

The number of expressions constituting the simple phraseological predicate is large. Among these expressions are such idioms as: *to call someone names*, *to change one's mind*, *to find fault (with)*, *to get in touch (with)*, *to get rid (of)*, *to lose one's head*, *to lose one's heart*, *to lose sight (of)*, *to make up one's mind*, *to take interest (in)*, *to take part (in)*, etc.

3. There is a subtype of the simple phraseological predicate that may be termed the **simple discrete predicate** which is expressed by a transitive verb and an action related noun often used with the indefinite article (see also 5.4. The Verbs Phrase). The simple discrete predicate denotes a single action that is separate and different from similar actions:

For nearly half an hour none of them made a move.

I'll pay a call on him later this evening.

He took a glance at the newspaper headlines.

I've just had a hot bath.

The first element of the simple discrete predicate — the verb does not denote any definite action. This is done by the noun:

We'll get in touch with you when we've had an idea about what to do.

I'll have a go at mending the fuse.

This type of predicate is characteristically conversational and is very frequently used.

The most commonly used verbs within the simple discrete predicates are the verbs *have*, *give*, *make* and *take*. They are combined with various nouns.

Have is used with nouns referring to:

disagreement: *argument, fight, quarrel, trouble*;

relaxation: *break, holiday, rest, smoke*;

meals: *breakfast, dinner, drink, lunch, meal, tea*;

talking: *chat, conversation, discussion, talk;*
washing: *bath, shower, swim, wash.*

Give is used with nouns referring to:

facial expressions: *grin, smile;*
hitting: *kick, punch, slap;*
human noises: *cry, gasp, giggle, laugh, scream, shout, sigh, whistle, yell;*
talking: *advice, answer, lecture, news, report, speech, talk, warning.*

Make is used with nouns referring to:

plans: *arrangement, bet, choice, decision, plan;*
talking and sounds: *comment, enquiry, noise, point, remark, speech, sound;*
travelling: *journey, tour, trip, visit.*

Take is used with the nouns *chance, interest, photo, trouble, decision, offence, risk, turns.*

Note that in a sentence with a simple verbal predicate a question can be easily and most naturally put to the noun (object) that follows the verb:

We took your money. (simple verbal) — *What did you take?*

Quite conversely, both the simple phraseological and the simple discrete predicates do not permit putting questions to their second element:

We took part in the event. (simple phraseological) — **What did you take?* but *What did you do?*

Let's have a talk about it. (simple discrete) — **What shall we have?* but *What shall we do?*

14.3.2.2. The Compound Predicate

The compound predicate consists of two parts:

a) the structural, expressed by a finite verb that carries grammatical information about the person, number, tense, voice, modal and aspective (relating to the duration, repetition, beginning or completion of the state or action) meaning;

b) the notional, expressed by a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, an adverb or a verbal.

From the point of view of meaning the most significant part of the compound predicate is the notional part as it contains the information about the subject.

The compound predicate may be **nominal** or **verbal**.

1. The compound nominal predicate denotes the state or quality of the person or thing expressed by the subject:

He is tired.

The day is nice today.

The compound nominal predicate may also ascribe the subject to a certain class:

She is a student;

or locate the subject:

They are at home.

The structural part of the compound nominal predicate is termed a **link verb**; the notional part is called a **(subject) predicative**.

All link verbs (or verbs of incomplete predication) have to some extent lost their original meaning but still can be classed into three lexical groups:

1) link verbs of **being** — *be, feel, look, smell, sound, taste, seem, appear, etc.*:

You look pale today.

This sponge cake smells delicious.

The idea seemed improbable.

The solution appeared simple.

2) link verbs of **becoming** — *become, go, grow, get, turn, make, etc.*:

The case became a hot potato for the government.

The market prices got nasty.

He has turned grey.

He will make a good soldier.

3) link verbs of **remaining** — *remain, keep, stay:*

She remained calm.

They kept silent.

He stayed alone.

Many of these verbs can be used both as the notional verbs functioning as simple verbal predicates, and as link verbs within the compound nominal predicates. Cf.:

Simple verbal predicates

God is.

The doctor felt her pulse.

A glow of light appeared over the sea.

I grow roses in my garden.

She idly turned the pages of a magazine.

Link verbs

They are my friends.

The doctor felt worried.

He appears confident.

She grew pale.

A few years later he turned professional.

*The end of the world has come.
I looked at her and smiled.*

*My hopes have come true.
She looked strangely familiar.*

The predicative can be expressed by a noun in the common case, occasionally by a noun in the possessive case:

*He is a lawyer;
This car is my friend's;*

or by an adjective or an adjective phrase:

- She remained watchful.*
- We are not afraid.*
- The cuisine of this restaurant is remarkably unremarkable.*

Special attention should be paid to the fact that a predicative adjective in English often corresponds to an adverbial modifier expressed by an adverb in Russian:

She looks bad. — Она плохо выглядит.

This tune sounds marvellous. — Эта мелодия прекрасно звучит.

Well is a predicative adjective pointing to good health/satisfactory condition. Cf.: Russ. *Ребенок выглядит совсем здоровым.*

The predicative can also be expressed by

a) a pronoun:

It was he. (personal pronoun, nominative case)

It's me. (personal pronoun, objective case)

This book is mine. (possessive pronoun)

You are nobody. (negative pronoun)

Who are you? (interrogative pronoun)

You are not yourself today. (reflexive/emphatic pronoun)

b) a numeral, cardinal or ordinal:

I'll be twenty next summer.

They were the first to leave.

c) an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or construction:

His first move was to stand up.

The important thing is to defend our reputation.

This book is for you to read.

d) a gerund, a gerundial phrase or construction:

Her most obvious passion has always been eating.

The trouble with him is his continuous lying to everybody.

e) the -ed participle (participle II) or a participial phrase (see also
7. The Passive Voice):

*Come in. The door is not locked.
His answer was awkwardly formulated.*

f) the -ing participle (participle I) is rarely used in this function unless it is **adjectivized**:

Your proposition sounds inspiring;

g) a prepositional phrase:

He is at school;

h) an adverb of place:

They are not here;

When wine is in, the wit is out.

2. The compound nominal double predicate. There is a subtype of the compound nominal predicate in which the link verb expresses an action of its own: *He came home tired; She married young*. The finite verb in such predicates denotes some action (*he came, she married*), but the focal point of the sentence lies in the information conveyed by the predicative noun or adjective that express the properties of the subject. The meaning of such sentences can be alternatively rendered in the following way: *He was tired when he came home; She was young when she married*. The finite verb, besides being a predicate in itself, also performs the function of a link verb.

Since such predicates have properties of both simple verbal predicate and those of compound nominal one, they are termed **double predicates**. There are a number of verbs that often occur in this type of predicate — *die, lie, live, marry, return, rise, sit, stand, shine*, etc.:

He died a hero.

The hills lay bare and deserted.

She came in gloomy.

The sun was shining warm and bright.

The verbs *call, elect, leave, keep, find, think, report* used in the passive voice often serve as the first constituent of the compound nominal double predicate:

The young man was called Tom.

He was elected president.

The shop was kept open an extra hour.

We were never left alone.

She was found guilty.

They were reported dead.

In Modern English there is a growing tendency to use this type of predicate with a variety of verbs not limited to a particular lexical class.

3. The compound verbal predicate. According to the meaning of the finite verb that constitutes a structural part of the predicate, the compound verbal predicate can be classified into three types:

- 1) The compound verbal modal predicate.
- 2) The compound verbal dispositional predicate.
- 3) The compound verbal aspect predicate.

The compound verbal modal predicate shows that the action expressed by the infinitive (the notional part of the predicate) is considered possible, impossible, obligatory, necessary, desirable, prearranged, certain, etc. These shades of meaning are expressed by the first (structural) component of the predicate.

The compound verbal modal predicate may be expressed by

- a) a modal verb and an infinitive:

You cannot wash charcoal white;

She might have been more thoughtful about her elders;

The car would not start;

- b) a modal expression *be able*, *be about*, *be allowed*, *be anxious*, *be bound*, *be capable*, *be going*, *be obliged*, *be willing* and an infinitive:

Most schools are not legally obliged to follow national curriculum;

We are anxious to restore friendly links with them;

The company is willing to pay you handsomely;

That was bound to happen sooner or later;

- c) a verb with a modal meaning *manage*, *fail*, *try*, *attempt*, *long*, *wish*, *want*, *intend*, etc. and an infinitive or, sometimes, a gerund:

The new party has so far managed to recruit only 10,000 members;

England failed to win the cup last year;

I'll try to come on time;

We do not intend relinquishing the deal.

The structural part of the compound modal predicate may contain both a modal verb and a modal expression:

She might be able to come.

The compound verbal dispositional predicate is a sub-type of the compound verbal modal predicate. The compound verbal dispositional predicate together with the subject of the sentence make up a subjective infinitive construction (see 10. Verbs) whose peculiarity is that it does not serve as one part of the sentence. In the compound verbal dispositional predicate the first (structural) part is expressed by a finite verb often used in the passive voice and denotes the atti-

tude, disposition of the speaker to the content of the sentence. The second (notional) part is expressed by the infinitive and denotes the action performed by the subject:

She seems to know everything.

They were reported to have co-operated with the police.

The weather is not likely to change.

The first part of the compound verbal dispositional predicate can be expressed by a number of verbs used in the passive voice. The most important of them are:

a) the verbs of mental activity — *know, believe, suppose, consider, expect*, etc.:

The government is believed to have come to some decision.

The decision is expected to be made public soon.

b) the verbs of reporting — *say, report, declare, state, rumour*, etc.:

His new book is reported to be selling well.

She is rumoured to have been banned from the stage.

c) the verbs of perception — *feel, hear, see*:

She has never been heard to utter a dirty word.

They were seen to succeed in living a happy married life.

d) the verbs denoting the imposition of the following action — *make, force, compel, press*:

We were made to shake hands.

I was compelled to intervene in the dispute.

The first part of the compound verbal dispositional predicate can also be expressed by intransitive verbs of evaluation used in the active voice — *seem, happen, appear, prove, turn out*, etc.:

I happen to know her quite well.

She seemed to be listening attentively.

or by phrases with a modal meaning — *be sure, be certain, be (un)likely*:

You are sure to like her.

It is unlikely to rain.

The **compound verbal aspect** predicate expresses the beginning, repetition, duration or cessation of the action expressed by an infinitive or a gerund. Its first element is a verb of

a) **beginning** — *begin, start, commence, take to, fall to, come to*:

He started working at the tender age of twelve.

Some teenagers have taken to wearing a gold stud through their nostrils.

b) **d**uration — *go on, keep (on), proceed, continue, carry on:*

Having listened to my advice she proceeded to do the exact opposite.

We carried on working until ten o'clock last night.

c) **r**epetition — *would, used* (denoting a repeated action in the past):

We used to talk much about it.

When a boy he would spend a whole day by the river.

d) **c**essation — *stop, finish, cease, quit, give up:*

The factory has stopped making this sort of car.

Suddenly she quit talking and turned to me.

Mixed types of compound predicates are the crossbreeds of all above described compound predicates. They can be of various composition:

Our plans are to become reality. (the compound modal nominal predicate)

They seem to be very happy. (the compound dispositional nominal predicate)

They used to be good friends. (the compound aspect nominal predicate)

You should give up smoking. (the compound modal aspect predicate)

They must be made to sign this paper. (the compound modal dispositional predicate)

They are reported to have started using the new technique. (the compound dispositional aspect predicate)

She must have stopped feeling young long ago. (the compound modal aspect nominal predicate)

14.3.3. Concord

In the English language the predicate agrees with the subject in person and number, i. e. a singular subject requires a predicate in the singular, a plural subject requires a predicate in the plural.

This rule of grammatical agreement — **concord** — affects the use of the finite verb in all present tenses and also the past indefinite tense (simple past tense) of the verb *be*.

The guidelines on the trickiest cases of the use of the rule of concord are presented below:

Subject expressed by...	Verb form	Example
I. NOUNS		
1. SINGULARIA TANTUM NOUNS: <i>advice, homework, housework, information, money, progress, knowledge, news, debris, linguistics, mathematics, maths, physics, athletics, gymnastics, etc.</i>	Singular	<i>The news on TV is always depressing. Gymnastics is part of our physical training course.</i>
2. PLURALIA TANTUM NOUNS: <i>clothes, trousers, jeans, shorts, tights, pyjamas, goods, stairs, spectacles, scissors, outskirts, proceeds, remains, belongings, earnings, congratulations, etc.</i>	Plural	<i>My belongings are all packed up in two suitcases. The proceeds of the concert are going to the children's fund.</i>
3. INVARIABLE COLLECTIVE NOUNS: a) <i>the audience, the public, the media, the press, the population, the majority, etc.</i> b) <i>cattle, clergy, police, people (human beings), troops, vermin</i>	Singular or Plural Plural	<i>The public wants / want to know how it is / they are governed.</i> <i>Troops are being sent in the city today.</i>
4. VARIABLE COLLECTIVE NOUNS: <i>committee, company, class, council, crew, crowd, family, firm, group, government, staff, jury, team, etc.</i>	Singular or Plural when the noun is singular	<i>My family is / are on holiday.</i> BUT <i>Many families are in need of help.</i>
5. INVARIABLE COUNT NOUNS: <i>deer, sheep, offspring, aircraft, means, series, species, kennels, headquarters, crossroads, Chinese, Swiss, etc.</i>	Singular or Plural depending on the meaning	<i>Her younger offspring is like her. Her two offspring are in the army now</i>
6. NOUNS OF MEASURE: The whole amount of time (<i>days, years</i>), distance (<i>miles, meters</i>), weight (<i>pounds, grams</i>), etc.	Singular	<i>Ten years is a long time.</i> <i>1,000 dollars is a large sum of money.</i>

Subject expressed by...	Verb form	Example
7. NOUNS OF QUANTITY + OF + NOUN: <i>a number of ... a variety of ... a lot of ... a mass of ... plenty of ... the majority of...</i>	Singular or Plural	<i>The majority of us behave this way.</i> <i>The majority of the military has not been paid in three weeks.</i>
8. Quantifier MANY + singular noun	Singular	<i>Many a man knows about it.</i>
9. A numerical expression of arithmetical addition, subtraction, division and multiplication	Singular but may be Plural	<i>Four and two is six.</i> <i>Nine divided by three is three.</i> <i>Twice two is/are four.</i>

II. PRONOUNS

1. EMPHATIC IT	Singular	<i>It is they who are responsible</i>
2. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS: <i>who, what</i>	Singular, but may be Plural	<i>Who has done it?</i> <i>What is it?</i> <i>Who are absent?</i>
3. RELATIVE PRONOUNS: <i>who, which, that</i>	Verb agrees with the antecedent	<i>It is I who am wrong.</i> <i>It is me who is not right.</i> <i>It is they who are mistaken.</i>
4. COMPOUND PRONOUNS: <i>somebody, someone, anybody, anyone, something, anything, everybody, everyone, everything</i>	Singular	<i>Somebody has come.</i> <i>Everything is ready.</i>
5. NEGATIVE PRONOUNS: a) <i>nobody, no one, nothing</i> b) <i>none of ... neither of...</i>	Singular Singular or Plural	<i>Nobody knows it.</i> <i>Nothing belongs to me here.</i> <i>None of them knows/ know about it.</i> <i>Neither of us is/are happy.</i>
6. DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS: a) <i>all</i> b) <i>all</i> c) <i>each</i>	Singular Plural Singular	<i>All is well that ends well.</i> <i>All are welcome.</i> <i>Each fancies a second existence.</i>

Subject expressed by...	Verb form	Example
III. TWO NOUNS AND A CONJUNCTION		
1. Both... and...	Plural	<i>Both they and she know it.</i>
2. Either... or ..., Neither... nor ... Not only... but also...	Verb agrees with the nearest noun	<i>Neither they nor I am interested. Neither I nor they are interested</i>
3. ...as well as..., ...as much as..., ...rather than..., ...more than...	Verb agrees with the first noun	<i>My parents as well as my sister are teachers. My sister as well as my parents is a teacher.</i>
4. bacon and eggs, bread and butter, gin and tonic, etc. when thought of as a unit	Singular	<i>Gin and tonic is an excellent long drink.</i>

14.4. THE SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

14.4.1. The Object

The object is part of the complementation of a verb, a verbal or an adjective within verb, verbal (non-finite) or adjective phrases. It refers to a person or thing, or a state of affairs which is affected or produced by, or is related to the action or state expressed by the predicate of a sentence:

She has bought a house.

They were uncertain of the future.

She was attached to her sister.

He was very good at running and swimming.

I remember having dinner with him.

I'd much prefer to decide for myself.

I asked Jim to stay on.

There may be two objects in one simple sentence:

Mary sent Jane a letter.

Mary sent the letter to Jane.

The pronoun it can be used as a formal object with a real object (expressed by an infinitive or gerundial phrase) extraposed to the end of the sentence:

I don't like it to be treated like this.

She made it habit of hers to be a couple of minutes late.

14.4.1.1. Ways of Expressing the Object

There are many various ways of expressing the object. It may be represented by a single word, a phrase, a predicative construction or a subordinate clause.

The following parts of speech and phrases may function as objects in the sentence.

A noun or a noun phrase:

They had problems.

Smith visited the company headquarters.

Simon gathered his thoughts for the next morning's meeting.

Jack's passion for running had given him the physical and mental strength to overcome stressful problems in his job before.

A pronoun (a personal pronoun in the objective case, or possessive, distributive, reflexive, demonstrative and indefinite pronouns):

She gave me her new book to read.

I found your work, but can't find hers.

They gave them all they need.

Buy yourself everything you need.

I'd like to take this.

He couldn't find anything he was looking for.

A numeral:

At last we saw the two strolling along the embankment.

He found two of them speaking in the hall.

A substantivized adjective or participle:

We'll do our best to help him.

He found the wounded in the courtyard.

An infinitive or an infinitive phrase:

They decided to meet and talk.

The colonel ordered his men to stop.

Nobody likes to be talked about.

A gerund or a gerundial construction:

Do you hate having your photograph taken?

A prepositional phrase can serve as object:

Charles looked round the circle of expectant faces at the board-room table.

They are fond of travelling.

We look forward to seeing the report.

The (complex) object may be expressed by predicative constructions (non-finite clauses):

Everybody expected him to return in time.

They insisted on my answering him immediately.

In a complex sentence, a subordinate clause may serve as an object to a verb in the main clause:

I didn't know where they lived.

We found out that they had left in the morning.

A quotation may serve as an object of the sentence as well:

She exclaimed "My God" and started crying.

He left the room murmuring "To be or not to be".

14.4.1.2. Kinds of Objects

Traditionally three main kinds of objects are distinguished in English: direct object, indirect object, and prepositional objects.

1. The direct object is commonly used after transitive verbs and denotes a person or a thing wholly involved and /or directly affected by the action of a transitive verb:

I was writing letters yesterday evening.

She saw me and smiled.

The direct object may be expressed by a single noun or a noun phrase:³⁸

We have already made the choice.

Philip Agee, the finance director, threw up his hands.

I don't like long conversations.

She showed me a photo of her family.

The direct object may complement monotransitive phrasal verbs, with the adverb preceding or following it:

Ray gave up his work.

Come on, I'll show you around.

If the direct object refers to something which can be viewed as a result of the action of a transitive verb, it is called an **effected object**:

Together with Harold he built a full-rigged, four-masted ship.

Producer Patrick Mason and designer Joe Vanek have created a fantasy city of Seville.

³⁸ The object expressed by a non-finite phrase or a clause cannot be assigned the function of direct object.

Locative objects denoting points of departure, destination or a path are exemplified by sentences which contain verbs of motion:

*The boys barricaded the gates and mounted the city walls.
One day they climbed Moel Farma, the highest hill in the Clwydian range. In 1755 he reached Newport, Rhode Island.
He crossed the hotel lobby and went down the corridor.
Can we make the station in five minutes? (= Can we get to the station..?)*

The direct object regularly becomes the subject of a sentence if the verb is used in its passive form:

*This full-rigged ship was built by Harold.
The abstract nature of this entire process should not be underestimated.*

The direct object may also be replaced by a pronoun:

Jack doesn't like it.

A number of marginal categories of direct object consist of phrases which cannot be made the subject of a sentence or replaced by a pronoun. When the direct object is derivationally related to the verb, it is called a cognate object. A cognate object is usually preceded by an attribute:

*He slept a deep sleep.
They lived a happy life.
He smiled a scornful smile.
He died a terrible death.*

Another category of direct object may be distinguished when a verb is immediately followed by a phrase of measure or extent:

*His bill for this particular course of treatment had already reached \$45,000.
The company's shares jumped 10 percent.
New operating theatres would have cost an extra \$250,000 a year.
Scientists from the National Earthquake Centre suggested that the rupture ran 30 miles south from the epicentre.*

Though quite a few transitive verbs may take a reflexive pronoun as a normal direct object, in some sentences the reflexive object can easily be omitted without any change in sentence meaning. Cf.:

*John hit himself. (direct object)
John dressed (himself). (reflexive object)*

There is almost no reason to suppose that the noun phrases in the following sentences can be semantically defined as "proper" direct objects:

This blue colour becomes you.
He failed us in our need.
He resembles his father.

Note that sentences like *This book will make a best seller*; *You might make a good journalist* contain the link verb *make* followed by a noun complement functioning as subject-predicative.

As was said, the direct object usually comes immediately after a verb or an adjective it is semantically attached to. However, it may be separated from it in the following cases:

a) if there is an indirect object which traditionally precedes the direct object in the sentence:

He offered us his hand;

b) if the phrase functioning as direct object contains syntactically long modifiers:

She took from them the things which were so dear to her mother;

c) if the verb or the adjective is followed by an adverb or particle:

He gave up his work.

The direct object may also be placed at the beginning of an exclamatory or the interrogative sentence or particle:

What wonderful weather we are having today!

What did you say?

What kind of films do you prefer?

Which season do you like best of all?

The speaker can highlight a direct object by placing it in the first part of the cleft sentence (see 15.2. The Complex Sentence):

It is this film that he likes most.

In pseudo-cleft sentences the direct object may be expressed by the connective *what* introducing a nominal clause:

This is what you need most.

What you need is a record of seven to ten days of fairly typical intake of food and drink.

2. The indirect object is the first complement of the ditransitive verb. The second noun phrase complementing the verb functions as direct object:

No one would give him any money.
Hey, give me a chance!

Owen drew his mother a plan of the house and sent her a description of his "excellent friends".

He will owe you a lot of money.

She taught him more than any of his previous teachers.

They will ask you a lot of questions.

The boys used to tell each other stories that were meant to be original.

Sometimes the indirect object is used alone to complement the verb:

Shall I tell him?

His mother decided that she would teach him at home.

In *She might make him a good wife* the indirect object *him* is followed by the phrase *a good wife* which is best analyzed as the subject predicative (see 5.4. The Verb Phrase), even though the verb *make* is definitely not a simple link verb in this sentence.

It should be noted that the indirect object generally refers to a human (or animate) being. Semantically, someone denoted by the indirect object can be viewed as a recipient or beneficiary of the action of the ditransitive verb.

A most important characteristic of the indirect object is that it is systematically related to a prepositional phrase introduced by *to*, *for*, or sometimes *of*:

The second defendant sent the photocopy of the affidavit to his solicitor.

Take care, and give my love to everyone.

She bought a new dress for her daughter.

He asked a question of her.

As these examples show, the prepositional phrase corresponding to the indirect object of the ditransitive verb usually follows the direct object. It should be grammatically distinguished from other prepositional phrases that cannot function as (non-prepositional) indirect objects. Cf.:

The Queen sent a message to the President.

The Queen sent a message to Pakistan.

The status of the phrase *to the President* in the first sentence is very close to that of the indirect object while the phrase *to Pakistan* may be defined as part of the complementation of the complex transitive verb, and its function can be described as that of object predicative (or as an obligatory adverbial modifier of place)³⁹.

³⁹ In this book, phrases like *to Pakistan* are regarded as object predicatives if they denote (metaphorically) a point of departure, destination, or a path. Cf.: *He rubbed the towel over his face and hands; We will have to put ourselves in a better position.*

3. The prepositional object is a nominal phrase introduced by a preposition which serves as part of the complementation of the prepositional verb or an adjective with a "fixed" preposition:

The value of liberty depends on other values.

The baby is still dependent on its mother.

An odd bar of chocolate is not going to result in ill health.

We must resort to metaphor, allusion or allegory if we wish a more expressive term.

As with the direct objects of monotransitive non-prepositional verbs, the prepositional object may often become the subject of a sentence with a passive prepositional verb:

A birth certificate can be called for by, for instance, an employer or public institution.

In this language mother's brothers and father's brothers are referred to by different words.

Ditransitive prepositional verbs are complemented by a direct object, which follows the verb, and by a prepositional phrase, which follows the direct object:

Game theorists divide games into "zero sum" and "nonzero sum".

She blamed herself for the break-up of their relationship.

They talked him into buying a new hat.

Normally, the prepositional object of a ditransitive prepositional verb cannot become a passive subject. There are, however, a number of idiomatic expressions which have both a direct and a prepositional object as complements: *pay attention to*, *give rise to*, *take care of*, *find fault with*, *put an end to*, etc. These expressions may allow the prepositional object as passive subject. Cf.:

No attention was paid to his remark.

His remark was not paid any attention to.

A prepositional phrase may also function as prepositional object of both monotransitive and ditransitive phrasal prepositional verbs:

They also have to put up with the heaviest police presence.

The pony could hardly catch up with its companions.

I really got off on that music.

I put down his bad temper to his recent illness.

Some monotransitive phrasal prepositional verbs may be used in the passive form with the prepositional object as their subject:

This just has to be put up with.

Brussels argues that veterinary controls should be done away with.

With ditransitive phrasal verbs, it is only the direct object that may become the passive subject:

He's too taken up with his own problems.

14.4.2. The Attribute

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which constitutes part of a noun phrase, modifies its head and denotes a quality of a person or a thing. Since the head of a noun phrase may be a noun, a pronoun, a substantivized adjective or a numeral, the attribute gives more information about what these parts of speech refer to. The attribute in English does not agree with the head of a noun phrase in case or gender. It does agree with the head in number if the attribute is expressed by a demonstrative pronoun: cf. *this book* vs *these books*.

14.4.2.1. Ways of Expressing the Attribute

There are many ways of expressing the attribute. It may be represented by a single word, a phrase, or a subordinate clause; it may precede or follow the word it modifies.

The following parts of speech may function as attributes in the sentence.

An adjective or an adjective phrase is the commonest modifier in a noun phrase:

They liked their tiny clean room.

You could never see him without a plain suit and a grey tie.

Typically, adjectives precede nouns they modify, but sometimes adjective phrases may follow them: *students good at languages*, *skilled workers confident of their job prospects*, etc.

A pronoun (demonstrative, indefinite, interrogative, relative, distributive, possessive)⁴⁰:

I don't like these ideas.

Some people always know what to do.

What book are you reading?

They are such nice people.

My children don't like sweets.

What a pretty hat you are wearing!

Possessive pronouns are often not translated into Russian:

She held out her hand to me. (Russ.: *Она протянула мне руку.*)

⁴⁰ Not all pronouns of these classes can serve as attributes (see 3. The Pronoun); we include some pronouns into attributes even though their syntactic function can be better described as that of determiners: like articles, they introduce noun phrases.

He lifted his head and gave Jack an affectionate nudge (Russ.:
Он поднял голову...)

A numeral, cardinal or ordinal, which is used to express number order usually precedes the word it modifies:

She will be back in two or three weeks.

Hundreds of years must pass before we understand it.

I didn't like the second act of the play.

A noun in the common or possessive case or a noun phrase:

Where did you get that ugly straw hat?

My mother's sister was a charming woman of forty.

He has found a three hundred and fifty pound job.

One of the peculiarities of the English language is the extensive use of nouns in the common case functioning as attributes and preceding the head-word of a noun phrase: *stamp collectors*, *a stone wall*, *power station*, *emergency meeting*, *incomes policy*, *a county council election*, *a railway strike decision*, *Bank Credit Regulation Committee*, etc. In Russian, nouns are not usually used as attributes.

Nouns in the genitive case preceding the head-word of a noun phrase are also very typical of the English language. In most of their uses, they are determiners replacing articles or possessive pronouns in the noun phrase:

We were surprised to hear John's decision.

He reacted badly to the break-up of his parents' marriage.

He arrived in the White House yesterday to re-style the President's image.

The determiners *his* and *the* in the above sentences belong to the words *parents* and *President*, not to the heads (*marriage*, *image*) of the noun phrases. In some cases, however, genitive nouns serve as proper modifiers denoting qualities of objects:

He made a fatal blunder after almost six hours' play.

This new school is now replacing a former vocational school and a former boys' school.

It is the president's job to reconvene parliament.

The genitives in these sentences are modifiers, and the determiners preceding them apply to the whole noun phrases and not only to the genitives.

When preceded by numerals higher than one, attributive nouns are usually used in the singular: *a five-pound note* (but *five pounds*), *a two-mile walk* (but *two miles*), or *a two-year-old child*. But some attributive nouns may also be found in the plural. Cf.: *a two week holiday* and *two weeks' holiday*.

When an attribute which consists of a noun and an adjective precedes a noun acting as a head-word in the sentence, it is usually the attributive noun that comes immediately before the head-word: *a cold winter day* (**a winter cold day*), *a nice silk blouse* (**a silk nice blouse*).

Participles can be used before or after the head word:

Everybody looked at the crying boy.

The broken dish immediately attracted my attention.

He couldn't tear his eyes away from the snow glittering in the sun.

A gerund:

It was winter, but the hunting season hadn't come yet.

I proposed to take sleeping tablets while travelling to Sydney.

One should bear in mind the difference between *the hunting season* (the season for hunting) with a gerund as an attribute and *a hunting lion* (a lion which is hunting) with participle I as an attribute. Cf. also *a sleeping child* (= a child who is sleeping) and *a sleeping tablet* (= a medicine for inducing sleep).

An infinitive or an infinitive phrase as an attribute is always used in post-position:

He is not an easy person to deal with.

She has a tendency to interrupt people talking.

I have a very interesting book for you to read.

Adverbs can be used as both pre-modifier and post-modifier of nouns:

In 1987 we had an opportunity to talk to the then secretary and his wife.

He didn't know what to do in the light of after events.

Voices could be heard from the room above.

He wanted to make sure that he was actually as strong as he had been the day before.

Prepositional phrases can also function as attributes. They are typical post-modifiers of nouns and may contain nouns in the common case, genitive nouns and pronouns in the possessive or objective case, numerals and gerundial phrases as prepositional complements:

The quality of the architecture promises to be very high.

I can't stand all those silly jokes of your brother's.

And so, early in August, he set off with his two sisters and an uncle of theirs, Alan Stuart.

He raised the heavy stick with such ferocious intent that attack from him seemed unavoidable.

Jack pins him with his shoulders on the floor for the count of three.

The normal reason for accepting a piece of advice is that it is likely to be sound advice.

The treatment of prepositional noun phrases modifying a preceding head-word, in English syntax is different from their treatment in Russian syntax where most of them are regarded as prepositional objects. So special care should be taken when analysing such prepositional phrases in the sentence:

He sent me a message from London. (adverbial modifier)

I received a message from London. (prepositional object)

The message from London came late at night. (attribute)

The attribute expressed by a prepositional phrase is very closely connected with the word it modifies and forms structures like *the city of St.Petersburg*, *the continent of America*, etc. When it is semantically more important than the word it syntactically modifies, it is sometimes considered to be a modified element as in the phrases of the type *an angel of a wife*, *the devil of a man*.

The preposition of may be dropped with nouns of colour, size, age, etc.:

A house the same size as ours was built on the bank of the river.

Whole clauses functioning as so-called quotations may be used before a head-word and are usually introduced in Russian by means of the conjunction *как будто*, *точно* with a clause which stands in post-position. They are usually hyphenated:

We liked her "I-never-know-what-to say" manner of speaking.

She had her usual "don't-touch-me" air about her.

Cf. also:

round-the-world air route, out-of-doors announcement, step-by-step approach, country-by-country analysis, turn-of-the-century buildings.

Attributive clauses used as postmodifiers transform the whole sentence into a complex one:

I'll never forget the day when we met first.

She is the girl whom we met on the day of our arrival.

(For further information see 15.2.4. Attributive Clauses.)

14.4.2.2. *The Position of Attributes*

The attribute may precede or follow its head-word. The typical premodifiers of nouns are adjectives, nouns, pronouns, ordinal numerals, and quotations unions.

It was a nice evening.

Apple trees were in blossom.

We admired his daughter.

My choice is the best.

Forgotten past often returns.

The music reminded her of her first ball.

That "I-know-what-to-do-best-of-all" manner of hers annoyed him a lot.

In most cases, prepositional phrases and attributive (relative) clauses are postmodifiers:

The highest paid director of a public company...

The Midlands park which attracts two and a half million visitors a year...

Adjectives may also be found in post-position. This attributive position immediately after the head-word belongs chiefly, though not entirely, to a literary style. It may be found when two adjectives are joined by a coordinate conjunction:

She was a woman kind and good-natured.

(Cf.: *She was a kind and good-natured woman.*)

It was an example simple and clear.

(Cf.: *It was a simple and clear example.*)

This position may also be found in some set expressions of French origin: *blood royal, body politic, court martial, heir apparent, notary public, president-elect, Princess Royal.*

Attributes modifying such pronouns as *anything, everything, someone, somebody* etc. are usually used in post-position: *somebody important, someone else, something else, something of interest, anything wrong, everything new.*

If the structure of an attribute is expanded, it is usually placed after the head-word: *a gentleman worthy of respect* (but *a worthy gentleman*), *a man jealous of his reputation* (but *a jealous man*), *a style impossible to imitate* (but *an impossible style*).

When a postmodifying adjective is preceded by *too* or *so*, the indefinite article precedes the head-word: *a style too difficult to imitate* or *a style so difficult to imitate* (but also *too difficult a style to imitate*), though phrases like *such a difficult style* or *a very difficult style*, with a premodifier, are more common.

The position of certain words in the function of an attribute may influence their meaning. Cf.: *the present members* (those who are members now), but *the members present* (those who are here now); *the proper style* (the correct style), but *the style proper* (the style in the strict sense of the word); or *the above powers*, (the powers mentioned earlier), but *the powers above* (Providence).

14.4.3. Apposition

Apposition is a special kind of attributive relation between noun phrases (appositives) which denote the same person or thing: a person or a thing referred to by one appositive is characterized or explained by the other appositive which gives the person or the thing another name. Though semantically the second appositive modifies the first one (which may thus be regarded as a head-word), syntactically both modifier and the noun modified are elements of the same grammatical status:

*John Smith, the Head of the Department, will give a talk today.
Their use of the word “consciousness” refers to the system of
meaning through which we apprehend the world.*

In these sentences, each of the phrases *John Smith, the Head of the Department* and *the word “consciousness”* consists of appositive noun phrases: *John Smith* refers to the same person as the phrase *the Head of the Department*, and the noun phrase *the word* refers to the word *“consciousness”*.

There are two kinds of apposition: a) non-detached, close or restrictive apposition and b) detached, loose or non-restrictive apposition.

14.4.3.1. Non-detached Apposition

In non-detached (restrictive) apposition (необособленное приложение), the appositive noun phrases constitute a single semantic unit and are not separated by punctuation:

My old friend Gregory came to London yesterday.

Most often appositive word-groups comprise the name of a person functioning as a head-word and a noun denoting a title, rank, profession, kinship or a geographical name and some common noun, e. g. *Professor Jones, Captain Brown, Aunt Polly, President Churchill, or the River Thames*:

Aunt Mary looked worried and nervous.

*It's because of Conan Doyle that everybody knows Doctor Watson.
Lake Baikal is the deepest lake in the world.*

Note that the modifying appositive noun is less specific than the head-word following it.

When a proper name comes first, an appositive noun phrase is almost invariably less specific and modifies the preceding head-word expressed by the proper name:

Mr Brown the writer has arrived in Oxford today.

In set combinations like *William the Conqueror, Richard the Lion Heart, Peter the First*, etc. the modifying appositive follows the head-word.

If a common noun is preceded by a possessive or a demonstrative pronoun the relation between the components of the appositive word groups is often reversed. The first component becomes modified and the proper name functions as a modifier:

That girl Jane is very intelligent for her age.

14.4.3.2. Detached Apposition

A detached (non-restrictive) or loose appositive (обособленное приложение) is not so closely connected with the head-word and is usually separated by commas in writing and by a stress in speech. It gives some additional information about the person or thing denoted by the head-word, carrying some explanation or identification:

He was dressed in grey, his favourite colour.

A detached appositive usually follows the head-word, although it does not always come immediately after it:

She was taller than her brother, a slim, pretty girl of eighteen.

Sometimes it is introduced by such expressions as *namely*, *that is*, *for example*, *or such as*; if not, a similar meaning may be implied:

You should learn the material by Tuesday, namely, parts 2 and 3. Noteworthy individuals, such as Bacon, Hobbes or Gassendi, are not isolated mountains in a flat desert landscape.

An appositive phrase may refer to a clause or a sentence which in this case acts as a head-unit:

The evening was cold and windy, the ideal time to enjoy yourself sitting in a cosy arm-chair and reading a book.

14.4.4. The Adverbial Modifier

The adverbial modifier (adverbial) is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies a verb (a finite or non-finite form), an adjective or an adverb. Adverbials are optional constituents of the sentence because they are not dependent on the main verb, and if they are omitted from the sentence, it still remains syntactically well-formed.

Adverbials denote the time, place, cause and manner of the action or process expressed by the verb. When modifying an adjective, the adverbial modifier characterizes quality or quantity of a state denoted by the adjective.

The adverbial modifier may be expressed by a single word (usually an adverb), a phrase consisting of two or more words (typically a prepositional phrase), or a clause:

The most beautiful day in his life has still to come.

The hills are very beautiful.

It happened in a small village of Denmark many years ago.

She was walking very slowly, stopping and looking back all the time.

The child came in, the toys in his hands.

She was stylishly dressed and had large passionate eyes.

When expressed by a clause, the adverbial generally modifies the whole clause it relates to, characterizing the situation the latter denotes:

He was late, as he'd missed the 10 o'clock train.

He was ten years of age when I saw him first.

She was drinking her morning coffee, when he telephoned at last.

14.4.4.1. The Position of the Adverbial Modifier

Though the position of an adverbial modifier is more loose than that of any other part of the sentence, it may influence and sometimes completely change the meaning of the sentence. Cf.:

She wisely refused to spend her money.

She refused to spend her money wisely.

In August, they decided to get married.

They decided to get married in August.

Adverbial modifiers may occupy various positions in the sentence. They can be placed at the beginning, in the middle or, most typically, at the end of the sentence:

In winter they lived in London.

Somebody has kindly sent a copy to her parents.

They arrived yesterday.

She appeared unexpectedly.

He decided to stay there.

When she went to bed, she found it impossible to sleep.

Adverbials (adverbs) denoting indefinite time (*continually, usually, ever, finally, immediately, just, lately, never, recently, seldom, soon, etc.*), and those indicating degree (*almost, completely, even, hardly, nearly, only, quite, scarcely*) normally occupy a medial position. As a rule, they follow (modal) auxiliaries or the first of two auxiliaries in any complex verb group:

Their relationship is usually seen in terms of military conflict.

He has usually got on well with newspaper proprietors.

No one could quite understand what he was trying to do.

They are placed immediately after the negative particle *not*, tend to follow the verb *be*, and precede other simple verbs:

It will not usually be difficult to determine whether a real price was paid.

It was nearly dark.

Whenever I come, he is always there.

She had been usually dreaming of strange lands to travel to.

(Cf.: His book has recently been edited and translated into English.)

He appeared less and less in public, and seldom made speeches.

Adverbials (adverbs) normally, though not necessarily, precede such words as *dare*, *need*, *used to* and *have to*. The modal verb *ought* to may occur in both positions:

He never dares to make a final decision.

You always need to be told what to do.

You ought always to realize what you are doing.

They never ought to give up.

In interrogative sentences a single adverbial denoting indefinite time is put after the subject of the sentence:

Have you ever seen such places before?

What have you finally decided?

Are you sometimes going back home in your thoughts?

Modal words (truth adverbs) are usually placed either at the beginning or in the middle of a sentence:

Obviously, there is an element of self-interest.

Perhaps this was not evolution but revolution.

They have obviously misunderstood you.

He would surely have helped you, had you asked him before.

She will probably have to help them.

They hopefully ought to come in time.

An adverbial modifier does not usually separate the transitive verb from its direct object:

She received a very important letter the other day.

(**She received the other day a very important letter.*)

He always finds something interesting to read in the newspaper.

Adverbials denoting definite time and place most often come either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence:

We are leaving tomorrow.

Yesterday she invited us to her birthday party.

He could see nothing strange there.

*They stayed at a small village inn for the night.
In Paris he found his love and happiness.*

The final position is typical of adverbs denoting the manner of the action expressed by the main verb:

He can play tennis badly.

She cooks well.

They spoke fast.

Adverbials of manner may also sometimes follow the subject of the sentence:

He suddenly stopped and sighed.

They quietly left the room.

If an adverb modifies an adjective or another adverb, it usually precedes the modified word:

He was perfectly fit in his seventies.

The night was very quiet.

You should be particularly careful about such things.

They talk to her very patiently.

Enough usually comes after the word it modifies:

He is strong enough to start walking himself.

She is clever enough to keep silence.

Adverbial phrases as a rule do not come in the middle, occurring at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. The latter is usually most typical of them, though adverbial phrases may also start the sentence:

She is coming back next year.

In spring he felt better.

High in the mountain he found beautiful spring flowers.

I couldn't find the letter on the table.

When more than one adverbial comes in the sentence, there is a tendency first to use an adverbial modifier of place and time with other types (if there are any) preceding them:

He is flying to New York tonight.

When everybody was leaving, he suddenly rushed into the room.

14.4.4.2. Semantic Types of Adverbial Modifiers

According to their meaning the following types of adverbial modifiers are distinguished.

1. The adverbial modifier of place and direction may be expressed by a prepositional phrase, an adverb, an adverbial phrase or a clause:

They settled in Sheffield.

She died in Austria.

Three large stone blocks have been found there.

She came back to where she started from.

Note that the same prepositional phrase or clause may function in the sentence as an adverbial modifier of place or as an attribute depending on the character of the word it refers to:

He never enjoyed his work in the office. (attribute)

He never enjoyed working in his office. (adverbial of place)

She was in the place where she had been born and lived. (attribute)

She was where she had been born and lived. (adverbial of place)

2. The adverbial modifier of time may be expressed by a noun or prepositional phrase, by a noun or sometimes by participle II preceded by the conjunctions *when* and *while*, a participle or a participial phrase, a gerund with a preposition or a gerundial phrase and clauses of place. Adverbs such as *always*, *ever*, *never*, *often*, *seldom*, *sometimes*, *once* etc. also function as adverbials of time:

He left Germany before the war.

Tomorrow everything will seem different to you.

He will leave in a few days.

He has his English classes once a week.

You won't recognize the house when you come next time.

Last time he looked much better.

When a boy he used to be a good football-player.

When refused the child started crying.

Having missed the train he didn't know what to do.

Take care crossing the street.

On coming back they went to sleep.

How often does he usually come here?

3. The adverbial modifier of condition is expressed by a noun or a pronoun preceded by the prepositions and conjunctions *but for*, *except for*, *in case* and it may also be expressed by a participle or an adjective with the conjunction *if* or *unless*. A gerundial phrase introduced by the preposition *without* can also function as an adverbial of time. Cf.:

But for the rain we could have gone to the country.

Except for a light accent I would've taken her for a native speaker.

In case of fire call number 01.

I can do it if necessary.

She would never help unless told to.

He cannot translate this paper without using a dictionary.

For adverbial clauses of condition see 15.2.5.3. Adverbial Clauses of Condition.

4. The adverbial modifier of concession is introduced by the prepositions *despite*, *for all*, *in spite of*, *with all* and the conjunction *though*:

Despite his illness he sometimes tried to go out.

In spite of her bad mood she decided to go to the restaurant.

Though too small she was always willing to help.

See also 15.2.5.10. Adverbial Clauses of Concession.

5. The adverbial modifier of cause (reason) may be expressed by a prepositional phrase:

She couldn't speak for tears.

The man was trembling with anger.

It may also be introduced by the composite prepositions *because of*, *due to*, *on account of*, *owing to*, *thanks to*, etc.:

Because of his mother's illness she had to return home.

Thanks to them she graduated.

The adverbial of cause may also be expressed by a clause (see 15.2.5.4. Adverbial Clauses of Reason) or by a participial phrase:

Wishing to say something he jumped from his chair.

She felt deep satisfaction having acquired the desired position.

6. The adverbial modifier of purpose is usually rendered by a single infinitive, an infinitive phrase, an infinitive construction or a clause of purpose (see 15.2.5.5. Adverbial Clauses of Purpose). Sometimes the infinitive is introduced by the prepositional phrase *in order* or by the conjunction *so as*. It may also be expressed by a nominal or gerundial phrase with the preposition *for*:

He dropped in at our place to say goodbye to us.

In order not to be late she got up very early in the morning.

The teachers' union even submitted the draft constitution to the bishops so as to get it right.

They came for lunch.

He did it on purpose for making me angry.

7. The adverbial modifier of result (consequence) is usually expressed by an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or an infinitive construction which normally refers to an adjective or an adverb preceded by such adverbs of degree as *too*, *enough*, *sufficiently*, or the conjunction *so...as*:

She was too fond of her children to leave them.

You are clever enough not to do it.

She is not so foolish as to do anything wrong.

He was too busy to take part in the discussion.

The house was too far for us to walk there.

Note the difference between the adverbials of purpose and result: unlike the conjunction *so as* which outlines the purpose of the action, *so...as* followed by an infinitive normally expresses the idea of result. Cf.:

They were so lucky as to win the match. (result)

They did quite a lot so as to win the match. (purpose)

See also 15.2.5.6. Adverbial Clauses of Result.

8. The adverbial modifier of manner is expressed by adverbs or prepositional phrases introduced by the prepositions *by*, *by means of*, *with*, *without* or *with the help of*, etc. Participial phrases, absolute constructions and clauses (see 15.2.5.7. Adverbial Clauses of Manner) may also be used to express the meaning of manner:

She spoke brilliantly.

She drove in at full speed.

She ran very fast, without looking back.

He started with a few examples.

At last she came, her hair hanging loose, her eyes sad.

9. The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances is usually rendered by a participial, gerundial or infinitive phrase or by an absolute construction:

She entered the room without looking at anybody around.

He was sitting in his arm-chair smoking cigarettes and watching TV.

I hurried away, her pale face still in my eyes.

Such cases should not be confused with the adverbial modifier of manner, since the modifier of attendant circumstances denotes an action or a state which is relatively independent of the action of the main verb. When expressed by an infinitive phrase, the modifier denotes an action which is neither the result nor the purpose of the action denoted by the main verb. Cf.:

He opened the door to see that all had gone (= Он открыл дверь и увидел, что все ушли).

They hurried to the house only to find ruins in its place (= Они носпешили к дому и обнаружили на его месте руины).

10. The adverbial modifier of degree and measure is normally expressed by an adverb or a prepositional phrase. Intensifier adverbs (*nearly*, *almost*, *hardly*, *a little*, *quite*, *rather*, *too*, *at all*, *entirely*, *completely*, *extremely*, *greatly*, *indeed*, *most*, *much*, *very*, *in the least*, *pretty*, *really*, etc.) serve to denote a point along a scale of intensity to which the action or property has been fulfilled:

It is rather chilly outside.

You are quite right.

*They know him fairly well.
It is altogether beyond my understanding.
I'm completely tired.
He was most generous.
We entirely agree with you.
It's pretty difficult to give you a definite answer now.
I don't like it in the least.
Now they may play to their heart's content.*

11. The adverbial modifier of comparison is usually expressed by adjective or participle phrases introduced by the conjunctions *as, as if, as though*.

*He looked around as if uncertain of his direction.
Nails was silent, as if stricken by an affliction.*

Comparative structures in the following sentences function as subject predicatives:

*The girl looked like her mother.
He sounded as a real gentleman.
Our garden is not so big as yours.
She is nearly as tall as her sister.*

Adverbials of comparison may also be expressed by noun phrases introduced with *than, or as*. These adverbials are preceded by comparatives (inflected forms — *taller, or phrases — more/less difficult*):

*The car goes faster than 100 miles per hour.
Mrs Moore taught him more than any other of his previous teachers.
I do more than you.
Some jobs are more difficult than others.*

12. The adverbial modifier of exclusion and substitution is usually expressed by nouns or nominal phrases introduced with the prepositions *apart from, aside from, but, but for, except, except for, instead, save, save for, with the exclusion of*, and transfers the meaning of exception to the idea expressed by the rest of the sentence.

*Instead of answering she ran out of the room in tears.
Everybody was present but Jane.
He was good at all school subjects apart from maths.*

14.4.5. Independent Parts of the Sentence

A sentence may contain words or phrases which are not connected grammatically (syntactically) to any constituent of the sentence. These words and phrases are usually marked by intonation, pauses,

and special stress in spoken language; in written language they are generally separated by commas or dashes.

At least three main types of independent elements of the sentence may be distinguished: a direct address, conjuncts and disjuncts.

Direct address is represented in the sentence by the name of a person or a non-person to whom the rest of the sentence is usually addressed:

What would you advise me, Doctor?

You shouldn't take it too close to heart, Mummy!

How is life, old chap?

Disjuncts are usually used to express the speaker's attitude towards the content of the sentence. These may be words and phrases specifying the sense in which the sentence is supposed to be understood (*personally, frankly, generally, briefly, literally, in general, to put it briefly, to be fair, in short, in all honesty, etc.*):

*Strictly speaking, there is one further condition for the game.
In general, a well-fed animal is substantially more productive
than a poorly fed one.*

In my opinion he'll get what he deserves.

Disjuncts may also be modal adverbs commenting on the truth-value of the sentence (*perhaps, probably, clearly, arguably, maybe, actually, supposedly, etc.*) or adverbs expressing emotional attitude of the speaker (*happily, amusingly, hopefully, strangely, ironically, basically, etc.*):

Maybe he is tired of his job?

Actually, he was enjoying himself immensely.

Hopefully we will do well.

Conjuncts serve to provide a logical link to a preceding sentence and to indicate the place of the sentence within the structure of the discourse. These are: *after all, anyway, besides, by the way, consequently, finally, first, firstly, for example (e. g.), moreover, on the contrary, otherwise, that is (i. e.), to begin with, on the other hand, rather, in other words, etc.*:

By the way, do you know his name?

After all, it was a good job.

First of all, speak about yourself.

Rather, these processes are complementary.

Exclamatory emotive words (interjections) can also be very loosely connected to the rest of the sentence:

Oh, Good Gracious, you couldn't have done that!

15. THE MULTIPLE SENTENCE

The speaker or writer often needs to make a statement that is too complex or detailed to be expressed with the help of a simple sentence. The unit of language that serves to make a statement of this kind is the multiple sentence. Both simple and multiple sentences go to make a larger whole, discourse, roughly defined as the structured result of speech production: monologue or dialogue, written or spoken.

It would be inaccurate to assert that the multiple sentence is built up by merely putting two or more simple sentences together, since there are various regularities that govern the making of a multiple sentence. Its immediate constituents are not words, phrases or constructions, but structural units called "clauses". The multiple sentence, therefore, is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses. A clause is traditionally defined, albeit with a few reservations, as part of a multiple (compound, complex or compound-complex) sentence that has a subject and a finite verb predicate of its own. The following sentence, for instance, consists of three clauses:

- (1) *Youth looks forward*; (2) *old age looks back*; (3) *middle age looks worried*.

It should be noted that British and American grammar books tend to interpret the term "clause" far more loosely: it is generally applied to simple sentences, when regarded in their structural aspect, and various grammatically arranged constituents of which sentences (simple or multiple) are composed, including noun and verb phrases and predicative constructions with the verbals. In the present chapter, however, the term "clause" will be used to denote only the immediate constituents of which multiple sentences are composed.

The structure of a clause is similar to that of a simple sentence in that it conforms to one of the basic sentence models. In other words, a clause can have the structure of a declarative, interrogative, imperative or exclamatory syntactic unit:

What is written without effort is in general read without pleasure.

What was she doing when I called?

What a pretty child she was when I first saw her!

The verb in a clause can be put not only in the indicative mood, as in the above examples, but also in the subjunctive and the imperative mood:

*The manager insisted that smoking be prohibited in the office.
Do that again and you'll be punished.*

In dealing with structures of the latter type we can see that a clause with the verb in the imperative mood has just one nuclear member rather than a subject and a predicate. In anticipation of what follows, we should note that a clause can conform to other one-member models as well, although this point is often overlooked by practical grammars. In fact, both Russian and English syntax admit of one-member clauses. Cf.:

Хорошо, когда у человека есть семья.

If you've got money of your own, so much the better.

Furthermore, clauses can be elliptical:

Wise men learn by other men's mistakes; fools by their own.

Clauses in multiple sentences may be related through **coordination** or **subordination**. Clauses are coordinated when they are of the same grammatical status while being independent of one another in that they do not function as constituents of other clauses. Clauses are subordinated when they are constituents of other clauses.

Clauses in multiple sentences can be joined in two ways: **asyndetically**, i. e. without conjunctions, which may or may not be supplied, and **syndetically**, i. e. with the help of conjunctions — coordinators (*and, or, but*) or subordinators (*that, if, which, whoever, etc.*):

The books you gave me are extremely valuable.

The books that lay on the table belonged to Richard.

These two ways of joining clauses together will be given a more detailed treatment in the sections that follow.

15.1. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

A compound sentence is a multiple sentence that consists of two or more clauses coordinated with each other. Clauses combined by means of coordination are regarded as independent: they are linked in such a way that there is no hierarchy in the syntactic relationship, i. e. none of them is a constituent (a syntactic part) of other clauses of a sentence. Two clauses are coordinated if they are (or can easily be) connected by a conjunct or a coordinator (see 15.1.1. Asyndetic Compound Sentences and 15.1.2. Syndetic Compound Sentences below). In the sentence (1) *I'm tired of love; (2) I'm still more tired of rhyme; (3) but money gives me pleasure all the time* all three clauses

are main clauses, and the first two of them are joined asyndetically, whereas the third one is introduced by means of the coordinating conjunction *but*. Coordinate clauses are sometimes termed "conjoins".

Coordination, as has just been shown, can be asyndetic or syndetic. In syndetic compound sentences the type of coordination (i. e. the meaning relationship between the clauses) is expressed explicitly, by means of coordinators:

Everything has an end, and a pudding has two.

In asyndetic compound sentences coordinators are absent; the meaning relationship, therefore, remains implicit, though it can be made explicit if a coordinator is inserted. Cf.:

The author James Peters can't be a Nobel Prize winner: I've never heard his name before.

The author James Peters can't be a Nobel Prize winner, for I've never heard his name before.

Since the meaning relation between coordinate clauses can be indicated in many ways, the question of whether some linking element belongs to the class of coordinators requires some consideration. Grammar books differ greatly in their treatment of coordinators, including different elements into the class. In this book clausal coordinators are regarded as those linking elements which do not allow other linking words before them. The main coordinators are *and*, *or* and *but*.

Coordinators are to be distinguished from conjuncts (conjunctive adverbs — *therefore*, *otherwise*, *also*, *then*, *rather*, etc.) in that conjuncts can be preceded by coordinative conjunctions:

The phrase "there occur mental processes" does not mean the same sort of thing as "there occur physical processes", (and,) therefore, it makes no sense to conjoin or disjoin the two.

The clause introduced by a coordinator or conjunct cannot be placed at the beginning of a compound sentence. Cf.:

**(And,) therefore, it makes no sense to conjoin or disjoin the two, the phrase "there occur mental processes" does not mean the same sort of thing as "there occur physical processes".*

We will now deal in more detail with the types of coordination in a compound sentence.

15.1.1. Asyndetic Compound Sentences

1. Two or more clauses can be made into one sentence without a coordinator being used. The resulting sentence is referred to as an asyndetic compound sentence:

Don't worry, I'll take care of it.

The Philosophy class meets on Tuesday; the Spanish class meets on Thursday.

It is natural that asyndetically joined coordinate clauses should convey related ideas. One statement can be linked to another so as to add or elaborate a point; to express contrast, reason or consequence; to make a condition etc. Grammatically, these relations might not be expressed explicitly: the speaker / writer has them in mind when producing an utterance, and the listener / reader deduces them from the semantic content, intonation contour and some structural features of the coordinate clauses; one of the coordinators can be readily supplied to clarify the relation between the clauses. More often the relation between asyndetically joined coordinate clauses is shown with the help of **conjunctive adverbs** or **conjuncts** (*however, yet, therefore, thus, so, besides, etc.*)⁴¹, a specific class of adverbs which serve to provide a logical link to a preceding clause or sentence (see 12. Adverbs) by indicating explicitly what kind of meaning relation between the coordinate clauses is meant by the speaker:

They want to be slim, of course, yet after months of dieting failure they might think it was time to stop trying.

An individual receives two genes, one inherited from each parent: thus an individual might receive two genes for tallness, or two for shortness, or one for each.

Conjunctive adverbs are closely approached by set expressions known as "transitional" phrases: *as a result, in like manner, in fact, for example, for instance, for this reason, on the contrary, etc.* Some of them admit of structural modification (*in actual fact, for this reason alone, it is / was for this reason that...*); others invariably occur in the same form (*for instance*). We define them as linking (sometimes parenthetical) phrases within the second clause, and recognize that they semantically connect clauses of an asyndetic compound sentence:

The withdrawal of members, or the addition of new members from time to time does not impair the continuity and identity of the organization: in like manner the river Thames is still the same river, though the parts which comprise it are changing every instant.

These two great historians have much in common, and not only their anxiety about the future, and a vision of past greatness; they share, above all, a need to give the Christianity of their compatriots roots in the Roman past.

⁴¹ Conjuncts, like disjuncts, are sometimes called "sentential adverbs" because they relate to the sentence as a whole, not to some part of it. Conjuncts serve as links to clauses or preceding sentences.

Unlike conjunctions, which are restricted to the initial position in the clauses they introduce, most conjunctive adverbs can be shifted to another position in the clause:

The book contains a great deal of valuable information; the material, moreover, is conveniently organized for the benefit of the learner.

2. In writing, asyndetically joined coordinate clauses are separated by a semicolon (;), a colon (:) or a dash (—). The semicolon is perhaps most frequently used:

Progress in technology sometimes produces ecological disasters; it also supplies the means to deal with them.

The colon is mainly used to set off a clause that explains or elaborates the statement expressed in the first clause:

My life had changed radically: I had a regular income and an apartment of my own.

The dash is especially common in informal writing; it can be used in the same way as the colon:

We had a lovely time in Bermuda — the kids really enjoyed themselves.

Using a comma instead of a semicolon is not recommended and sometimes regarded as an error. However, a comma can be used in asyndetic sentences if the clauses are very short or the ideas expressed are closely related:

I came, I saw, I conquered.

Clauses linked by means of conjunctive adverbs are normally separated by a semicolon, with a comma after the adverb. Adverbs of four letters or fewer are not set off by a comma. Cf.:

*The publisher would not approve of the arrangement of paragraphs; furthermore, he suggested several drastic changes.
He was quite well off; also his whole family was rich.*

3. If both asyndetic clauses are negative in meaning and the second clause opens with *still less*, *much less* or *even less*, this second clause has inverted word order, similar to the interrogative sentence inversion:

She doesn't even like him; much less does she want to marry him.

Note that the negative meaning in the second clause is conveyed by the comparative adverb *less*, with the negative particle missing.

Compound sentences with inversion in one of the clauses prove yet again that a compound sentence is not a mere juxtaposition of

two simple sentences, because the syntactic features of the conjoins are to a large extent interrelated.

4. Asyndetic compound sentences are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions, for example:

Absence sharpens love; presence strengthens it.

Bear wealth; poverty will bear itself.

Two is company; three is none/a crowd.

Heads, I win; tails, you lose.

You name it, we/they have it. (e.g., of a supply of goods)

5. Besides compound sentences composed of asyndetically or syndetically coordinated clauses there are a number of constructions, whose elements cannot be analyzed as coordinate clauses even though they are grammatically independent of each other. Usually these structures are not regarded as compound asyndetic sentences. Rather, they are seen as examples of a more general category of paratactic constructions, that is, sentences (and other syntactical units) made of several independent parts of equal grammatical status.

Such structures are called paratactic, because the term "parataxis" denotes the relation between items of equal status. Parataxis differs from "hypotaxis" in that the latter is the term denoting the relation between two items, one of which is subordinate to the other.

Paratactic constructions include not only compound sentences but also clause structures composed of a parenthetic clause and a clause within which it is included (*I put myself, I am sorry to say, in your power*), or a reporting clause and its reported clause in direct speech (*He said, "I don't want to see you".*)

The structure of tag questions and commands, often overlooked in dealing with the multiple sentence, also seems to conform to the paratactic model:

He doesn't like his job, does he?

Answer the door, would you?

Cut it out, can't you?

However, they are clearly marginal cases within this category, used as stereotyped structures for definite communicative purposes.

Another marginal case is an asyndetic sentence composed of two one-member clauses of which the first implies a condition or contingency. This model seems to be non-productive, i.e. confined to idiomatic expressions built up according to a definite model, although many of them are quite frequently used:

Once bitten, twice shy.

In for a penny, in for a pound.

First come, first served.

Nothing ventured, nothing gained.

15.1.2. Syndetic Compound Sentences

1. In syndetic compound sentences the type of coordination is expressed explicitly by means of **coordinators**, i. e. coordinating conjunctions *and, or, but, for, so that* (result). None of these can be preceded by another conjunction, nor can the clause introduced by them be placed in front of a compound sentence. However, *for* and *so that* differ from the other conjunctions in that they cannot serve as links between subordinate clauses or parts of clauses. The peculiarity of the conjunctions *and* and *or* is that they can link more than two clauses. All but the final instance of these two conjunctions can be omitted:

The lights went out, the curtain went up and the show began.

Perhaps the pump was broken, or there was a blockage in one of the pipes, or the drainage hole was clogged.

No other conjunctions can be used in the same way so as to provide multiple coordination.

Clauses linked by means of coordinating conjunctions can be separated by a comma for the sake of clarity.

2. In terms of their structure, i. e. with regard to the number of constituents and their arrangement, coordinators can be divided into **one-member**, or simple (*and, or, but, for*), and **multi-member** (*either...or, not only... but, neither... nor*). The coordinators included in the second group are called **correlative coordinators** (pairs). The constituents of correlative coordinators are spaced apart, with the first element, called “the endorsing item”, found in the first clause and the second element (the conjunction proper) in the second.

The coordinators are sometimes combined with conjuncts to link coordinate clauses:

The authorities have been grappling with the problem for a decade, but still the cars choke the cobbled streets.

You will recall that Mrs Smith spoke of her husband losing his rationality, and yet he wanted to retain control over his fate.

Conjuncts help show the meaning relation between clauses even more explicitly.

15.1.3. Meaning Relationships in Compound Sentences

Coordinators and conjuncts in a compound sentence express four logical types of coordination: **copulative, disjunctive, adversative and causative-consecutive**.

15.1.3.1. Compound Sentences with Copulative Coordination

1. In compound sentences with copulative coordination, the clauses are simply linked together to express two or more related facts. This is done with the help of the coordinators *and*, *neither... nor* (rare), *not only... but* (*also*), and conjuncts *also*, *even*, *besides*, *furthermore* (formal), *moreover* (formal), *likewise*, *either*, *too*, *nor*, *neither*, etc.:

Joan had apple-pie for dessert and Mary had ice-cream.

The project was completed on schedule; moreover, a considerable amount of money has been saved.

Marjorie speaks a number of foreign languages; she even claims to know Japanese.

Not only did the students demand new training facilities, but they also proposed a revision of tuition fees.

You can neither write elegantly, nor can you write clearly.

I take a cold shower every morning, and so does my brother.

2. The conjunction *and*, which is most frequently used, can imply a number of relations that could be expressed unambiguously by other means:

There was a crooked man, and he walked a crooked mile. (simple addition)

The clock struck five and the first visitor arrived. (chronological sequence)

We heard a strange noise on the roof, and mother suggested calling the police. (cause and consequence)

Liz is blonde and Helen is dark. (contrast)

Give me some money and I'll get us something to eat. (condition)

There is only one thing to do now — and that's to sell our shares. (comment or explanation)

In spontaneous informal discourse, the speaker can make very long copulative sentences with multiple coordination, adding more and more *and*-conjoins so as to hang on to a particular topic. However, in formal contexts, especially in writing, it is advisable to avoid overusing *and* by employing other links that bring out the logical relationship between the clauses.

If two negative statements are linked with the help of *and*, we often find *either* at the end of the second clause:

Tony didn't turn up for the Student Union meeting, and Keith didn't either.

3. Clauses containing the endorsing item *not only* (which come first in a compound sentence) have direct word order when this element is found in mid-position, and inverted word order, similar to the interrogative sentence word order, when *not only* is found in initial po-

sition. The structure of the second clause, containing the correlative *but (...also)*, remains unchanged in either case. Cf.:

Harry not only lost his wallet, but he was also robbed of his Swiss watch.

Not only did Harry lose his wallet, but he was also robbed of his Swiss watch.

The structure with inverted word order sounds more dramatic and is chiefly found in a formal literary style. The correlative *but...also* can be represented by both these elements or by either one used alone. Therefore, the above example could read: *Not only did Harry lose his pocket-book; he was also robbed...* or else *Not only did Harry lose his pocket-book, but he was robbed...*

4. Clauses opening with *neither, nor, and neither, and nor* (which come second in a compound sentence) always have inverted word order similar to the interrogative sentence word order:

I don't blame you, and neither do I doubt your honesty.

The Smiths could neither describe the stranger to the police, nor could they recollect the exact time of the encounter.

The same structure occurs when *and* is followed by the substitute word *so*:

Harry was late and so were his friends.

5. Copulative sentences can be used in an informal style to express advice, threat or warning. This is done by conjoining an imperative clause and a clause opening with *and* and containing a verb in the future tense:

Go by train and you'll get to Bath at 7 a.m.

(You) do this again and I'll tell your parents.

In a formal literary style the second coordinate clause can have inverted word order if the statement expressed in it makes a comparative reference to the statement expressed in the first clause:

Mary's reaction was a disgrace, and equally scandalous was her departure in the middle of the interview.

Inversion is optional in this kind of structure (... and her departure... was equally scandalous).

6. Copulative sentences are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

Give him an inch, and he'll take a mile.

Keep a thing seven years and you'll find a use for it.

The day is short and the work is long.

Ask no questions and you will be told no lies.

15.1.3.2. Compound Sentences with Disjunctive Coordination

1. Compound sentences with disjunctive coordination express an alternative. This is achieved with the help of the following coordinators and conjuncts: *or, or else, either...or, otherwise*:

Either the pump is broken or the drainage is clogged.

We can either meet this afternoon, or we can discuss the matter at dinner.

You should report to the manager immediately; otherwise, you will be held responsible for the accident.

If the conjunction *or* introduces a reservation or rewording, it can combine with the adverbs *rather* and *at least*:

Polly has a talent for acting, or rather / at least her parents think so.

2. Disjunctive sentences can be used to give advice, a warning or an order. This is done by conjoining an imperative clause and a clause opening with *or* or *otherwise* and containing a verb in the future tense:

Hurry up, or you'll be late again.

Go away, or I'll call the police.

3. Interrogative disjunctive sentences with the conjunction *or* can have a tautologous structure. This rhetorical question pattern is used for effect, often with an implication of approval:

Do we have a house or do we (have a house)? (= We have a very good house.)

4. When both addition and alternative are possible, *and/or* can be used in scientific and legal writing:

The checks in this joint account must be signed by Norman Briggs and/or they must be signed by Angela Briggs.

15.1.3.3. Compound Sentences with Adversative Coordination

1. In compound sentences with adversative coordination the statements expressed by the clauses are contrasted in meaning. This is achieved with the help of the coordinator *but* and the following conjuncts: *however, nevertheless, nonetheless* (formal), *still, yet, whereas, while, whilst* (formal, old-fashioned), *only* (informal):

His first novel was not a pronounced success, but yet it was not a failure.

Some people don't mind passive smoking, while / whereas others hate it.

*At first she refused to join us; later, however, she changed her mind.
I would've asked you to my party, only my dad told me not to.*

Although the conjunction *except (that)* is not traditionally classed with adversative coordinators, the relationship between the clauses it connects is similar to adversative coordination:

*I would pay you now, except that (= but) I don't have any money
on me at the moment.*

2. Although the relations of contrast appear to be symmetrical, the order of clauses in these sentences could not be reversed, because the implications of the whole sentence would be different. Cf.:

He has treated you badly; still, he is your brother.

He is your brother; still, he has treated you badly.

3. There is a marginal type of interrogative adversative sentence containing a one-member clause. As in the case of one-member clauses in sentences with asyndetic coordination, this use seems to be confined to a definite model:

Her dress was somewhat extravagant, but what of that / it?

4. Adversative sentences with the conjunction *but* and the modal auxiliary *may* in the first sentence express an added meaning of concession:

He may be your best friend, but he has been telling you lies. (= Although he is your best friend, he has been telling you lies.)

5. Adversative sentences are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

It never rains but it pours.

The tongue is not steel, yet it cuts.

You can lead a horse to water, but you cannot make him drink.

15.1.3.4. Compound Sentences with Causative-Consecutive Coordination

1. Compound sentences with causative-consecutive coordination express the idea of cause and consequence. This is done with the help of the following coordinators and conjuncts: *for, hence* (formal), *consequently, then, therefore, thus* (formal), *accordingly, so* (informal), *so that* (= with the result that):

I'm off on holiday, so I won't be seeing you for a while.

It would be impossible for us to pay such prices; therefore, we must content ourselves with other kinds of products.

Nick has been getting more exercise; hence he has lost weight.

2. The conjunction *for* is sometimes roughly interchangeable with the subordinator *because*, although the use of *for* in place of *because* is regarded as dated. Generally speaking, *for* gives a reason for something that is taken for granted:

We rarely stay at hotels, for we can't afford it.

Besides, *for* presents the reason as subjective or inferential, with the implication "my reason for saying so is that...". Cf.:

Mother must have disapproved of our plan, for she was unusually reticent.

Mother disapproved of our plan because it sounded rash.

Hence occurs in one-member as well as two-member clauses:

The sculptor grew up in the Sudan; hence her interest in Nubian art.

The sculptor grew up in the Sudan; hence she developed an interest in Nubian art.

3. There is a marginal type of interrogative causative-consecutive sentence containing a one-member clause (confined to a definite model):

My wife didn't go to university; so what?

4. Causative-consecutive sentences are found in a number of proverbs:

God help the poor, for the rich can help themselves.

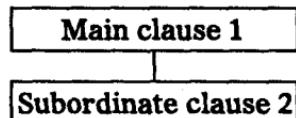
God send you joy, for sorrow will come fast enough.

15.2. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

1. A complex sentence, unlike a compound sentence, is a hierarchical syntactic structure. It is a multiple sentence that consists of an independent clause (also called a **main** or **principal** clause) and at least one dependent (or **subordinate**) clause, grammatically subordinated to the former. The complex sentence, therefore, depends for its existence on the asymmetrical relationship of subordination. For example:

(1) *I didn't suppose* (2) *anyone would object to my absence.*

This sentence, in which clause 1 is an independent, or main clause, and clause 2 grammatically dependent upon it, or subordinate, can be graphically represented in the following way:



2. A dependent clause can be joined to the main clause asyndetically, i.e. without any linking elements (*She says she loves me*), or syndetically, i.e. by means of **subordinators** or subordinating conjunctions (*as if, because, although, unless, since, etc.*) and **connectives** or **wh-words** such as *who, whom, whose, which, what, whoever, whichever, whatever, how, when, where and why*.

Unlike conjunctions, connectives do not constitute a separate part of speech, or word class; they include relative pronouns (*whatever, which, who, etc.*) and relative adverbs (*when, where, how, etc.*). Subordinating conjunctions have the sole function of joining clauses together, whereas connectives not only join clauses together, but also have a syntactic function of their own within the clauses they introduce. Cf.:

I didn't know if they had rented that apartment. (a conjunction)
I didn't know who had rented that apartment. (a connective serving as subject)

In the first sentence, the conjunction *if* serves as a formal link; it is a dependent clause marker. In the second sentence, the connective *who* (a relative pronoun) is also a dependent clause marker, but in addition to this it functions as subject in the dependent clauses.

Whether, though it looks like a *wh-word* is a subordinator because it does not perform any function in the structure of the clause it introduces.

Only connectives can be preceded by a preposition:

It is a good time for us to think about where we have come from.
The musicians were arguing about whether or not they should do that interview.

3. In terms of their structure, that is, with regard to the number of elements and their arrangement, all connectives are **one-member**, and subordinators can be divided into **one-member**, or simple (*if, because, until, although, etc.*), and **multi-member**, such as *in that, as though, not so...as, etc.* The second group can be further subdivided into **compound** and **correlative** subordinators.

Compound subordinators invariably consist of two or more elements: *in case, insofar as, in order that, as soon as, in spite of the fact that*. Some of them could be described as optionally compound, since their final element may be omitted: *now (that), provided (that), seeing (that)*. However, optionally compound conjunctions appear as such chiefly in informal style; in formal written English the second element is not normally dropped.

The components of correlative subordinators are spaced apart, with one component (the endorsing item) found in the main clause and the other, in the subordinate clause: *no sooner... than, barely... when, the... the*. Correlative subordinators ensure a stronger interdependence between the clauses, sometimes making it difficult to de-

cide which clause is grammatically dominant in the sentence. It is for this reason that some linguists treat this type of structure as "mutual subordination".

Strictly speaking, the term "correlative subordinator" is largely conventional, because the endorsing item can be a notional part of speech (e. g., an adverb) or even a morpheme (-er in comparatives). Furthermore, a few conjunctions are optionally correlative: *if... (then)*, *so... (that)*.

Within these groups there are a number of subordinators of comparatively later origin, such as *directly*, *immediately*, *provided (that)*, *the last time (that)*, *considering (how, what, etc.)*, *in view of the fact that*. They coincide in form with other parts of speech or with free word combinations. The process of formation of such subordinators is still going on. Most of the recent grammar books treat them as conjunctions in their own right.

Many subordinators and connectives (*wh*-words) combine with intensifying or limiting adverbs: *only if*, *exactly the way*, *not nearly so... as*, *just what*, etc.:

Anne cooks fish exactly the way her mother did.

Subordinators and connectives may appear in coordinate pairs; this use, however, is restricted and largely idiomatic: *if and only if*; *if and when*; *when and where*.

4. Many subordinators and connectives are polysemantic. For instance, *while* can be used as a conjunct or as a connective; *that* can serve as either a subordinating conjunction or a connective; *as* can convey the meaning of time, reason, concession and manner. If a subordinator combines two grammatical meanings in the same usage, it is described as "syncretic". For example, *now (that)* combines the meanings of time and reason, with the latter predominating. Some of the subordinators coincide in form with free word combinations (*in the way*, *as long as*, *every time*, etc.). Cf.:

The second act was as long as the first one. (free word combination)

You can stay here as long as you don't ask any more questions.
(a conjunction)

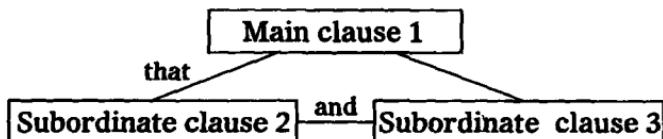
Am I in the way? (free word combination)

The girls curtseyed in the way the governess had taught them.
(a conjunction)

5. If a sentence has two or more dependent clauses, they can be arranged in various ways. In the first place, dependent clauses can be homogeneous, i. e. performing the same function, related to the same element in the main clause, and coordinated with each other:

(1) *A classic is something (2) that everybody wants to have read*
(3) *and nobody wants to read.*

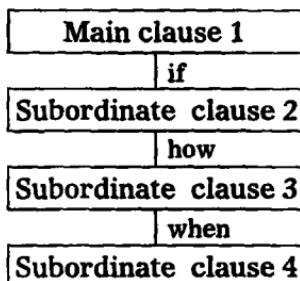
This sentence can be graphically represented in the following way:



Clauses 2 and 3 are homogeneous subordinate clauses which are linked by the copulative coordinator *and*.

Secondly, a dependent clause may be subordinated directly to the main clause (as in the above examples), in which case it is a clause of the first degree of subordination, or to another dependent clause, in which case it becomes a clause of the second, third, etc. degree of subordination. Consider the following example:

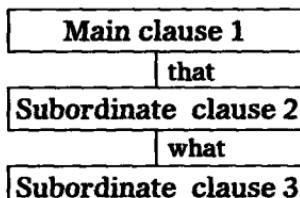
- (2) *If men knew (3) how women pass the time (4) when they are alone, (1) they'd never marry.*



Clause 2 is a subordinate clause of the first degree of subordination and clause 3 is a clause of the second degree of subordination. The third degree of subordination is represented by clause 4 that is a subordinate to clause 3. We can also say that clause 2 (subordinated to the main clause) becomes a superordinate clause to clause 3, which, in its turn, serves as superordinate to clause 4.

A subordinator and a connective, each introducing its respective clause, may be placed alongside each other; in this case a superordinate clause is interrupted by a dependent clause of the next degree of subordination:

- (1) *This is not to say (2) that ((3) what I'm trying to point to here) has not been discussed before.*



In this sentence, clause 3 is a clause of the second degree of subordination even though it is within subordinate clause 2 where it serves as subject.

Finally, a multiple sentence can include two or more independent clauses, connected in one of the ways described above, and at least one dependent clause. A syntactic structure of this type is termed a "compound-complex" sentence.

6. Dependent clauses are classified according to their syntactic function in relation to the main clause. Therefore, taking a unified approach to analysing simple and multiple (complex) sentences, we distinguish **subject**, **predicative**, **object**, **attributive (relative)** and **adverbial** clauses. Although some British and American grammars also recognize other types of clauses, such as those of preference, exception, precaution, etc., we believe that these categories are based on lexical or communicative meaning rather than syntactic function; therefore, they will be treated here as semantic subtypes of relevant grammatical structures.

Subject, predicative and object clauses are referred to as **nominal** clauses because their counterparts in the simple sentence are characteristically expressed by nominal parts of speech. It is also reasonable to distinguish **that-clauses** introduced by the subordinate conjunction *that* and **wh-clauses** which introduce subordinate clauses with the help of connectives. **That-clauses** are all nominal and **wh-clauses** can be both nominal and relative. Adverbial clauses are introduced by subordinators other than the conjunction *that*.

15.2.1. Subject Clauses

1. A subject clause is the type of dependent clause that serves as subject to the predicate of the main clause:

That she was still sitting there was a surprise to me.

What can't be cured must be endured.

That the underlined clauses function as subjects in their sentences is obvious because they can be easily replaced by the pronouns *it* or *this* to produce simple sentences *It was a surprise to me* and *This must be endured*, with *it* and *this* being subjects of the sentences.

Subject clauses can be moved to the end of the sentence, and the introductory or anticipatory *it* takes the initial subject position. In this case a subordinate clause is regarded as an **extraposed subject** of the sentence:

It was a surprise to me that she was still sitting there.

It must be endured what can't be cured.

It was made clear to the audience what measures would be taken to ensure the athletes' security.

Subject clauses are introduced by connectives and the subordinators *that* and *whether*:

Who(m) you invite is your business.

How they managed to survive is a mystery.

Where we stay doesn't matter.

Whether or not he is a student is immaterial.

It is perfectly clear when the payment is due.

It seems to me absurd that he should call himself Caesar.

In informal style the conjunction *that* can be omitted from subject clauses correlating with the introductory *it*:

It's a pity you weren't there.

It is obvious the driver couldn't control the car.

Subject clauses (and, in fact, other nominal clauses) joined by means of *-ever* compounds normally use the simple present or *may + infinitive* with a future reference:

Whoever comes / may come here will be given a warm welcome.

2. As can be seen from the above examples, a subject clause may precede or follow the main clause. Because longer and heavier structures usually come last in a sentence, the introductory *it* is often used to move a longer subject clause to final position. Here is a list of adjectives often found in the main clause as predicatives to the formal *it* and followed by a subject clause:

<i>amazing</i>	<i>evident</i>	<i>incredible</i>	<i>plain</i>
<i>apparent</i>	<i>extraordinary</i>	<i>inevitable</i>	<i>possible</i>
<i>appropriate</i>	<i>fair</i>	<i>interesting</i>	<i>probable</i>
<i>awful</i>	<i>fascinating</i>	<i>(un)likely</i>	<i>sad</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>fortunate</i>	<i>lucky</i>	<i>shameful</i>
<i>clear</i>	<i>funny</i>	<i>natural</i>	<i>unbelievable</i>
<i>disgraceful</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>necessary</i>	<i>wrong</i>
<i>essential</i>	<i>important</i>	<i>obvious</i>	

For example:

It is simply extraordinary that so young an author should have been shortlisted for the Booker Prize.

It was appropriate that the guests wore evening dress.

These structures sound more natural than their equivalents without the introductory *it*:

That so young an author should have been shortlisted for the Booker Prize is simply extraordinary.

Many of these predicative adjectives in the main clause (*amazing, fascinating, awful, wrong, etc.*) may optionally cause the use of

the "emotional" *should* in the subject clause. Some other predicative adjectives (essential, important, necessary, etc.) regularly require the use of the present subjunctive or the construction *should + infinitive* in the subject clause (see 8. Mood and Modality and 9. Modal Verbs). Such predicative adjectives as *possible*, *apparent*, *probable*, (*un*)*likely* do not influence the choice of the verb form in the subject clause.

Subject clauses introduced by the conjunction *that* also occur after the formal *it* followed by a verb in the passive voice⁴², such as:

<i>assume</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>say</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>know</i>	<i>think</i>
<i>consider</i>	<i>presume</i>	<i>understand</i>
<i>estimate</i>	<i>report</i>	

For example:

It is thought that there are more than 3,000 different languages in the world.

It was understood that the damage would be repaired.

It is hoped that legal expenses can be reduced.

Similarly, a subject clause can be used to say that something happens, that something is the case or that something becomes known. This use is found with the verbs *happen*, *transpire*, *emerge*:

It just happened that one of the customers wasn't satisfied with the service.

The last two types of subject clauses do not permit the fronting of the subject clause: **That legal expenses can be reduced is hoped*; **That one of the customers wasn't satisfied with the service just transpired*. Therefore, it can be assumed that they are marginal structures within this category.

3. Subject clauses joined by means of the connective *what* can be used for emphasis. A sentence containing an emphatic *what*-clause which cannot be shifted to the end of the sentence is sometimes called a *pseudo-cleft* sentence (for the cleft sentence proper, see 15.2.4.2. Attributive Relative Clauses):

What I enjoy is a good laugh.

What you have to do is (to) find an eyewitness.

What he has done is to send this letter to Mr Jones.

⁴² Some linguists class this subtype with object clauses, qualifying the initial *it* as impersonal rather than introductory. We believe, however, that the subordinate clause should be treated as subject clause, if only because it answers the question normally put to the subject, e. g. *What was understood?* — *That the damage would be repaired*. Asking a question about an object (in this case, directly subordinated to the predicate) would be inconceivable: **It was understood what?*

The predicate of a pseudo-cleft sentence is a compound nominal predicate with the link verb *be* and a verbal or a noun as subject-predicative. If the predicative noun in the main clause is plural, the link verb after the subject clause can be either singular or plural:

What our club needs is / are more members.

The pattern with *what* followed by the subject and the verb *do* is used to focus on an action:

What he did was pull down the old cottage.

Notice that if a progressive form appears in the *what*-clause, the *ing*-form must be used as the predicative:

What she was doing was giving an English lesson to her students.

It may also be sometimes the case with the perfective:

What he has done is sent the letter to Mr Jones.

In pseudo-cleft sentences, subject clauses with *what* as their own subject are used to focus on the thing that the speaker is talking about:

What impressed me most was the Metropolitan Opera.

Subject clauses consisting of the connective *what* followed by the subject and a verb of the *like*- or *need*-group are used to focus on the person or thing that someone likes/dislikes or needs:

What I need is a good rest.

The same kind of emphasis can be expressed by using a passive verb in the subject clause:

What is needed is a change in our foreign policy.

4. The conjunctions *but that* (formal), *except that*, *excepting that* (rare), *save that* (formal), *apart from the fact that* are used to introduce clauses elaborating, or making more specific, the meaning of the subject (and, for that matter, the object) of the main clause, for example:

Nothing would satisfy his parents but that he (should) get only the top grades.

This type of subordinate clause is sometimes qualified as a "specifying" clause or a clause of exception.

5. Subject clauses are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

What is done can't be undone. (a proverb)

What's done is done.

What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. (a proverb)
It's all the same to me. (whether we win or lose)
It makes no difference to me. (what you do)
It goes without saying. (that artists should be paid for their work)

15.2.2. Predicative Clauses

1. A predicative clause is a type of dependent clause that serves as predicative, complementing as it does a link verb in the main clause. If we eliminated the predicative clause from a sentence, the main clause would be structurally deficient. A predicative clause always follows the main clause, as it performs the function of predicative and, therefore, invariably stands after a link verb, chiefly *be, feel, look, seem, taste, sound, become* and *remain*:

The point is that my pass is no longer valid.

2. Predicative clauses are introduced by means of the same subordinators as subject clauses. This means that both *that*-clauses and *wh*-clauses can perform the function of predicative in a complex sentence:

The question was whether (or not) we should venture our money on that project.

My suggestion is that he (should) fax a message to Head Office immediately.

Roger has become what can be described as a respectable businessman.

And that's why we agreed.

His fear was that his family might be evicted.

Sometimes the conjunctions *lest* and *as (as though, as if)* may be used to introduce the predicative of the sentence:

I feel as though I had been cheated.

His fear was lest his family (should) be evicted. (old-fashioned)

The conjunction *lest* in nominal clauses generally follows a main clause containing verbs or phrases denoting fear, worry or the like. The predicate of *lest*-clauses (including adverbial clauses of purpose) (see 15.2.5.5. Adverbial Clauses of Purpose) stands in the subjunctive mood (the analytical subjunctive with *should* or the present subjunctive).

3. The use of verb forms in predicative clauses (and, in fact, in other types of clauses) with *as if/as though* can vary according to the presumed reality or unreality and the time reference of the state or action. In the case of presumed unreality combined with the present time reference, the form *were* sounds more formal than *was*. Cf.:

Susan looks as if she is intelligent. (= Perhaps she is intelligent;
Похоже, Сьюзен умна.)

Susan looks as if she was intelligent. (but she is not)

Susan looks as if/as though she were intelligent. (but she is not)
(formal)

Susan looks as if she had won the contest. (but she did not)

If the subject of the main clause is expressed by a noun like *suggestion, proposal, advice, requirement*, etc., the predicative clause employs the analytical subjunctive with *should* or the present subjunctive:

*His proposal was that the use of office phones for private calls
(should) be restricted.*

4. In an informal style, the subordinator *like* is often used instead of *as if/as though*, particularly in AmE:

It looked like it was going to rain.

This usage is not recommended by prescriptive grammars and avoided by many careful writers. Nevertheless, the use of *like* as a subordinating conjunction has clearly increased in the last few years. It is to be noted that the subject of a main clause followed by a predicative clause can be expressed by the “impersonal” *it*:

It was as if the whole world was against him.

5. In informal style, especially in short sentences, a predicative clause can be joined asyndetically when the main clause consists of an abstract noun with the definite article and the verb *be*. In this case it may be set off by a comma:

The main thing is, you ought to be careful.

The truth is he was awfully embarrassed.

6. Note that complex sentences may contain both a subject clause and a predicative clause; the finite form of the link verb opens two syntactic positions: those of the subject and the predicative filled by nominal clauses:

What I say is what I mean.

7. There is a marginal type of predicative clause represented by the expression *as follows*, which has a finite verb form but no subject:

Their requirements are as follows.

A similar structure is also found with other types of clauses.

8. Predicative clauses are found in a number of idiomatic expressions:

This isn't a very good pen. It isn't what it's cracked up to be.
(= Not as good as it is supposed to be.) (informal)

That's where the shoe pinches. (= That's the problem.)

Cindy looks as if butter wouldn't melt in her mouth. (= Cindy appears to be cold and unfeeling.)

15.2.3. Object Clauses

1. An object clause is a dependent clause that serves as object to a finite or non-finite verb form in the main clause:

We knew that they were tired.

Knowing that they were tired, we left early.

There's no denying that things are looking up.

In the case of ditransitive verbs, either object can be expressed by a *wh*-clause:

He would tell his story to whoever cared to listen. (indirect object)

He told us what he was planning to do. (direct object)

2. Only *that*-clauses and *wh*-clauses can be used in object position in complex sentences:

Paul is sure (that) he will be nominated for chairmanship.

I wonder whether he would leave or stay.

The flight attendant explained why the flight had been delayed.

I hate it when you criticize my eating habits.

Unlike *that*-clauses, an object *wh*-clause can be preceded by a preposition:

Don't you ever listen to what I say?

They disagreed as to what they should do next.

Where there is a choice between *whether* and *if* (e.g., after the verbs *say, understand, ask, learn, doubt, know, discover, wonder*, etc.), *whether* is considered more formal. Moreover, some grammarians scorn the use of *if* after these verbs as incorrect, although sentences like *I doubt if they'll want to participate* are generally regarded as quite acceptable.

3. Unlike connectives (*wh*-words), the conjunction *that* can be sometimes omitted; the object clause is then joined asyndetically to the main (or superordinate) clause.

If an object clause precedes the main clause (a structure sometimes used for emphasis), it is always joined syndetically:

That he was really confused, I can't believe.

What I'm going to do next, I don't quite know.

The conjunction *that* is also required in responses reduced to object clauses:

What did you assume from his attitude? — That he was confused.

When an object clause is separated from the main clause, *that* is usually obligatory:

Everyone could see, as he confessed afterwards, that he was confused.

Although *that* is often dropped after common reporting verbs (*say, think, know, etc.*), it cannot be dropped after verbs with a more specific meaning (*shout, explain, reply, phone, etc.*). Cf.:

She said (that) she had married Ronald.

She phoned that she had married Ronald.

On the other hand, an object clause following the expression *I dare-say* (also written *I dare say*) in the main clause is always joined asynctetically:

I daresay they tried hard.

4. Object clauses are often found after predicative adjectives and participles, such as:

<i>afraid</i>	<i>confident</i>	<i>glad</i>	<i>sad</i>
<i>angry</i>	<i>conscious</i>	<i>pleased</i>	<i>sorry</i>
<i>anxious</i>	<i>convinced</i>	<i>happy</i>	<i>sure</i>
<i>aware / unaware</i>	<i>delighted</i>	<i>positive</i>	<i>surprised</i>
<i>certain⁴³</i>	<i>frightened</i>	<i>proud</i>	<i>upset</i>

James was unaware that the deadline had passed.

He was very anxious that we (should) meet.

I'm afraid we've run out of milk.

Predicative expressions with nouns can also be followed by object clauses:

I have no idea what she is doing.

I took care that everything was ready for their arrival.

5. Object clauses can correlate with the formal object *it*; the object clause in this case is called an "extraposed" object:

I hate it when people are cruel to animals.

Would you prefer it if I didn't help you?

We find it most annoying that our neighbours upstairs make so much noise.

⁴³ Note that the sentence *He is certain that they will come* contains an object *that*-clause, while in the sentence *It is certain that they will come* the same clause functions as extraposed subject.

They considered it desirable that he continue his education.
See to it that the children don't stay out in the rain.
She takes it for granted that her family is quite well-off.
Don't take it amiss if I point out your errors.
I take it that you know your duties.
I put it to you that you lack computer literacy.
How can I get it across to you that this collection is not for sale?
Please keep it to yourself that you disapprove of Linda's marriage.

6. The predicate of the object clause stands in the subjunctive mood if this clause is subordinated to one of the following volitional verbs in the main clause:

<i>advise</i>	<i>demand</i>	<i>pray</i>	<i>stipulate</i>
<i>ask</i>	<i>direct</i>	<i>propose</i>	<i>suggest</i>
<i>beg</i>	<i>insist</i>	<i>recommend</i>	<i>urge</i>
<i>command</i>	<i>order</i>	<i>request</i>	
<i>decree</i>	<i>plead</i>	<i>rule</i>	

The judge recommended that the delinquent be released on parole.

Her uncle suggested that she (should) go on a tour of France.
The contract stipulates that the present tradename not be used for imported products.

The present subjunctive is clearly preferred in AmE. In BrE, using *should + infinitive* tends to sound less formal than the present subjunctive. In direct suggestions (*I suggest that you...*) the present subjunctive is preferred:

I suggest (that) you get a job in a bank.

In BrE, the simple present and past can also be used in object clauses after the verbs listed above:

Her brother suggests that she gets a job in a bank.
Her brother suggested that she got a job in a bank.

In very formal contexts, the auxiliary modal verb *shall* can also be found after these verbs:

The college regulations require that each student shall attend at least 90 per cent of the lectures and tutorials.

7. Object clauses found after the verb *wish* use various verb forms depending on the meaning of the utterance and the time reference of the action named in the object clause.

If the speaker expresses regret that reality is not different, and refers to situations that are unreal, impossible or unlikely, simple

past forms are used if the time context coincides with the moment of speaking:

I wish (that) tomorrow was Saturday. (= It's a pity that it isn't...)

Don't you wish (that) you could write poetry? (= Do you regret that you can't write poetry.)

We all wished (that) the landlady didn't give us porridge every morning.

If the time reference of the object clause is prior to the moment of speaking, forms of the past perfect are used:

Now she wishes she had gone to college. (= Now she regrets that she did not go to college.)

I wish you hadn't been so rude to Robert. (= I regret that you were so rude to Robert.)

The past subjunctive *were* is often used instead of *was*, especially in a formal style or if the subject of the dependent clause is a personal pronoun:

I wish I were a beauty queen.

If the speaker expresses a request or a wish about the future (often mingled with annoyance), we find the analytical subjunctive with *would* in the object clause:

I wish it would stop raining.

I wish you wouldn't drive so fast. (= Please don't drive so fast.)

8. The past subjunctive and the past indefinite forms are found in object clauses following *I'd rather* (= *I would rather*), *I'd sooner* (= *I would/had sooner*)⁴⁴:

I'd sooner you stayed in than went out.

I'd rather you didn't tell him.

I would rather you went home now.

9. Note that a main clause followed by an object clause can have inverted word order in a formal literary style. The main clause in this type of sentence structure opens with *Little...* (= not at all) and contains a verb of mental activity like *know, think, imagine, suspect, guess, realize*:

Little did he suspect that he was being followed.

Little did she realize what had become of her children.

Little does he know that the police are about to arrest him.

A similar kind of sentence structure is found when the main clause opens with *Well may..., With good reason may... or With every justification may...*:

⁴⁴ It is also the case in sentences with subordinate clauses of preference introduced by *rather than (that)*: *Rather than (that) she missed her train, I gave her a lift.*

With every justification may you say that the journey was well worth the money.

10. The present simple is normally used in object clauses following *take care*, *make/be sure*, *see (to it)*, *mind* (especially in BrE) to denote a future action:

Take care (that) you don't wake the baby.

I'll see (to it) that this report doesn't get photocopied.

Make sure you come back soon.

11. The same subordinators that introduce what we defined as specifying subject clauses (see 15.2.1. Subject Clauses) can be used to introduce "specifying" object clauses:

I could understand nothing except that / apart from the fact that he did not mean any harm.

12. Object clauses are found in a number of idiomatic expressions:

I hope Billy will get what's coming to him. (= what he deserves)

I don't know what makes him tick. (= what motivates him; what makes him behave in the way he does) (informal)

I'm so busy that I don't know whether/if I'm coming or going. (=...that I am totally confused) (a cliché)

I know that Mary and Paula are twins, but I cannot tell which is which.

I know what you are trying to do. Oh yes, I know what's what.

Practice what you preach. (= Do what you advise other people to do.)

Bill has what it takes. He can swim for miles. (= the courage to do sth)

Andrew knows which side his bread is buttered on. (= what is advantageous for him)

15.2.4. Attributive Clauses

An attributive clause is a dependent clause that serves as attribute to a noun or pronoun in the main clause (with one exception to be pointed out below); the noun or pronoun thus qualified is termed the *antecedent*.

Anyone who goes to a psychiatrist ought to have his head examined.

I told them about my brother Michael, who is married and lives in Sheffield.

On the basis of their semantic and syntactic relationship with the antecedent, attributive clauses are divided into two major classes: **appositive** (or **appositional**) and **relative clauses**.

15.2.4.1. Attributive Appositive Clauses

1. Attributive appositive clauses are also termed *content clauses* because they disclose the semantic content (i. e. meaning) of the antecedent:

I agree with the old saying that fortune favours the brave.
The impression that the experiment has been carefully designed is erroneous.

Appositive clauses differ from relative ones because they are used to tell us what exactly the fact, idea, suggestion, or impression is and not just to say something about it. Cf.:

The news that John received a letter from Bill is a real surprise.
(appositive)
The news that John received from Bill is a real surprise. (relative)

2. An attributive appositive clause is always joined syndetically, by means of the conjunction *that*; other subordinators are found only occasionally. Because an attributive appositive clause is closely connected with its antecedent, it is not set off by a comma in writing, nor is it pronounced as a separate tone group in speaking.

The syntactic relationship between the antecedent and the attributive appositive clause is defined as **apposition⁴⁵**. As with apposition generally, the apposed units could be linked with the verb *be*: *The impression is that the experiment has been carefully designed; The old saying is that fortune favours the brave.* The *that*-clause in this case functions as part of the predicate of a sentence.

3. The antecedent of an attributive appositive clause is most typically a countable abstract noun, such as one of these:

<i>admission</i>	<i>conclusion</i>	<i>message</i>	<i>rumour</i>
<i>advice</i>	<i>decision</i>	<i>notion</i>	<i>saying</i>
<i>agreement</i>	<i>demand</i>	<i>opinion</i>	<i>statement</i>
<i>announcement</i>	<i>dream</i>	<i>principle</i>	<i>suggestion</i>
<i>answer</i>	<i>explanation</i>	<i>promise</i>	<i>thought</i>
<i>argument</i>	<i>fact</i>	<i>proposal</i>	<i>threat</i>
<i>assertion</i>	<i>feeling</i>	<i>reply</i>	<i>view</i>
<i>assumption</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>report</i>	<i>warning</i>
<i>belief</i>	<i>idea</i>	<i>requirement</i>	
<i>claim</i>	<i>impression</i>	<i>rule</i>	

⁴⁵ It may be reasonable to regard appositive clauses as noun complement clauses since they seem to have the same relation to the antecedent noun as clauses which function as complements (objects) to the main verb of a sentence. Cf.: *to indicate that something happened* and *to be an indication that something happened*.

The Mayor expressed the opinion that the old warehouse should be converted into a gym.

There was little hope that the climbers would be found alive.
This candidate does not meet the requirement that secondary school (should) be completed.

Another group of frequently used antecedents to appositive clauses includes such uncountable abstract nouns as *news*, *information* and *knowledge*:

Have you heard the news that the border has been closed?

The antecedents *question* and *problem* stand apart in that they are followed by an attributive appositive clause introduced by a subordinator other than *that*, which can be preceded by the preposition *of*:

The question of whether we should demand a payment for our services was not even discussed.

The use of a plural antecedent is rare:

The colonel gave orders that he was not to be disturbed.

Practically speaking, the antecedent of an appositive clause is nearly always singular and generally takes the definite article. The use of the indefinite article is rare but not impossible:

A message that the expedition should change its destination was waiting for us at the next stopping-place.

The audience was shocked by an ungrounded and clearly provocative declaration that the recently adopted law was unconstitutional.

4. After such volitional antecedents as *demand*, *requirement*, *request*, *proposal*, etc. the predicate of the attributive appositive clause stands in the subjunctive mood:

They yielded to our demand that the children (should) not be punished.

She made a suggestion that each worker (should) contribute a day's pay.

We submitted a request that more lights (should) be installed on our street.

5. Note that if a noun preceding a *that*-clause is subject predicate, the *that*-clause may be easily confused with a clause functioning as extraposed subject. Cf.:

It's a well-known fact that wild animals can be dangerous. (extraposed subject)

It was a message that they wouldn't come. (appositive clause)

15.2.4.2. Attributive Relative Clauses

1. Attributive relative clauses are so called because they are joined with the help of relative pronouns or adverbs (*wh*-words and the relative pronoun *that*). Their function, broadly speaking, is to qualify the antecedent:

The dean saw all the students who had received poor grades.

I'll never forget the day when we first met.

New York, which has a population of over eight million, is one of the largest cities in the Western hemisphere.

These examples show that there is a considerable difference between the subtypes of attributive relative clauses. In fact, they can be classified in various ways, but for practical purposes it seems expedient to divide them into two groups: **limiting** and **non-limiting**.

2. Attributive **limiting** relative clauses are also called “defining”, “restrictive” or “essential”. As can be deduced from these terms, limiting clauses limit (or restrict) the semantics of the antecedent; they are essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence and could not be eliminated. Cf.:

Each generation imagines itself to be more intelligent than the one that went before it and wiser than the one that comes after it.

**Each generation imagines itself to be more intelligent than the one and wiser than the one.*

Restrictive (limiting) clauses are so called because their content is used by the speaker to distinguish those members of a set (class) of objects which have the property designated by the clause from those members of the set which do not have this property. The difference between the sentence *They have two children who go to school* and the sentence *They have two children, who go to school* is that only the first sentence implies that “they” have more than two children.

Because limiting clauses are closely connected with the main clause, they are not set off by a comma in writing, nor are they pronounced as a separate tone group in speaking.

3. Limiting clauses qualifying a personal antecedent are joined by means of the connectives (relative pronouns) *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *that*⁴⁶. *That* and *who* are equally appropriate if the antecedent is a vague or generalized noun or a pronoun:

He is the sort of person that / who never goes back on his promises.

We need someone that / who can handle the matter with discretion.

⁴⁶ Note that this relative *that* is different from the subordinator *that* which is used to introduce subordinate subject, object, predicative or appositive *that*-clauses.

If, however, the antecedent is more definite or particularized, who is a far more likely choice:

The uncle who came to see us yesterday is my mother's younger brother.

The use of the object form whom to introduce a limiting clause is considered formal:

The workers whom we employ get paid by the hour. (formal)

Possible alternatives are:

The workers that we employ...

The workers who we employ... (informal)

The workers we employ...

In a formal style, the preposition is placed before the connective:

The man to whom I spoke was a retired engineer.

In an informal style, it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the limiting clause:

The man who / whom I spoke to...

Whom then is often replaced by *that*, but it is still more common to omit the connective altogether:

The man (that) I spoke to...

4. Limiting clauses qualifying a non-personal antecedent are joined by means of *that*, *which*, *whose / of which*, *when*, *where*, *why*, (*such*)...as:

She retired to the town where she had spent her youth.

He didn't work hard enough, and such work as he had done was very poor.

That's the reason why I didn't marry him.

This is a requirement that / which I refuse to comply with.

The choice between *that* and *which* often seems to be a matter of individual taste; however, there are a few cases where *that* is clearly preferred to *which*:

1) when the antecedent is an indefinite pronoun:

The governor promised to do all that lay in his power to help the flood victims.

2) when the antecedent is qualified by an ordinal number:

The first church that was built in the new capital city was to become a burial place for members of the ruling dynasty.

3) when the antecedent is qualified by a superlative adjective:

"Hamlet" is perhaps the most profound tragedy that has ever been written in the English language.

4) when the limiting clause has a compound nominal predicate:

It is a novel that will become a best-seller.

On the other hand, *that* cannot be used after a preposition, whether the antecedent is personal or non-personal. Cf.:

This is the person that / who(m) I was telling you about.

This is the person about whom I was telling you.

Relative adverbs can be replaced by prepositional groups:

The year when (= in which) he was born marked the turn of the century.

The day when (= on which) they arrived was uncommonly hot.

The hotel where (= in/at which) they were staying was by far the most expensive in that area.

The reason why (= for which) he refused is unclear.

The use of the connective *whose* to refer to non-personal antecedents is considered acceptable, although some speakers tend to avoid it:

The house whose roof fell in has now been repaired.

The alternative use of the prepositional group *of which* is formal and may sound awkward:

The house the roof of which fell in... / The house of which the roof fell in...

5. Limiting clauses are the only type of attributive clauses that can be joined both syndetically and asyndetically. If the antecedent is not the subject of the limiting clause, the relative *that* (*who*, *which*) is very often omitted in spoken and written English:

That was the only proposal I could come up with.

Was the man you spoke to just now our new editor?

Asyndetic limiting clauses are called "contact" clauses.

6. Attributive limiting relative clauses are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

He laughs best who laughs longest. (a proverb)

All that glitters is not gold. (a proverb)

How can you bite the hand that feeds you? (= do harm to someone who does good things for you) (a cliché)

If you fire your best office worker, you'll be killing the goose that laid the golden eggs. (a proverb)

7. Attributive limiting relative clauses can be further subdivided into **particularizing** and **classifying**, depending on whether they correlate with the definite or indefinite article before the antecedent.

Limiting particularizing relative clauses restrict the meaning of the antecedent by establishing a reference to a particular person or thing (or a particular group of persons or things). Their antecedent is accompanied by the particularizing definite article or the demonstrative pronoun *that / those*:

The students who did not come to class yesterday explained their absence to the instructor.

We enjoyed the city where we spent our vacation.

The girl I told you about is my next door neighbour.

We invited only those people whom we had met at the summer camp.

Limiting classifying relative clauses restrict the meaning of the antecedent by establishing a reference to a certain class (or category) of persons or things. Their antecedent is accompanied by the classifying indefinite article (or the zero article in the plural) or an indefinite determiner (e. g. *some, any, no*):

She lectured on a topic I know very little about.

Can you recommend any up-to-date audio or video courses that could be used in class?

A passenger who is not in possession of a valid ticket may be fined.

It's time you knew your duties.

The expression *It is time...* can be used in simple sentences (where it is followed by an infinitive or a *for + to-infinitive* construction) and in complex sentences (where it is followed by an attributive relative limiting clause with a predicate in the past indefinite). There is a slight difference in meaning between these two structures: *It is time + for N + to-infinitive* merely states that the correct time has arrived; *It is time + limiting clause* implies that it is a little late. Note that *It is time + I/he/she/it cannot be followed by the past subjunctive were:*

It's time he was independent.

Classifying clauses typically qualify pronouns; the meaning of pronouns is rather vague and often needs to be limited by context:

Clive caught sight of someone he knew.

Is there anything I could do to help out?

He admires those who succeed. (= people who succeed)

In old-fashioned English, the pronoun *he* used in the general sense (= a person) can also serve as antecedent for a classifying clause. This use is mostly found in proverbs and sayings:

He who can, does; he who cannot, teaches.

A similar usage is found with the pronoun *they* (= people):

And what should they know of England who only England know?

8. Attributive non-limiting relative clauses are also called "non-defining", "non-restrictive" or "non-essential". As can be deduced from this terminology, they do not restrict the meaning of the antecedent; rather, they provide some additional information about a person or a thing denoted by the antecedent. They are not essential to the structure of the sentence and could be left out:

I am reading a book about Helen Keller, who was the most remarkable woman in the history of the United States.

Tom was late, which surprised me.

In my class there are only advanced students, most of whom are from Eastern Europe.

Non-limiting clauses are loosely connected with the main clause; they are set off by commas (or sometimes by parentheses) in writing and pronounced as a separate tone group in speaking.

9. Non-limiting clauses are always joined syndetically, by means of relative pronouns and adverbs. The relative *that* is not used in present-day English to introduce non-limiting clauses:

In the same way as limiting clauses, non-limiting ones can be preceded by prepositions:

Mr Lee, with whom I played golf yesterday, is a prominent architect.

10. Attributive non-limiting relative clauses can be further subdivided into **descriptive** and **continuative**, depending on the structural type of the antecedent.

Descriptive clauses provide a description of the antecedent. A typical antecedent is a proper noun, a "unique" noun, or a noun (group) made definite by the context or situation:

She introduced me to her husband, whom I hadn't met before.

The Mississippi River, which flows south from Minnesota to the Gulf of Mexico, is the major commercial river in the United States.

The use of the indefinite or zero article with the antecedent of a descriptive clause is also possible:

Rice, which is grown in many countries, is a staple food throughout much of the world.

Glaciers, which are huge masses of ice, form in the polar regions and in high mountains.

I bought a dozen eggs, two of which were bad.

The importance of punctuating descriptive clauses can be illustrated by the following examples:

- a) *The hikers who knew about the avalanche took another road.*
- b) *The hikers, who knew about the avalanche, took another road.*

Sentence (a), which contains a limiting particularizing clause, implies that only some of the hikers took another road, but there were presumably others who did not escape the danger. Sentence (b), which contains a non-limiting descriptive clause, implies that all the hikers knew about the avalanche and took another road.

11. Attributive non-limiting continuative relative clauses differ from descriptive clauses (and, for that matter, from all other types of attributive clauses) in that their antecedent is not just a noun or pronoun, but the whole main clause structure; they are added as an afterthought and continue, as it were, the idea expressed in the main clause:

Julia ignored their suggestions, which was unwise. (= and that was unwise)

Norman responded to my letter right away, which I appreciated.
(= and I appreciated that)

Only the relative pronoun *which* is used to introduce continuative clauses; it can be preceded by a preposition:

Norman responded to my letter right away, for which I couldn't thank him enough.

It should be noted that the Russian equivalent of the continuative clause, joined by means of the relative pronoun *romo* is treated by traditional Russian grammars as an object rather than attributive clause.

Sometimes a continuative clause is joined with the help of a preposition, the pronoun *which* and a noun (like *case* or *event*) which is a very general word for a situation:

The drug might have a slight soporific effect, in which case (= and then) the dose should be reconsidered.

I was reprimanded by the boss, at which point I gave her notice.

Although continuative clauses are widely used in formal writing, some grammar books (particularly American) label them as "dangling" or "unrelated" and insist that their use is informal. This opinion could be accepted only to the extent that a continuative clause is undesirable when the reference is unclear, especially when which follows a non-personal noun:

**Michael had made the complaint, which came as a shock.*

12. To sum up briefly, it should be emphasized that

1) in restrictive (limiting) relative clauses

- a) the relative pronoun *that* can be substituted for *who* or *which*;
 - b) in object position the connectives (pronouns *that*, *who* or *which*) can be omitted:

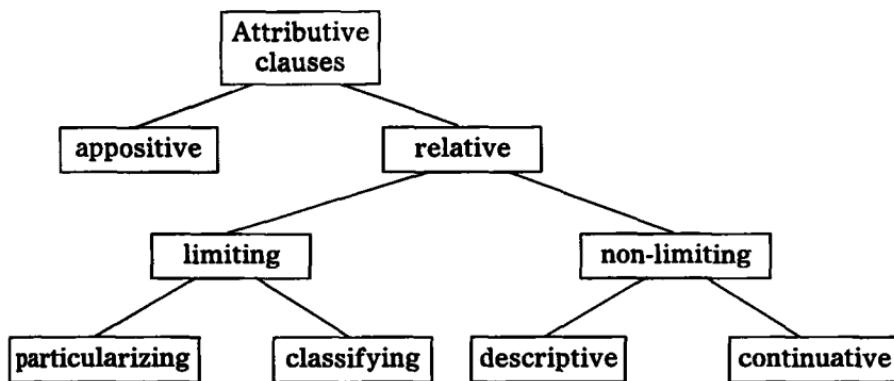
- c) restrictive clauses are used in expressions *those who..., that which... and the like*;
 - d) no commas are used to punctuate limiting clauses;
- 2) in non-limiting relative clauses
- a) relative pronouns (connectives) cannot be substituted by *that* and they cannot be omitted;
 - b) commas are usually used to set off a non-limiting clause;
 - c) quantifiers (*half of, some of, none of, all of*, etc.) or superlative forms (*the largest of, the most of, the smallest of*, etc.) may be used with relative pronouns to introduce non-restrictive clauses.

13. Notice also that a restrictive relative clause resembles the final part of a cleft sentence used to emphasize some element in the sentence structure *It is + noun phrase + adjective clause*:

It was in 1993 that he entered the university.

It is the relative pronoun that is used to introduce a limiting relative clause.

14. The following chart sums up our outline of attributive clauses.



15.2.5. Adverbial Clauses

1. An adverbial clause is a dependent clause that serves as adverbial modifier to the predicate or another member of the main clause:

Andrea couldn't type any more letters as her eyes were tired.

As Doris ran up the steps, she twisted her ankle.

Pretty as she was, nobody liked her.

Because adverbial clauses, like adverbial modifiers in a simple sentence, are classified according to their meaning, their grouping can be

more or less detailed. Besides, one could expect a considerable amount of polysemy, overlapping and syncretic (i. e. combined) usage.

2. Adverbial clauses can be joined syndetically, i. e. by means of subordinating conjunctions, or asyndetically (in which case a sentence could always be paraphrased so as to include a conjunction).

An adverbial clause can precede, interrupt or follow the main clause. The general rule is to punctuate adverbial clauses placed in initial or medial position:

An Englishman, even if he is alone, forms an orderly queue of one.

3. Most grammars distinguish adverbial clauses of time, place, condition, reason, purpose, result, manner, comparison, proportion and concession.

15.2.5.1. Adverbial Clauses of Time

1. Adverbial clauses of time (or temporal clauses) are used to say when something happened by referring to another event:

I can't pay my bills until my paycheque comes.

I won't talk to her again as long as I live.

A time clause can be used after an adverbial modifier of time, so as to provide a more specific time reference, in which case it could be described as a specifying temporal clause:

They returned at dawn, before the others woke up.

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by the following one-member and multi-member subordinators:

<i>when</i>	<i>before</i>	<i>by the time (that)</i>	<i>the first/last/next time (that)</i>
<i>wherever</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>directly</i>	<i>during the time (that)</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>until</i>	<i>immediately</i>	<i>no sooner... than</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>till</i>	<i>once</i>	<i>hardly/scarcely/barely... when</i>
<i>as/so long as</i>	<i>while</i>	<i>every/each time</i>	<i>the moment/minute, etc. (that)</i>

Some of these conjunctions can be preceded by intensifying or limiting adverbs: *just as, only when, ever since, etc.*:

Every time / Whenever I see her, I stop to talk to her.

I'll phone you once I reach London.

While / As I was walking home, it began to rain.

We'll begin directly/immediately he's ready. (chiefly BrE)

It's a long time since I had a good meal.

It won't be long before he settles down.

He had barely arrived when (before — chiefly AmE) the message came.

The last time I went to New York, I visited the Metropolitan Museum.

When a clause of time precedes the main clause, it is normally punctuated.

2. As a rule, future tenses are not found in clauses of time; present tenses with a future reference are used instead. However, *when* meaning "and then" can be followed by the present or future:

I will be on holiday till the end of September, when I return / will return to London.

Occasionally the present or past perfect is used in time clauses to stress the completion of the act.:

I will go to bed after I finish / have finished my work.

When you have stayed here long enough, you will know all the local customs.

Notice the variant use of tenses in the main clause when the temporal clause is introduced with *before*:

I left before he came.

I had left before he came.

The latter variant is preferred in a formal style.

3. Main clauses opening with the endorsing items *barely*, *hardly*, *scarcely* and *no sooner* have inverted word order. If these endorsing items occur in medial position, the word order is normal. Cf.:

He had no sooner drunk the coffee than he began to feel dizzy.

No sooner had he drunk the coffee than he began to feel dizzy.

The lecture had hardly begun when the lights went out.

Hardly had the lecture begun when the lights went out.

These sentence models generally use the past perfect tense in the main clause and the simple past in the time clause. Other tense patterns are possible but rare:

Scarcely were they seated (or They were scarcely seated) when the show began.

No sooner does he earn any money than he spends it.

If a clause of time preceding the main clause opens with *only after*, *only when* or *not until*, the main clause has inverted word order:

Only after the money has been received, do we dispatch goods.

Not until the examination was over, were they allowed to leave the room.

After wherever (and, in fact, after other -ever compounds in various types of subordinate clauses) we sometimes find the modal auxiliary *may*, which can imply a remote possibility:

Minor breakdowns, whenever they may occur, will be fixed promptly.

Notice the tense patterns in the following structures:

*We hadn't covered half the distance when the engine stalled.
I had been working for two hours when a splinter pierced my thumb.*

It's ages since I sailed/have sailed a yacht.

I've known the Browns since I've lived in this town.

4. Adverbial clauses of time are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

Make hay while the sun shines/is shining. (a proverb)

Look before you leap. (a proverb)

When the cat's away, the mice will play. (a proverb)

I'll be there when I'm good and ready. (= when I am completely ready) (informal)

Before you could say Jack Robinson, the birds flew away. (= almost immediately) (a cliché; often found in children's stories)

When the time is ripe, I'll bring up the subject again. (= at exactly the right time)

I'll be there before you know it. (= almost immediately)

Don't count your chickens before they hatch/are hatched. (a proverb)

15.2.5.2. Adverbial Clauses of Place

1. Adverbial clauses of place are used to say where something happened by referring to the scene or direction of another event or process. Adverbial clauses of place are introduced by the subordinators *where*, *wherever*, *anywhere*, *everywhere*:

You can't camp where/anywhere/wherever you like these days.

Where buildings were destroyed by the earthquake, rescue parties are now at work.

Put your tennis things where they belong.

Sometimes an adverbial clause of place is preceded by a preposition:

I can see it clearly from where I'm sitting.

2. Present simple is normally used to denote a future action after the subordinators *anywhere*, *everywhere* and *wherever*:

He will probably feel at ease wherever he finds himself.

A clause of place, particularly one joined by means of *anywhere*, *everywhere* and *wherever*, can come before the main clause if the speaker wants to give it greater emphasis:

Everywhere she goes, she is mistaken for a fashion model.

In old-fashioned English, *anywhere* and *everywhere* can be followed by *that*:

And everywhere that Mary went, the lamb was sure to go.

3. Adverbial clauses of place are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

Where there's a will, there's a way. (a proverb)

Where there's smoke, there's fire. (a proverb)

Where I come from, people are very friendly.

Let's give credit where credit is due. (= Let's give credit to someone who deserves it.) (a cliché)

Faults are thick where love is thin. (a proverb)

15.2.5.3. Adverbial Clauses of Condition

1. Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of condition (called "conditional sentences" or "conditionals") are used to refer to an event, described by the main clause, that depends for its occurrence on another event (condition), described in the subordinate clause. Conditions may be thought of as real or unreal (hypothetical or counterfactual).

2. Conditional clauses usually contain *any*-words like *any*, *ever*, *yet*, etc. instead of *some*-words like *some*, *always*, *already*, etc.:

If you ever have any problems, just let me know.

The use of *some*-words creates what is known as "positive bias":

Help yourself if you want something to eat.

3. Adverbial clauses of condition are introduced by the following one-member and multi-member subordinators:

<i>if</i>	<i>so / as long as</i>	<i>on (the) condition (that)</i>
<i>if... then</i>	<i>assuming (that)</i>	<i>in the event that</i>
<i>unless</i>	<i>given that</i>	<i>suppose / supposing (that)</i>
<i>what if</i>	<i>in case (that) (AmE)</i>	<i>provided / providing (that)</i>
<i>say</i>	<i>once</i>	<i>on the understanding that</i>

You can't travel abroad unless you have a passport.

So / As long as you clear your desk by this evening, you can have tomorrow off.

Suppose / Supposing (that) I wrote a novel, who would venture to publish it?

*What if we move the picture over here; will it look better?
Say you were to run out of money; then what would you do?
If it hadn't been for the flood, we would have had a good harvest.
If this is your idea of a good holiday, then you can count me out.
I'll try to be there on time, but in case I'm not, the class will be dismissed.*

The conjunction *if* combines with limiting adverbs: *if only, only if, even if*. Note that the conjunction *once* is polysemantic: it can mean "as soon as" or "if (ever)" and introduce clauses of time or condition, respectively. *Only if* placed at the beginning of the conditional sentence causes inversion in the main clause. Cf.:

*You will pass the test only if you study hard.
Only if you study hard, will you pass the exam.*

If conveys the meaning of purpose only when it combines with the modal *be + to-infinitive* in the subordinate clause and generally correlates with another modal verb or a modal expression in the main clause:

*If everyone is to hear you, you must speak up.
We ought to redouble our efforts if the pollution of coastal waters is to be controlled.
We should leave the party now if we are to catch the 9.45.*

If... not and unless are sometimes interchangeable:

If you don't / Unless you change your mind, I won't be able to help you.

However, *unless* is stronger than *if... not* and is sometimes preferable:

Unless the management improve their offer, there will be a strike.

Unless cannot replace *if... not* in certain Type 1 sentences (see below):

I'll be surprised if he doesn't win.

The reason is that *unless* always means "except on the condition that". On the other hand, *if... not* cannot replace *unless* when the latter is used to introduce an afterthought. This kind of *unless*-clause follows the main clause and is usually separated by a comma or a dash:

I couldn't have got to the meeting in time — unless, of course, I had caught an earlier train.

This means that the speaker did not get to the meeting; s/he could only have done so by catching an earlier train. If we use *if... not* in place of *unless* in the above sentence, we get:

I couldn't have got to the meeting if I hadn't caught an earlier train.

The sentence now conveys the opposite meaning: the speaker actually got to the meeting because s/he did catch an earlier train.

4. An adverbial clause of condition can be joined asyndetically provided that it has inverted word order:

Should some informality occur during your visit, contact the British Embassy.

In asyndetic conditional sentences, the contracted forms *Weren't*, *Shouldn't* and *Hadn't* cannot be used to open a conditional clause; the corresponding full forms should be used:

Had it not been for the uncommonly cold weather, the wounded animals would have survived.

If is sometimes dropped at the beginning of a sentence, especially when the speaker is making a stipulation or a threat. Such asyndetic joining of conditional clauses is restricted to the informal style of speaking:

You want to get in, you pay like everybody else.

You touch me again, I'll throw you out.

This is probably a borderline case between an asyndetic compound sentence and a complex conditional sentence.

5. In dealing with conditional sentences and their varied structure, two criteria should be taken into account: the time reference and presumed reality or unreality of the situation described. These factors combine to determine the choice of verb forms in conditional sentences. Accordingly, we distinguish three basic models of conditional sentences:

Type 1: situation thought of as real; present, past or future time reference.

Type 2: situation thought of as unreal or hypothetical; present or future time reference.

Type 3: situation thought of as unreal; past time reference.

Within these types there is considerable variation of form and meaning. We will now consider them in greater detail.

6. Type 1 conditionals fall into the following subtypes:

Type 1a. Real condition referring to the present (or, broadly speaking, to no particular time):

*If an animal species is endangered, it is normally protected by law.
If you have lived in the same house all your life, you get used to it.*

Type 1b. Real condition referring to the past:

If he was asked to parties, he always brought his wife along.

Type 1c. Real condition referring to the future:

If I need legal advice, I'll consult my lawyer.

Tense usage in Type 1c sentences is normally as follows: we find the future tense in the main clause and the present tense in the conditional clause.

Type 1d. Real condition with mixed time reference:

If he visited Italy last summer, he is sure to know a few words of Italian.

If he visited Italy last summer, he will probably tell you about it sooner or later.

7. Although Type 1 conditionals characteristically employ the indicative mood verb forms, a few structural variations of the basic Type 1 model can be pointed out.

The modal verbs *will* and *would* can be used in Type 1c conditional clauses to emphasize willingness or unwillingness:

a) in polite requests, when the speaker is asking others to do things:

If you will / would wait a moment, I'll fetch the money;

b) in direct references to willingness or unwillingness:

If you will / would (= if you are willing to) pay us compensation, we will agree not to take the matter any further.

If you won't (= if you are unwilling to) stop smoking, you can only expect to have a bad cough.

Furthermore, conditional clauses occasionally employ the future tense:

a) when announcing a decision or agreement that is not unconditional:

OK, we'll buy the tickets if you'll buy supper after the show;

b) when, contrary to the standard model, the situation described in the main clause is likely to occur prior to the situation described in the conditional clause:

I'll give you \$100 if it'll help you to launch the new project. (The help looks like a consequence rather than condition: it follows the gift of money.)

Other variations of the basic Type 1 model involve the use of the imperative mood or modal verbs in the main clause:

If it's fine tomorrow, we can (could / may / might, etc.) go on a picnic.

If you happen to see Mark, tell him to call me at once.

8. The basic Type 2 model characteristically employs the analytical subjunctive (*would*, or occasionally *should* with the first person subject, in combination with the indefinite infinitive) in the main clause and the simple past form or the past subjunctive in the conditional clause. The speaker presents the condition as hypothetical, that is the speaker does not think that the action is or will be fulfilled.

Type 1 and Type 2 sentences have different implications. Consider the following examples:

If I lose my job, I'll go on the dole. (The speaker implies that his/her position is insecure and this outcome is quite likely.)

If I lost my job, I'd go on the dole. (The speaker implies that his/her position is secure and this outcome is unlikely.)

9. Type 2 conditionals fall into the following subtypes:

Type 2a. The speaker states an unreal or unlikely condition referring to the present or future:

If you didn't drive carefully, you would endanger the lives of other people.

If I knew Japanese, I'd talk to those people over there.

Type 2b. The speaker makes a polite request (in the form of a question) or give tentative, unobtrusive advice rather than refer to an unreal situation:

Would it be all right if I brought a friend tonight?

If you took a taxi, you'd be in time for the opening ceremony.

10. Type 2 admits of a wide range of structural variation.

If the verb *be* occurs in a Type 2 conditional clause, it can be used in the form of the past simple (*was*) or the past subjunctive (*were*), the latter variant being more formal:

If I was/were better qualified, I would apply for the job.

The mood auxiliary in the main clause is *would* for all the persons. In BrE we also find *should* with a first person subject.

The modal verb *would* can be used in Type 2 conditional clauses in the same way as in Type 1c:

If you would stop talking for a while, I would be able to finish this lesson.

If Ann would save her money, she would be able to go home for Christmas.

We should be grateful if you would be so kind as to inform us about your decision as soon as possible.

In order to suggest that something is not particularly probable, we can use *should* in the conditional clause:

If you should (happen to) finish early, we could visit my parents this afternoon.

In a formal style, a conditional clause of this kind can be joined asyndetically, with *should* placed before the subject:

Should you fail to comply with the provisions of the contract, we would have to take the matter to court.

This kind of conditional clause often combines with an imperative main clause in business English, although without the implication of a remote possibility; it is regarded as a more polite and less straightforward form:

Should you be interested in our offer, please contact us.

Should you not wish our agent to call, please let us know.

11. Another way of referring to an unreal or unlikely future event is to use the modal expression *was/were to* in the conditional clause:

What would you say if I was/were to propose to your sister?

A similar structure with the impersonal *it* and a negative verb (*If it was/were not for...*) is used to suggest that one particular event or situation changes everything:

If it wasn't/weren't for his wife's money, he wouldn't stay at five-star hotels. (= But for /Without his wife's money...)

Were to rather than *was to* is used in a formal style. (This model changes to *If it hadn't been for...* in Type 3).

In very formal contexts, the asyndetic joining of *were...* to clauses accompanied by their inversion is also possible:

Were the government to cut VAT, prices would fall.

It is important to discriminate between the use of *was/were to* as part of the conditional construction referring to the future and the modal expression *be + to-infinitive* (indicating obligation due to a previous arrangement) in the past tense. Cf.:

If they were to (= Should they) *contact the office manager, the question of remuneration would be settled promptly.*

If they were to (= So long as they arranged to) *contact the office manager, they should have done so straight away.*

12. The basic Type 3 model characteristically employs the analytical subjunctive in the main clause (*would*, or occasionally *should* with the first person subject, in combination with the perfect infinitive) and the past perfect form in the conditional clause. The sentence expresses the speaker's belief that the hypothetical condition was not fulfilled.

Type 3 conditionals can have direct or inverted word order:

If the members of the board had acted sooner, they would have prevented the strike.

Had the members of the board acted sooner, they would have prevented the strike. (formal)

13. Type 3 conditionals fall into the following subtypes:

Type 3a involves the use of modals in the main or / and the conditional clause:

If he had known the facts, he could / might have told us what to do.

If he could have got the facts, he could have told us what to do. (informal)

If he were to have asked me / Should he have asked me, I would have been only too willing to help. (formal)

Type 3b sentences have a peculiar time reference: they can be used (especially in BrE) to talk about present and future situations which are no longer possible because of the way things turned out:

If my grandfather had been alive, he would have been eighty years old next April.

The same situation could be described with the help of the Type 2 model: *If he was / were... he would be...*

Type 3b can also refer to mixed types of situations, with a past-time condition and a present-time consequence:

If I hadn't escaped from the burning house, I wouldn't have been here now.

The same situation could be described with the help of a mixed type model: *If I hadn't ... I wouldn't be...*

13. If the condition refers to the past and the consequence to the present, we combine a Type 2 main clause with a Type 3 conditional clause:

If I had bought that dress yesterday, I would wear it to a party next Saturday.

If the condition refers to the present or is regarded as general, not restricted to a particular time period, while the consequence refers to the past, we combine a Type 3 main clause with a Type 2 conditional clause:

If he was / were a gentleman, he wouldn't have cheated at cards last night.

If you were more considerate, you would have written back to her long ago.

14. In speech and writing we also find simple sentences similar in structure to fragments of conditional sentences. The "missing" clause of the relevant type, whether independent or conditional, could be reconstructed from the communicative context:

*If only it was/were Saturday! (...we wouldn't have to go to school)
I wouldn't have called him a liar to his face (...if I were you; ...if
I had been there).*

Verb forms in Type 2 and Type 3 conditionals remain unchanged in reported speech:

He remarked that if he was / were better qualified he would apply for the job.

15. A conditional clause is sometimes added to a sentence for greater emphasis, so as to make a strong assertion about a quality or measurement:

He is a fool if ever there was one. (= He is an utter fool.)

She's forty if she's a day! (= She's no less than forty.)

If the parcel weighs an ounce, it weighs ten pounds. (= The parcel weighs at least ten pounds.)

The statue must be worth a thousand dollars if it's worth a cent.

16. Conditional clauses are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

If the shoe fits, wear it. (a proverb)

If wishes were horses, beggars would ride. (a proverb)

*I'll get you a decent job if it's the last thing I'll ever do.
(= I promise that I will get you a decent job.)*

*If (the) worst comes to (the) worst, we'll hire someone to help you.
A few alternatives could be proposed if need be.*

15.2.5.4. Adverbial Clauses of Reason

1. Adverbial clauses of reason (or cause) are used to give a reason for the event or situation named in the main clause or to say why the statement expressed in the main clause is true.

Adverbial clauses of reason are introduced by the following one-member and multi-member subordinators:

<i>because</i>	<i>now that seeing (that)</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>in that considering (that)</i>
<i>since</i>	<i>for the reason that</i>
<i>insofar as (formal)</i>	<i>due/owing to the fact that</i>
<i>so/as long as</i>	<i>in view of the fact that</i>
<i>inasmuch as (formal)</i>	<i>on the ground(s) that</i>

Because / As / Since there was so little support, the demonstration was not successful.

*A glider is different from an aeroplane in that it has no engine.
So long as you are here, please stay for dinner.*

*Now that the semester is finished, I'm going to rest a few days
and then take a trip.*

*Seeing (that) the hall is already full, the meeting should now
begin.*

*Our protest was successful, insofar as the Minister agreed to
reconsider the matter.*

*Inasmuch as the two government leaders could not reach an
agreement, the possibilities for peace are still remote.*

*The bank refused to negotiate a loan on the ground(s) that the
papers were not valid.*

*Considering there's more than enough to eat, he's welcome to
join us for supper.*

An adverbial clause of reason can precede or follow the main clause. As a general rule, whichever the speaker wants to emphasize, (cause or effect) goes first.

2. Clauses beginning with *as* and *since* usually express reasons known to the listener/reader. *Because* most often introduces new information which is not known to the listener/reader. *Now that* is used for a changed situation in the present; it means "because now" and, therefore, combines the meanings of time and reason, with the latter predominating.

Clauses introduced by *seeing (that)* are sometimes qualified as adverbial clauses of circumstance. However, it seems appropriate to class them with reason clauses, because the meaning of the conjunction *seeing (that)* is defined by dictionaries as "insofar as" or "because".

Adverbial clauses of reason introduced by *as* occasionally have inverted word order, with a predicative of the subordinate clause moved to the front. Cf.:

Tired as she was, I didn't like to disturb her.

As she was tired, I didn't like to disturb her.

In a formal literary style, a similar inverted construction is formed by fronting the participle of the notional verb and using the required tense form of the verb *do* after the subject of the subordinate clause:

*Bathing as he did three or four times a day, he could not get his
hair to stay down. (= As he bathed three or four times... .)*

3. Note the sentence pattern with an adverbial clause of reason following the expression *the more so*:

*The existence of a single standard of English throughout the world
is a truly remarkable phenomenon, the more so because / since
the extent of uniformity has increased in the present century.*

15.2.5.5. Adverbial Clauses of Purpose

1. Adverbial clauses of purpose are used to indicate the purpose of an action.

Purpose clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions:

so that	in order that	lest (formal)	that (old-fashioned)
so (informal)	in case	for fear (that)	if (+ be to)

We sent them monthly reports in order that they may have full information about our progress.

I have arrived ahead of time so that I may / can / will get a good view of the procession.

Motorists should drive more slowly so that there is less pollution.

I've come early so I can see you alone.

I'm putting the meat in the microwave now in case my husband comes home early.

Generally speaking, *in case*, *lest* and *for fear that* express a negative purpose. *In case* is used to introduce a possible future action that someone is taking precautions against (Cf.: *На том случай, если*). It is for this reason that *in case*-clauses are sometimes described as adverbial clauses of precaution.

In case is also classed with conjunctions of reason on the basis of possible transformation: *I'm putting the meat in the microwave now in case (= because) my husband comes home early*. This shows that the conjunction *in case* has a highly syncretic nature.

Although *in case* is occasionally used to introduce clauses of condition (especially in AmE), it is not interchangeable with *if*. Cf.:

I'll fix a meal if my son gets hungry. (= I won't do that unless he gets hungry.) (conditional clause)

I'll fix a meal in case my son gets hungry. (= I'll do that anyway, just in case.) (purpose clause)

Lest, meaning "in order that... not", is followed by *should + infinitive* or by the present subjunctive:

The boy hid lest the burglars should see him.

The notice should be put up on the front door lest it be ignored.

Sentences with *lest* tend to sound archaic.

For fear that is usually followed by *might*, but the same idea can be expressed more easily with *in case + past simple* in past time contexts:

I bought the car at once for fear (that) the owner might change his mind.

I bought the car at once in case the owner changed his mind.

2. As purpose clauses refer to hypothetical or future events, they often employ a modal, a future verb or a subjunctive mood form. When the verb in the main clause is in the present or future, or else in the imperative mood, the purpose clause employs *may*, *can* or *will*. The present simple is also possible:

Let us spend a few minutes in silence so that we remember those who died to preserve our freedom.

Besides, the purpose clause frequently employs the present simple if the predicate of the main clause includes a modal verb or a subjunctive mood form:

He should drive carefully so that he doesn't get fined.

When the verb in the main clause is in the past, the purpose clause employs *might*, *could*, *should* or *would*:

Before coming to class I put my name on the cover so that nobody would take my course book.

3. If conveys the meaning of purpose only when it combines with the modal *be* + *to-infinitive* in the subordinate clause and generally correlates with another modal verb or a modal expression in the main clause:

If everyone is to hear you, you must speak up.

We ought to redouble our efforts if the pollution of coastal waters is to be controlled.

15.2.5.6. Adverbial Clauses of Result

1. Adverbial clauses of result describe the result entailed by an action or event named in the main clause.

Result clauses are introduced by the following multi-member subordinators: *(so)... that*, *(such)... that*, *so that*, *with the result that*.

Result clauses always follow the main clause:

We arrived ahead of time, so that we got the best seats.

The guests came early, with the result that they had to wait.

The house was painted purple, so that it became a blot on the landscape.

The managing director made so many mistakes that the firm collapsed.

It was such a funny comedy (that) we laughed our heads off.

So and *such* are modifiers (endorsing items) in the main clause which correlate with *that* in the result clause. *That* can be dropped in an informal style.

2. Adverbial clauses of result introduced by *so... (that)* and *such... (that)* are also called **adverbial clauses of degree**. Such can stand alone at the beginning or at the end of the main clause, meaning "so great":

The scope of his knowledge was such that he could lecture on any literary trend without using any notes. (or: Such was the scope of his knowledge that...)

Such can also mean “of a particular kind”:

The arrangement of entries is such that even a beginner can use this reference grammar.

3. Result clauses introduced with *so that* may look similar to clauses of purpose. However, their verb forms are different. A result is a “real” fact; therefore, the predicate of a result clause stands in the indicative mood (chiefly the simple present or past). A purpose is an “unreal” fact, or an intended result; therefore, the predicate of a purpose clause often includes a modal verb (usually *should/would*), or a verb in the future tense. Otherwise, the unreality is shown by the verb form in the main clause.

4. When the main clause has a compound predicate, the normal word order can be inverted for greater emphasis:

So terrible was the storm that the roofs were ripped off.

The main clause has inverted word order if it opens with one of the following expressions:

<i>so great</i>	<i>to such a point</i>
<i>to such an extent</i>	<i>in/into such straits</i>
<i>to such extremes</i>	<i>in/to such a plight</i>
<i>to such a degree</i>	<i>to such length</i>

To such straits was he reduced by his extravagance that he took to begging.

So great was her amazement that she could not utter a word.

5. Apart from the basic models described above, we might as well point out a few marginal cases. Notice, for instance, the peculiar structure of some interrogative sentences with adverbial clauses of result lacking an explicitly expressed endorsing item in the main clause:

What have I done that you should scold me?

Moving still farther away from the “model” result clause, we find a syncretic variant of the type:

The elderly woman didn't notice me approach, so intent was she on watering her plants.

Structurally, the second clause (*so intent...*) resembles a main clause that is normally accompanied by a result clause. Indeed, the situation described in the first clause results from that described in the second. However, an asyndetic subordinate clause cannot stand

in initial position (with the exception of conditional clauses, where inverted word order clearly reveals their function). On the basis of purely semantic criteria some grammarians regard the second clause as an adverbial clause of reason. Whatever approach might be accepted, this structure would be regarded as marginal.

6. Result clauses are found in a number of idiomatic expressions. Consider the following examples:

I was so ashamed I didn't know where/which way to look.
(= I was terribly ashamed.)

She's so busy she doesn't know if/whether she's coming or going.
(= totally confused)

15.2.5.7. Adverbial Clauses of Manner

1. Adverbial clauses of manner are used to say how something is done by referring to another action, real or imaginary. Adverbial clauses of manner are introduced by the following one-member and multi-member subordinators:

as	in a way	much as	(in) the way (that)
as if	how (informal)	as though	like (informal)

She acted as if/as though she was/were mad.

*"Hi," I say with a smile as if I'm the happiest guy in the world.
This steak is cooked just how I like it.*

Type this again as I showed you a minute ago.

He treated me just as if we had never met.

2. As a rule, adverbial clauses of manner are not punctuated. The insertion of a comma before *as* may change the function of the second clause and create a difference in meaning. Cf.:

He solved the problem as one might have expected. (an adverbial clause of manner)

He solved the problem, as one might have expected. (a parenthetical clause)

Notice also the verb form variants in adverbial clauses of manner after *as if* and *as though*:

George writes as if he is left-handed. (One can infer from his handwriting that he is left-handed.)

George writes as if he was/were left-handed. (but he is not)

Adverbial clauses of manner joined by *as* can optionally have inverted word order, particularly when the subject is expressed by a long noun phrase:

The present owner collects tapestries, as did several generations of his ancestors.

Although adverbial clauses of manner introduced by *like* are often heard in informal speech (*Surely you don't intend to dress like your grandmother does?*), it is generally regarded that *like* is unacceptable before a clause and can only be used before a noun.

3. Adverbial clauses of manner are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions.

When in Rome, do as the Romans do. (a proverb)

As you sow, you shall mow. (a proverb)

4. The meaning of manner as expressed by adverbial clauses often implies comparison. However, clauses of manner differ structurally from clauses of comparison in that they do not correlate with an endorsing item in the main clause. Clauses of comparison, conversely, always require an endorsing item (see below 15.2.5.8. Adverbial Clauses of Comparison). Besides, clauses of manner can be used to elaborate the meaning of an adverbial modifier of manner, in which case they could be regarded as specifying adverbial clauses of manner:

Type this again carefully, as I showed you a minute ago.

15.2.5.8. Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

1. Adverbial clauses of comparison are used to compare two things or facts so as to say how they are similar or different. Adverbial clauses of comparison are introduced by the correlative subordinators *as* and *than*, with an endorsing item in the main clause. The endorsing item can be an adverb (*as, more, less*) or a morpheme (-er), modifying a comparative element. In the sentence *The task was ten times more difficult than I expected* the word *difficult* is the comparative element (the standard on which the comparison is made) modified discontinuously by *ten times more... than I expected*.

2. Endorsing items in the main clause often combine with intensifying or limiting adverbs: *half, much, far, etc.* For instance, expressions with *as... as* can be modified by (not) *nearly, almost, just, every bit, exactly, not quite*.

The following structures are most often found in comparative clauses:

<i>as... as</i>	<i>not so... as</i>	<i>-er... than</i>
<i>more... than</i>	<i>not as... as</i>	<i>as... as if</i>
<i>less... than</i>	<i>nothing like</i>	
<i>(much/nearly/almost/just about)</i>	<i>as... as</i>	
<i>the same... as</i>		

You've made just about as many mistakes as I have.

It's much/far/a lot/a little colder today than it was yesterday.

*Her condition is pretty much the same as it was last week.
The blizzard here was nothing like as heavy as it was up North.
The facade is as tall as it is wide.*

As these examples show, a clause of comparison generally follows the main clause. There seems to be just one marginal form of comparative clause (namely, that which correlates with the endorsing item *so*) that precedes the main clause:

Just as two hands do not make a boxer, so a knowledge of foreign languages does not make an interpreter.

3. A structural type of dependent clause that consists of the conjunction *as*, a plural noun without an article and the verb *go* closely approaches adverbial clauses of comparison, although it is not traditionally classed among the latter:

As cats go, this one is well-behaved.

Our house is quite inexpensive as houses go nowadays.

He's not bad as carpenters go.

The meaning of the verb *go* in this kind of structure is defined as "be thought of", "be rated", and the subordinate clause means "compared to other Ns", with the implication that the person or thing mentioned in the main clause is at least as good as most representatives of the same class.

4. The present simple is often used to refer to the future in comparative clauses:

We'll be driving as fast as you do / will.

In a formal style, we often find comparative clauses with a finite verb form but no subject, e.g.:

She spent more money than was sensible.

Their marriage was as stormy as had been expected.

5. Comparative clauses correlating with *not... any more* and *no more... than* can be used for emphasis, e.g.:

I could no more tell Mother about my failure than I could have danced on a grave. (= I couldn't possibly tell... .)

His smile wasn't warm or friendly, any more than his eyes were.

Note also the variations in use of comparative clause forms:

It took three times as long as I had expected.

It took three times longer than I had expected.

6. Adverbial clauses of comparison are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

Ann is exhausted again. She's always biting off more than she can chew. (= She's always taking (on) more than she can deal with.)

This detective has caught more criminals than you've had hot dinners. (= very many; used to praise a person for his/her great experience)

There is more to that problem than meets the eye. (a cliché)
The devil is not so black as he is painted. (a proverb)

15.2.5.9. Adverbial Clauses of Proportion

1. Adverbial clauses of proportion are used to show how one action or situation changes or varies in terms of intensity, rate, quality or quantity in relation to another changing action or situation. Proportion clauses are introduced by the correlative subordinators *the... the* and *as... so*. The sentence pattern with *the... the* contains two comparative adjectives or adverbs; the pattern with *as... so* contains at least one comparative form:

The louder he talked of his honour, the faster we counted our spoons.

As you go nearer the edge, so the risk increases.

2. In fact, adverbial clauses of proportion are often regarded as a subtype of comparative clauses. Yet they differ from the latter in that, broadly speaking, they express mutual dependence rather than mere comparison. Mutual dependence is largely a symmetrical relationship; indeed, linguists tend to disagree as to which clause is grammatically dominant, because the interdependence of meanings conveyed by the clauses is very strong. In sentences with *the... the*, this mutual dependence is intensified by a double correlation provided by the correlative conjunction and also by the related comparative adjectives or adverbs.

3. Proportion clauses have a highly syncretic nature. Many of them combine temporal and conditional meanings:

The harder he worked, the less they praised him. (= When/If he worked harder, they praised him less.)

Some other sentences with *the... the*, particularly those with a future time reference, closely approach conditionals, which is borne out by the tense usage and possible transformation:

The earlier we leave, the sooner we will arrive. (= If we leave early, we will arrive soon.)

We believe, therefore, that it would be correct to regard the first clause as dependent and the second one as independent.

4. The order of the clauses cannot be reversed without disrupting the meaning of the sentence. However, the final position of the subordinate clause is possible when the subordinator *the... the* is used in

a lightly different structural model, with direct word order in the main clause:

They praised him (the) less the harder he worked. (= They praised him less when/if he worked harder.)

Proportion clauses can be homogeneous:

The longer we live, and the more we think, the higher value we learn to put on the friendship and tenderness of parents and of friends.

The conjunction *the... the* can also link two one-member clauses or else a one-member and a two-member clause:

The sooner, the better.

The sooner we leave, the better.

The higher the price, the fewer people will be able to afford the commodity.

5. Adverbial clauses of proportion are found in a number of proverbs and idiomatic expressions:

The more, the merrier.

The hurrier you go, the behinder you get.

15.2.5.10. Adverbial Clauses of Concession

1. Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of concession express the admission that although something is true or accepted, another part of the problem, another view or situation (often unexpected) exists. Adverbial clauses of concession are introduced by the following one-member and multi-member subordinators:

although	though	even though	even if
while	whereas	granted that	whatever
wherever	whichever	whoever	not that
considering	whether... or (that)	in spite of the fact that	despite the fact that
much as	whenever	however (good)	no matter (what)

However is used as a conjunction when it means "no matter how", or when it comes before an adjective or adverb to mean "no matter to what extent/degree". Concessive clauses are loosely connected with the main clause; therefore, they are always punctuated. They can precede, interrupt or follow the main clause:

Much as I respect him, I never turn to him for advice.

However far it is, I intend to drive there tonight.

You can't know everything, however brilliant you are.

While I disapprove of what you say, I would defend to the death your right to say it.

Granted that Professor Green's course is very difficult, it has always attracted large student audiences.

Beautiful though the necklace was, we didn't buy it.

Whoever was responsible, it was not the poor pedestrian.

Wherever you met her, it was not in my house.

I'm going to go swimming tomorrow, whether or not it is cold.

Whereas he should have gone to the police at once, he didn't do so. He is quite agile, considering that he is very old.

2. In a formal style, adverbial clauses of concession can be joined asyndetically, with inversion and the present subjunctive of the verb *be*:

These exceptions, be they many or few, cannot be overlooked by a careful scholar.

Syndetically joined concessive clauses with the present subjunctive are also found in a formal style:

Whatever be the reason for it, they conceal the facts.

3. The structure of concessive clauses is highly varied. For example, the sentence *Although he is a good athlete and tries hard, he will never win the Olympics* could be re-worded in the following ways:

Good as he is, he will never win the Olympics.

Try as he may / might / does / will, he will never.... .

However hard-working he is, he will never.... .

However hard he tries, he will never.... .

However he tries (informal), he will never.... .

4. A concessive clause has inverted order if it opens with a predicative followed by the conjunctions *as* or *though*:

Handsome as / though he was, nobody liked him.

In this kind of structure *as* has a concessive meaning, as distinct from clauses of reason, where *as* retains its causal meaning whether the word order is inverted or not. Cf.:

*Tired as she was / As she was tired, I didn't like to disturb her.
(an adverbial clause of reason)*

Tired as she was, she went on typing. (an adverbial clause of concession)

A concessive meaning can be conveyed by *when-* and *where-* clauses, structurally resembling adverbial clauses of time and place, respectively. This is particularly evident if the subordinate clause is preceded by even:

Our teacher always has a word of praise for everyone, even where the essay is not quite up to the mark.

Why should we make allowances for his lack of expertise when the work of others is expected to be of the highest standard?

If only combines with *because* to impart an added meaning of concession to adverbial clauses of reason:

Fitzgerald's early stories should not be disregarded, if only because they reflect the author's personal experiences.

5. Adverbial clauses of concession are found in a number of idiomatic expressions:

Come what may, the mail will get delivered.

I'll be there tomorrow, come hell or high water. (informal)

Be that as it may, all this is part of modern commercial life. (formal)

15.2.6. Parenthetical Clauses

1. Parenthetical clauses are also known as **comment clauses** because they are frequently used in order to express a comment on the information contained in the main clause. They do not constitute a clearly delineated class. In fact, multiple sentences with parenthetical clauses can be regarded as a transitional category between compound and complex sentences. Their form and meaning are varied; it is chiefly their function that serves as organizing principle. They can be joined asyndetically or syndetically, by means of both coordinators and subordinators:

Water, as we all know, is composed of hydrogen and oxygen.

John Smith (for that was the officer's name) refused to talk to the journalists.

Mr Robinson is in conference at the moment, I'm afraid.

When all is said and done, this isn't such a bad area to live in.

Syndetically joined parenthetical clauses mostly employ the following subordinators:

as: *as far as I know; as far as I can judge; as far as N is concerned; as regards N; as is well known; as you probably know; as it were; as you see; as I said; as luck would have it;*

if: *if you like; if I/one may put it so; if you will excuse my saying so; if that's the right word;*

what: *what is more; what is more likely; what is worse;*

when: *when/after all is said and done; when you come to think of it;*

*that: that is; that is to say;
which: which is worst of all.*

The most frequently used coordinators are *and* and *or*.

2. A parenthetical clause is loosely connected with the main clause and is, therefore, punctuated in writing by means of commas, dashes or parentheses and pronounced as a separate tone group in speaking.

Some of the parenthetical clauses lack a subject although they contain a finite verb form. A similar structure has been observed in predicative clauses and in adverbial clauses of comparison:

As regards the sea otter, it is an endangered species.

The verb in an asyndetic parenthetical clause is normally affirmative. Negative forms occur quite infrequently:

*She hasn't got much chance of passing the exam, I don't think.
You can't give me a lift to London, I don't suppose(?) (informal)*

This negative structure can be declarative or interrogative (pronounced with a rising tone).

3. Parenthetical clauses can precede, interrupt or follow the main clause. Asyndetic parenthetical clauses mostly occur in medial or final position. It is generally believed that if we tried moving them to initial position, it would turn into a main clause, and the rest of the sentence would become an object clause. Cf.:

- a) *Who are they, I wonder? It is still valid, I think.* (parenthetical)
- b) *I wonder who they are. I think it is still valid.* (main)

This traditional approach, however, has been questioned by some linguists, who give convincing examples of asyndetic parenthetical clauses placed initially. Cf.:

You know, my position is slightly awkward.

I saw him only yesterday. I mean, he looked as fit as a fiddle.

4. Asyndetically joined parenthetical clauses often consist of a first-person subject and a predicate expressed by a verb of speaking or mental activity — *acknowledge, believe, mean, swear, admit, guarantee, presume, think, assure, guess, promise, wonder*:

Dr Livingstone, I presume?

You will get a new mountain bike, I promise.

A number of asyndetic patterns are regularly found with the second person subject: *you see, you know, mind you, you bet (informal)*. Such parenthetical clauses as *You see, You know, I mean* have been long condemned by purists as signs of unclear or lazy speech. However, when used sparingly, these structures may serve definite communicative purposes.

5. A few marginal types of asyndetic parenthetical clauses can be pointed out. They differ from the standard model in that they are not normally set off by commas. The speaker may use them so as to elicit, or refer to, other people's comments on the information contained in the main clause.

First, a peculiar sentence structure with a parenthetical clause (also referred to, in structural terms, as embedded or nested clause) can be found in special questions:

What did he say he was doing in my room?

Who do you think you are?

The main clause has an indirect question structure, while the parenthetical clause, placed medially after the question word, has an interrogative (i. e., direct question) structure and makes the whole sentence interrogative.

Secondly, a double interrogative structure can be found in general questions:

Has she been here before(,) do you think?

Both the main and the parenthetical clause have a direct question structure, with the parenthetical clause in final position.

Thirdly, a parenthetical clause containing a reference to another person's comment or opinion can interrupt a superordinate clause:

She showed me a chair that she claimed (believed / thought / asserted, etc.) had been made by Chippendale himself.

A parenthetical clause can serve as superordinate to another clause:

The boy is a bit slow on the uptake, if you know what I mean.

6. Parenthetical clauses are referred to as discourse markers, because most of them are used to show how discourse is constructed. They can show the connection between what the speaker is saying and what has already been said (e. g. *as we have pointed out elsewhere*) or what is going to be said (e. g. *as the following chapter must show*); they can help to make clear the structure of what is being said and to focus the listener's/reader's attention on a particular subject or a change of subject (e. g. *as far as the national economy is concerned*); they can indicate the speaker's, or another person's, attitude to the information contained in the discourse (*which is worse; more's the pity*) — the list of their functions could be a long one.

Many parenthetical clauses (chiefly those joined asyndetically or by means of subordinators) are stereotyped structures; they occur in speech and writing with more or less regularity. At the same time, each group seems to allow the speaker/writer more or less freedom to coin new expressions. Parenthetical clauses joined by means of

coordinators do not seem to be restricted to a particular lexico-grammatical pattern. They are often put in parentheses or set off by dashes rather than commas.

It is very difficult to set the boundaries of this category. Its unique character is determined by its structural and semantic diversity. In the present section the multiple sentence with a parenthetical clause is viewed as a marginal subtype of the complex sentence, if only because a parenthetical clause (particularly when it is joined asyndetically) can be "movable", like some other subordinate clauses loosely connected with the main clause, whereas the order of coordinate clauses in a compound sentence can rarely be reversed without destroying the meaning or the structure of the sentence; besides, parenthetical clauses are often found in mid-position, which can hardly be the case with conjoins in a compound sentence.

15.2.7. Vocative Clauses

Vocative clauses are used to make a direct appeal to someone whose identity is not known to the speaker. They occur quite infrequently (chiefly in commands) and are normally joined with the help of the subordinator *whoever*:

*Whoever is inside, open up!
Come here, whoever you are.*

15.3. THE COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

Now that we have dealt with various types of subordinate clauses, it is worthwhile to take a closer look at the compound-complex sentence, i. e. the type of multiple sentence that contains two or more independent (coordinate) clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause. This kind of structure demonstrates the whole range of syntactic relations within a multiple sentence. A practical approach to analysing a compound-complex sentence could be illustrated by the following example:

- (1) *Of course, he read the reviews,* (2) *but he read summarily, without paying much attention,* (3) *till he came to the remarks,* (4) *the critics made about him.*

This is a compound-complex sentence. The independent clauses are: (1) *Of course, he read the reviews...* and (2) ...*but he read sum-*

marily, without paying much attention.... They are linked by means of adversative coordination expressed by the conjunction *but*. The second independent clause has two subordinate clauses; they are (3) ...*till he came to the remarks*... (an adverbial clause of time, of the first degree of subordination, joined with the help of the conjunction *till*) and (4) ...*the critics made about him* (an attributive relative limiting particularizing clause, of the second degree of subordination, joined asyndetically).

Only occasionally is one dependent clause subordinated to two independent coordinate clauses, as in the following example:

- (1) *The horses were so tired* (2) *and the riders so exhausted*
(3) *that there was no point in going any further.*

The adverbial clause of result *that there was no point in going any further* is subordinated to the clauses *the horses were so tired* and *the riders (were) so exhausted* which are coordinated with the help of the conjunction *and*.

Still more peculiar (and, for that matter, still less common) is the structure with two independent clauses and two dependent clauses where each of the latter is subordinated to each of the former:

- (1) *No one can tell me*, (2) *nobody knows*, (3) *where the wind comes from*, (4) *where the wind goes.*

Generally speaking, the structure of compound-complex sentences can be extremely ramified, particularly in a formal literary style.

Although the number of clauses in a multiple sentence can be large enough, this is not to say that the greater the number of clauses, the more difficult it is to define the types of syntactic relationships. Sometimes a multiple sentence with just two clauses presents a problem. In the first place, it is not always possible to determine unambiguously whether the structure that we are dealing with is a compound or a complex sentence. In the present outline, for example, this was the case with *for*-clauses and with the asyndetic structure viewed as a marginal subtype of conditional clause.

Moreover, the borderline between simple and multiple sentences can also be vague, particularly in the case of one-member coordinate and subordinate units (e. g. *The more the merrier*). Notably, the status of one-member interrogative and declarative structures (e. g. *So what?*, *What of it?*, *Hence the nickname*) is open to discussion. If we choose to regard them as clauses in their own right, we ought to stress that they constitute a marginal and non-productive subtype, chiefly confined to set expressions or stereotyped structures. Generally speaking, most of the multiple sentence categories are represented by central models, highly typical of a given category, and marginal or transitional models, which can be attributed to a given category only with a few reservations.

Secondly, in speaking of independent and dependent clauses, we ought to be aware of the fact that both terms are largely conventional. On the one hand, all sentences with correlative coordinators and those with inversion in one of the clauses reveal signs of interdependence. On the other hand, complex sentences with punctuated subordinate clauses reveal signs of a weakened syntactic dependence.

Thirdly, the borderlines between the logico-semantic types of both coordination and subordination often appear blurred owing to the highly syncretic nature of some of the links (e. g. *and*, *as*).

Therefore, the sentence as a unit of language forms a grammatical continuum, with distinct categories held together by a large number of transitional cases.

Exercises

Morphology
Syntax

MORPHOLOGY

1. NOUNS

Exercise 1. Point out the nouns and define the class each belongs to.

1. She saw his face contorted for a moment with the extremity of his feeling and his voice was a little shaky when he answered.
2. The woman sat fingering her hair, which was thin and greying.
3. Mary-Ann was having a late cup of tea with her friend.
4. Money makes money.
5. The junior staff had gone; it wasn't usual for them to work after six.
6. About eight, people began to arrive. The place filled with tobacco smoke, music and fumes; and the party began to swing along at a merry enough pace.
7. Darkness closed in upon them.
8. He waved a hand around the small kitchen, scattering little drops of foamy water, and she saw the room through his eye, the clean windows, the shining taps, the immaculate sinks.
9. The sister in the office had wanted to be a school-teacher, but at the moment of decision all the extra money of the family had been needed for Charlie.
10. He had seen those wide sherry-coloured eyes brighten with amusement, but tonight it occurred to him that there was a sadness in them that went beyond Ethel's death.
11. As for Alfred Pollock — six people will swear that he entered the "Dog and Duck" at twenty past twelve and was there for an hour having his usual bread and cheese and beer.
12. He said two or three words in the local dialect that she could not understand.
13. The police are perfectly aware that Edward Seten was guilty.
14. Next day at about eleven I got my bicycle out of the coachhouse.
15. Nelson used to enjoy a hearty breakfast, but now bacon and eggs were off his diet; so were cheese and beef.
16. She was brilliantly familiar with literature, tongues, art, history, physics, metaphysics, philosophy, and politics (in which I include modern politics).
17. He was fond of lecturing upon the younger writers of England and America, and he explained their merits to his audience with an enthusiasm that attested his generosity.
18. I replaced the receiver and relit my pipe.
19. There was no bitterness in

her manner, she talked as usual, but without ease; she spoke of this and that as though she were making conversation with a stranger. 20. And as you rode along the warm, keen air you had a sensation that the world was standing still and life would last forever.

Exercise 2. Use the appropriate form of the verb (singular or plural).

1. In that village the Wiltshire militia (*to be quartered*). 2. The public (*to be expected*) to protect what is intended for public enjoyment. 3. The poultry (*to be*) in the yard. 4. It was in this somewhat inadequate space that the staff (*to be congregated*). 5. I don't care what your family (*to say*). It's all their doing. 6. Fortunately the news (*not to be*) so bad as we had expected. 7. The family (*to be gathered*) round the table. 8. The government (*to be*) unanimous in approving the move of the opposition. 9. The works (*to be*) to be closed. 10. The nurse's wages (*to be*) good. 11. The family (*to be sitting*) quietly. 12. My family (*to be*) all very nice people. 13. The British government (*to be involved*) because they're embarrassed that all this should be happening on their own doormat. 14. The police headquarters (*not to be*) far off. 15. Money (*to make*) money.

Exercise 3. Use the appropriate form of the verb (singular or plural).

1. His advice (*to be*) always useful to me. 2. The clergy (*to be dressed*) generally in black. 3. She'll want to get back to work as soon as the staff (*to be allowed*) into the Laboratory. 4. The Russian people (*to be*) very hospitable. 5. Official news (*to be*) brief. 6. Our family (*to be*) all good chess-players. 7. The wedding party (*to be forced*) to abandon their cars and literally to fight their way into the Old Town Hall on foot. 8. It was a market-day, and the country people (*to be assembled*) with their baskets of poultry, eggs and such things. 9. Fattening cattle (*to consume*) from five to ten gallons of water a head daily. 10. Her family (*to be*) of a delicate constitution. 11. The loving couple (*to be*) no longer happy. 12. The family (*to be*) still at table, but they had finished breakfast. 13. Money (*to be*) so scarce that it could fairly be said not to exist at all. 14. I know my hair (*to be*) beautiful, everybody says so. 15. The cattle (*to be driven off*) probably. 16. Money spent on brain (*to be*) never money spent in vain.

Exercise 4. Translate into English paying attention to the use of articles with various subclasses of nouns.

1. В этих озерах всегда водилось много рыбы. 2. Есть в этом доме хотя бы одни острые ножницы? 3. Эти брюки тебе не идут,

примерь другую пару. 4. Мне нужен совет в этом деле. 5. Почему вы не последовали его советам? 6. Некоторые из его советов весьма разумны. 7. Мальчик вырос за лето, и брюки стали ему коротки. 8. От кого вы получили все эти сведения? 9. Ты думаешь, эти сведения достаточно надежны? 10. Эти деньги не твои, положи их на место. 11. Где деньги на покупки? — Они на столе на кухне. 12. У меня с собой мало денег, их не хватит на покупку этого альбома. 13. Моих знаний оказалось недостаточно, пришлось пригласить специалиста. 14. Его познания в области нумизматики просто поразительны. 15. Мне бы хотелось получить интересную работу, связанную с поездками за границу. 16. Эти новости уже всем известны. 17. Кто вам сообщил эту новость? 18. Какие приятные новости! 19. Он сделал такие большие успехи в последнее время! 20. Мне было приятно услышать о ваших успехах. 21. Фрукты в нашем саду еще не созрели: лето слишком холодное и дождливое. 22. Овцы мирно паслись на лугу. 23. Олени — очень грациозные животные. 24. Я опоздала, потому что мои часы опять отстали. 25. Где ты купила эти часы? Они мне очень нравятся. 26. Твоей бабушке будет трудно туда подняться: лестница слишком крутая. 27. У моего дедушки до сих пор хорошие густые волосы, а папа совсем облысел. 28. Он поймал всего три рыбы, а посмотри, как радуется!

Exercise 5. Explain the use of the genitive case and state its kind.

1. As Jimmy's eyes rested on the hut, Hopper's sharp cry came suddenly to his ears. 2. She had gone to his niece Imogen Cardigan's. 3. When I was eleven, I wrote this children's book and drew all the pictures. 4. I still drove over to Sonia's sometimes and found Frank there. 5. Hercule Poirot's lip curled as he read the letter. 6. She, too, had been blamed for the dog's disappearance. 7. They were to leave the house without an instant's delay and go at once to the river's edge and go aboard a steamer that would be waiting for them. 8. He's a friend of Willie's, said my uncle. 9. I wished that I could express myself with so much force and aptness, never at a loss for a word, rolling off the sentences without a moment's hesitation. 10. Since his illness, however, he had reluctantly abandoned this attempt to get twenty-four hours' work out of each day. 11. Some of the houses had a brightly polished brass plate, like a doctor's, to announce the fact... One or two with an added discretion merely gave the name of the proprietor, so that if you were ignorant you might have thought it a tailor's or a money lender's. 12. The other voice was raised now; it was a woman's. 13. They had taken the liberty of stopping off on their way to Rye to visit Henry James's house in the hope that they would be permitted to see a spot sacrificed by so many associations. 14. He was so young, so bluff, he laughed so merrily at other people's jokes

that no one could help liking him. 15. On a winter's night as you passed by, you saw through the glass doors men lounging about the bar.

Exercise 6. Explain the use of the genitive case and state its kind; translate into Russian.

1. The Americans have invented so wide a range of pithy and hackneyed phrases that they can carry on an amusing conversation without giving a moment's reflection to what they are saying. 2. His horrified senses suspected that this was the one moment in the building's life when a wind would blow that was too strong for him. 3. Mr Fleet's first impulse on taking in Kennie's appearance was to turn his back and go away, but the boy's evident misery made him feel that he must soften Reg Bellwood's rudeness. 4. When there was a tea party at the vicarage, or I went to one at the major's or the doctor's, people always brought their music with them. 5. In my days we believed in art for art's sake. 6. After this party he kept away from Sonia's and stuck to his work. 7. I saw, however, a complete set of Alroy Kear's and a great many novels in bright bindings, which looked suspiciously unread. 8. You know his first wife, don't you? — Whose? — Driffield's. 9. Her great dark eyes were round as a lemur's. 10. It had the empty appearance which a well-managed confectioner's and baker's always has. 11. Red Rocks used to be a bather's paradise. 12. Presently Rex was on his two miles' walk to Offendene. 13. Crime is a product of a country's social order. 14. I sat in the vicarage pew just behind the squire's and I could not look round. 15. He had told them I was saving his pension and his last fortnight's pay. 16. Then I walked down St. James's Street, looking idly at the shop window, and since I had still a few minutes to spare I went into Christie's, to see if there was anything I liked the look of. 17. Until quite lately he was willing now and then to desert his desk for a day's hunting. 18. Quentin Forde would fetch her in a cab and take her to dine at Kettner's or the Savoy; and Harry Retford took her about in hansoms too and gave her dinner at Romano's.

Exercise 7. Put the noun in the genitive case. Explain the use of the genitive case.

1. Last year he had brought Jenny down for a week-end, to satisfy the (*family*) friendly curiosity about the posh people he knew these days. 2. Then she heard her (*husband*) step on the gravel path behind the bungalow. 3. I saw him at (*Mrs Rudge*) this evening. 4. The letter is from a man who wants to investigate the disappearance of his (*wife*) Pekinese dog. 5. There were two kitchens at the vicarage, a small one in which the cooking was done, and a large one, where Mary-Ann sat and sewed when her (*day*) work was over. 6. The (*Colonel*) daughter,

the (*Sergeant*) daughter, had gone to bed early like a child. 7. I have never been very fond of interfering in other (*people*) affairs. 8. He went over (*tomorrow*) appointments. 9. I don't know if you ever went to (*Romano*) in the old days. 10. Swimming was (*Jimmy*) great happiness. 11. Well, if he goes to Hayward, the (*stationer*), and says he wants the same paper as I got and the wax, they'll let him have it. 12. The boy had gone down to meet him in order to tell him of the (*morning*) incident. 13. As soon as he was free, he raced off in his car to (*Sonia*). 14. Her bones felt as small and thin as a (*rabbit*).

Exercise 8. Put the noun in the genitive case. Explain the use of the genitive case.

1. For his (*honour*) sake Tom has got to commit suicide. 2. The collected edition of his works is in thirty-seven volumes and the last set that came up at (*Sotheby*) sold for seventy-eight pounds. 3. On the day of her (*mother*) funeral it had been blowing a gale, with sleet. 4. I spent much of my free time at (*Sonia*) with my brother Richard. 5. They were exhausted by the strain of a (*week*) ceaseless anxiety and shattered by their grief. 6. There were snow-flakes on the (*policeman*) cape and helmet. 7. What about a bit of supper at (*Romano*)? 8. I never went to (*the Driffields*) till after tea at the vicarage, but I always managed to make a second tea when I got there. 9. It was not only the (*sea*) frontier, it was (*Jimmy*). 10. Jimmy counted a hundred, quite slowly, before he even allowed himself to look out to sea in (*Hopper*) direction. 11. In this little bay, Red Rocks has a half-circle of smooth pale sand, as elegantly rounded as a (*child*) cuticle. 12. I wished I knew more of the historical associations of (*St.James*) Street. 13. There was a (*moment*) awkwardness. 14. (*Sonia*) fury made a passing pattern on her face. 15. While I stood, I heard (*men*) voices singing across the fields.

Exercise 9. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with noun groups.

1. Моя подруга преподает французский в престижной школе для девочек. 2. Он собирается в трехнедельную поездку по Италии. 3. Он всегда с гордостью говорит о необыкновенной красоте своей жены. 4. Познакомься с сыном Эмили и Джона, Питер. 5. Трехдневное пребывание в доме старого моряка надолго запомнилось юноше. 6. Если ты не поторопишься, мы опоздаем к Мэри. 7. Она вздрогнула от неожиданности, услышав в трубке мужской голос: обычно ей звонили только мать или сестра. 8. Пятидневная забастовка водителей автобусов принесла желаемые результаты. 9. Он никогда не входит в комнату старшего брата без стука. 10. Мне будет трудно забыть предательство лучшего друга. 11. Не

уверена, что смогла бы хорошо перенести пятичасовой перелет, я ведь вообще никогда не летала на самолете! 12. Поздравь меня! Мой рассказ напечатан в сегодняшней газете. 13. Не забудь зайти в булочную по дороге домой, а потом загляни в аптеку: у бабушки кончилось лекарство. 14. Луч солнца упал на подушку, и девочка сразу проснулась. 15. Стыдно так плохо знать историю своей собственной страны! 16. Это было решение мудрого и опытного политика. 17. Он настолько устанет после трехчасовой прогулки, что наверное ляжет спать без ужина. 18. Зарплата учителья сегодня, по-моему, меньше, чем зарплата продавца. 19. Он появился у Джеймса после недельного отсутствия без всяких объяснений. 20. Свет луны едва освещал деревенскую улицу. 21. Она все лето провела у своей венгерской подруги, в доме ее родителей на берегу Балатона. 22. Рабочий день домохозяйки намного длиннее, чем рабочий день инженера, правда?

2. ARTICLES

Exercise 1. Supply the required articles. Pay attention to the noun predicative and the noun in apposition.

1. He was ... man of five and thirty and of ... flamboyant appearance. 2. She's ... nice girl and ... perfect lady. 3. You see, this is not ... genuine antique. It's merely ... reproduction. 4. She looked, I decided this morning, much more like ... horse, than ... human being. 5. The Committee approached Mr Gray, ... artist of some renown. 6. I never set out to be ... raving beauty, but the one thing no one has ever denied me is personality. 7. Funny, Jane thought, he didn't look like ... musician — more like ... lawyer or ... doctor. 8. She was ... ordinary, prettyish, ageing woman. 9. I was informed that you had been seen in Church Street in conversation with ... young gentleman, ... very pretty young gentleman. 10. Poor Winifred looked like ... fish out of the water. 11. They're ... great friends, you know. 12. His father's ... solicitor in the North of London. You know very well that if he's bought him ... partnership he isn't making him ... allowance as well. 13. "I think you're ... much better man than I am ... woman," she said. 14. This is my friend Anthony Brewster, ... Englishman. 15. The watch, like Duke, was ... masterpiece, incredibly ancient, older than even Duke himself. 16. She's ... shorthand typist, I gather — does secretarial work in London. 17. They were ... close friends, as a matter of fact. 18. At the end he gave ... smile, ... youthful and innocent smile. 19. It wasn't ... very funny joke, and she wasn't surprised when Inspector Blakelock didn't laugh. 20. He did not look quite ... Englishman.

Exercise 2. Supply the required articles. Pay attention to the use of articles with the noun object.

1. He had ... wide mouth, ... magnificent teeth and ... very good manners. 2. For ... minute or two we were all silent. Then Robert struck ... match and lit ... cigarette. 3. Without waiting for ... answer, he walked over to his car. 4. It was ... calculated risk to take ... man without medical experience, but we were looking for ... manager primarily. 5. She gave ... low, rather hoarse chuckle, that chuckle which so delighted audiences. 6. He wore ... shabby alpaca coat and ... gray trousers; he had shaved his beard and wore now ... moustache and ... small imperial. 7. ... guard blew ... cracked whistle and waved ... red flag. 8. When I got home again, I found ... note in her bold, legible writing on ... sideboard. 9. You thought you'd only given birth to ... ugly duckling; perhaps he's going to turn into ... white-winged swan. 10. With her open hand she gave him ... great swinging blow on ... face. 11. I ought never to have accepted ... valuable presents from you and allowed you to lend me money. 12. She gave ... great, ringing laugh, like ... man's, and she talked in ... deep, loud voice. 13. After a while I got into private employment and met ... nice girl. 14. Then, on one excuse and another, she sent him ... pearl studs and ... sleeve-links and ... waistcoat buttons. It thrilled her to make him ... presents. 15. She wore ... very small hat with ... feathers in it, and ... pale gray dress with ... large leg-of-mutton sleeves and ... long train.

Exercise 3. Supply the required articles. Pay attention to the use of articles in adverbial phrases of manner.

1. He spoke gently, and slowly, like ... father who reassures ... frightened child. 2. I found mother gone thin as ... skeleton. 3. "Come," he said with ... smile. 4. He lifted his eyeglasses to his eyes and strutted after her, for all the world like ... turkey-cock himself. 5. ... mists were dangerous, too, rising in ... cloud from ... damp ground and closing in about ... marshes like ... white barrier. 6. In half ... hour she had ... kitchen scrubbed clean as ... pin. 7. Clinging to her father's hand, she saw ... great white ship like ... bird rolling helplessly in ... tough of ... sea. 8. She met his glance without ... tremor. 9. Then he'll come to, staggering on his feet like ... newborn calf, with ... mouth as black as Trewartha Marsh. 10. She rose like ... fish to his bait. 11. His long dark lashes swept his cheeks like ... fringe. 12. Nan was pulling her gloves on in ... very slow way. 13. The town was set on ... bosom of ... hill, with ... castle in ... centre, like ... tale from old history. 14. Brown was looking at her with ... anxious glance. 15. ... little car shot up to ... right house like ... bullet, and shot out its owner like ... bombshell. 16. Without ... word, with ... curious swift motion, like ... tiger pacing his cage, she came down and followed May out.

Exercise 4. Supply the required articles.

1. There is ... packet of ... candles in ... larder, I saw them, better use those. 2. There's ... piece of ... mutton in ... kitchen. 3. "There's ... church at Altarnun, isn't there?" she said. 4. ... brook burbled merrily over ... stones, and there was ... fording gate across ... shallow water. 5. There's ... piece of ... cheese in ... cupboard behind you. 6. Michael gave Dolly ... glance. There was ... twinkle in his eye. 7. There was ... shout and ... clatter of ... hoofs, and Jem rode up to her round ... corner of ... house, astride ... black pony. 8. There was ... flaming spot of ... colour high on his cheekbone. 9. Even as she spoke, there was ... loud knock at ... entrance-door and then ... pause, followed by ... thunder of ... blows. 10. "There's ... light in ... kitchen," she whispered. 11. There's ... very nasty atmosphere in this Lab recently, and if ... certain gentleman doesn't take ... hold of himself, there'll be ... mischief done, you mark my words. 12. There was ... noise, faintly discernible, like ... creeping of ... myriad insects.

Exercise 5. Supply the required articles with count nouns, paying attention to the various uses of the indefinite articles.

1. ... kitchen was lit by ... single candle stuck sideways into ... bottle. 2. She walked away up ... hill without ... backward glance or ... wave of her hand. 3. ... people had lived there once — ... happy, placid people; ... old rectors with ... musty books beneath their arms; and there by ... window ... gray-haired woman in ... blue gown had stooped to thread her needle. 4. In ... little while appeared ... ancient and haggard female in ... very dirty print dress, with ... untidy mop of ... grey hair, and showed me, two flights up, ... very small grubby room. 5. Then she lifted her eyes and saw ... door of ... kitchen open very slowly, little by little, ... inch at ... time. 6. They sucked ... oranges beneath ... striped tent, and had their fortunes told by ... wrinkled gypsy woman. 7. Jem bought Mary ... crimson shawl, and ... gold rings for her ears. 8. She regarded me merely as ... person in ... play. 9. ... drinking-well in ... yard had ... thin layer of ... ice. 10. Mary sat beside Francis Davey on ... high seat of ... dog-cart, wrapped in ... greatcoat with ... toy collar of ... velvet. 11. He whistled slowly under his breath and kept playing with ... loose button on his coat that was hanging by ... thread. 12. ... valet had just taken ... discreet look out of ... window. "Excuse me, sir," he murmured, "... gentleman has driven up in ... large car." 13. ... visit to Treadley would be ... great privilege. It has ... perfect host and ... perfect library. 14. ... men are like that. They remain ... boys, Franklin, in particular. 15. It was thick with ... dust, and there were ... cobwebs on ... walls larger than ... man's hand. 16. ... other was ... big burly fellow, in ... heavy topcoat and ... cape, seated on ... back of ... fine chestnut horse. 17. Jem Merlyn had little to be proud

about. ... horse-thief, ... common smuggler, ... rogue and ... murderer into ... bargain, perhaps. They bred ... fine men on ... moors, it seemed. 18. Standing in ... corner was ... easel, and on it ... half-finished canvas of ... pool at Dozmary. 19. Whenever ... man does ... thoroughly stupid thing, it is always from ... noblest motives. 20. Mary stood on ... outskirts, behind ... fat market-woman with ... basket, and she saw Jem take his place amongst ... group of men with ... ponies. 21. He moved like .. panther, smoothly and noiselessly.

Exercise 6. Supply the required articles, paying attention to identification by context (anaphoric use) or the situation of utterance.

1. Bella got out of ... taxi and walked briskly down ... street. 2. ... coasting steamer passed ... mouth of ... river, dropped their mail, and went on its way. 3. At ... desk, she asked for Philip Modlinger and was immediately taken to ... top floor. 4. Later, as Joseph was walking along ... corridor towards ... front door, he saw Bella coming slowly down ... stairs, trailing her hand down ... banister. 5. He approached ... front door and rang ... bell. He heard ... sound of ... steps in ... hall and ... door opened and suddenly there stood before him, or rather above him, ... gigantic woman dressed in ... riding-breeches. 6. He said good afternoon and went out of ... room. 7. She looked round ... room that had been ... scene of so many emotions for her. 8. ... sky was blue and ... air, warm and yet fresh, cracked, as it were, with ... heat. ... light was brilliant without ... harshness. ... sun's beams seemed to hit ... white road with ... directed energy and bounce like ... rubber ball. 9. "So ... children are not down yet?" said Ellen. 10. Cassie spent ... night at home, and on entering ... dining-room, glanced at ... space about ... fire. 11. One of her children was now looked after by ... nanny. 12. "Did you like him?" She paused and thought, as if ... question was one to which she herself wanted ... answer. 13. One morning ... new man was sitting at this table. ... newcomer crouched low over his table when anyone passed behind his chair. 14. Bella stepped out of ... car and looked up at ... house. It was ... handsome house, well worn and elderly, ... little shabby but with ... stern qualities of ... old tweed coat. ... stone was grey, ... shutters bold green — reminiscent of ... French countryside. ... garden was neglected, but ... flowers still pitted their wills against ... weeds. 15. She now took control of ... interview and directed ... conversations towards ... professional matters. 16. We played ... whist. I had learned ... game when I was ... child and my uncle and aunt and I used to play at ... vicarage during ... long winter evenings. 17. ... storm increased. ... wind howled against ... side of ... house. 18. "Is Ted here?" — "No. I'm doing ... sale," Linda said. "... boys are with him this week." 19. She walked to ... windows and swung back ... silk curtains to let in ... sunshine. ... drive was empty, so was ... garden. 20. In ... car, he noticed that now she looked ... little different.

Exercise 7. Supply the required articles, paying attention to nouns modified by limiting attributes.

1. I'm afraid I addressed ... wrong person. 2. ... bed was ... same narrow iron bed that I had slept in and dreamed in and there was ... same chest of drawers and ... same washing stand. 3. ... most shining characteristic of Alroy Kear was his sincerity. 4. I ate three cakes; he pressed me to have ... fourth but I didn't, in case it was vulgar. 5. You two are ... strongest physically. It would be difficult for either of you to get ... key from ... other. 6. He is ... only person with ... medical knowledge. 7. Mike waited in ... main hall while Henry escorted ... party to ... elevator. 8. He has sent me my portrait in ... most wonderful frame, specially designed by himself. 9. ... second bell sounded, and Mr March began to walk into ... theatre. 10. They took all ... usual measures. 11. You are ... only person whose opinion is of any value to me in ... present regrettable circumstances. 12. I know what you're thinking. I've asked myself ... same question. 13. Every day the Marches told each other ... latest pieces of ... family gossip. 14. I allowed you all to think that I was asked here in ... same way as most of ... others. 15. I believe I can tell ... very moment I began to love him. 16. Thank you, Stephen: I knew you would give me ... right advice. 17. My brother is ... only scientist I've met who doesn't bore me after ... first ten minutes of his company. 18. They rattled along ... main street of what looked like ... typical East Anglian village. 19. It was, he thought, ... very English illustration of ... most English of poets. 20. Blore shifted uneasily from one foot to ... other.

Exercise 8. Supply the required articles, paying attention to nouns modified by *of*-phrases.

1. By ... light of ... flickering candle he studied his face curiously. 2. His right hand rested in ... pocket of his pyjama jacket. 3. And you know what sort of ... man he is. 4. ... handful of ... ponies had clustered down ... hill beyond and splashed into ... stream to drink. 5. My friend is ... man of ... culture and ... wide reading. 6. You are ... sort of ... man we want. 7. Simultaneously their ears caught ... hum of ... approaching car. 8. Her mind was preoccupied with ... excitements and ... discoveries of her wonderful first job. 9. It's ... dangerous sort of ... toy to have about. 10. ... deposit of five pounds is payable by anyone who wishes to become ... reader of ... library. 11. His voice was low and gentle and Mary could see he must be ... person of ... quality. 12. I'm afraid it's ... moon, looking so much like ... slice of ... melon. 13. Harry Retford knew one of ... fashionable photographers of ... period and, arranging special terms, he took Rosie to be photographed. 14. ... peaceful habits of ... two old ladies, ... routine of their uneventful existence and their quiet gossip, excited her compassion. 15. ... prospect of ... empty life

that confronted ... woman of ... play was ... prospect of her own empty life. 16. Demoyte lived at ... distance of three miles from ... school. 17. ... grove of ... pine trees swept past behind ... car. 18. She could not bear ... thought of his wasting his life over her. 19. Mrs Henderson gave her son ... glance of tender amusement. 20. I want ... thorough search of ... whole building, particularly possible means of access and exit. 21. Evie drew her forefinger across ... base of her nostrils and sniffed. 22. He sent me ... box of cigars. 23. There was ... party of twelve people arriving at ... hotel.

Exercise 9. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with class nouns.

1. В саду было мало людей; дорожки опустели. 2. Где журнал? Я хочу взглянуть на иллюстрации. 3. Все знают, что пчела — очень полезное существо. 4. Он сидел в кресле; перед ним на столе лежала открытая книга. 5. Это такой интересный роман! Я могу вам его дать на неделю. 6. Он хочет купить новую машину. 7. Машина была большая и черная. 8. Собака — друг человека. 9. На лестнице я увидел женщину в белом. 10. Человек не может жить без пищи. 11. Когда вы учите новое слово, нужно знать, существительное это, или глагол, или прилагательное. 12. Мальчик внимательно смотрел на нас, не говоря ни слова. 13. Он заглянул в столовую; стол был накрыт на троих. 14. Когда принесли письмо? — Не знаю точно. Видимо, почтальон опустил его в ящик, пока я ходил в аптеку. 15. Жизнь этого человека была полна приключений. 16. На дороге появилась машина; она мчалась со скоростью сто миль в час. 17. В целом, задание было трудным, но результаты работы нас вполне удовлетворили. 18. Молодые часто ошибаются. 19. Где мама? — Она пошла на рынок купить овощей. 20. Я не знала, что недалеко от нашего дома есть рынок. 21. Рынок был уже закрыт, и мы пошли в магазин. 22. В одном маленьком городе жил когда-то старый доктор. 23. Скрипка — струнный инструмент, а флейта — духовой. 24. Замок сейфа должен быть очень надежным. 25. Замок сейфа оказался очень надежным, и грабитель так и не смог открыть его. 26. Вы дали мне не ту книгу. 27. Мой любимый цветок — фиалка. 28. Они живут на одной улице. 29. У нее приятный голос и хорошие манеры. 30. Дверь комнаты была открыта. Это была маленькая комната с узким окном. У двери стоял диван. На диване сидел мальчик с книгой. У него был прямой нос, большие серые глаза и светлые волосы. 31. Солнце стояло высоко в небе. 32. Том побежал к дому, а Джон — к калитке. 33. Там стоял высокий старик с большой корзиной в руке. 34. Он чудесно играет на гитаре. 35. Его выбрали председателем, а ее — членом комитета. 36. Сильные должны помогать слабым.

Exercise 10. Supply the required articles, paying attention to nouns modified by attributive clauses.

1. They found Emily Brent sitting in ... chair in which they had left her. 2. I think ... instinctive judgements I formed when I was ... boy were right. 3. Stanley knows ... woman in Milford who might be persuaded to come out by bus once ... week to clean ... house. 4. That's ... poem I learnt in ... nursery, but I simply can't remember how it goes on. 5. ... novels of his middle period reflected in their unwonted bitterness ... strain to which he had been put. 6. Excuse me, I have to see ... man who's in trouble. 7. You are not ... person you claim to be. 8. ... room in which she was connected by three archways with ... big dining-room where they supped and danced. 9. ... dress she had arranged to wear for Dolly's party was placed over ... chair. 10. ... people familiar with these moors often miss their road on such evenings. 11. It was not ... job that he liked. 12. Now Julia simply could not conceal ... little smile that curled her lips. 13. I'm not going to wear ... dress I wore in ... second act. 14. Her husband made her presents of ... books she didn't read. 15. He told her ... gossip of ... town, he talked in his charming, cultivated way of ... pictures he saw and ... books he read. 16. He had ... quiet, decisive look like ... man who would do ... mean or dishonourable thing. 17. ... movement he had made, ... words he had spoken were instinctive and he was a trifle abashed. 18. She's ... elderly matron who has worked hard and got nothing by it. 19. He chuckled at ... thought of ... joke he had up his sleeve. 20. He had made ... mistake which caused him to feel inept. 21. I dislike ... people who talk about their private lives. 22. She reflected on ... part she was playing and ... favourite parts she had played in ... past.

Exercise 11. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with nouns modified by clauses.

1. Группа ученых была награждена за открытие, сделанное ими в прошлом году. 2. Я знаю одного человека, который мог бы перевести этот документ на итальянский язык. 3. Вот человек, с которым вы давно хотели познакомиться. 4. Он не такой человек, чтобы забыть о своем обещании. 5. Я не люблю людей, которые вечно говорят о своих болезнях. 6. Критика, которую мы сегодня слышали, несправедлива. 7. Они вошли в вагон, в котором не было свободных мест. 8. В вагоне, в который они вошли, уже не было ни одного свободного места. 9. Вчера она получила телеграмму, которая ее очень расстроила. 10. Телеграмма, которую она получила вчера, очень ее расстроила. 11. Я позвонил; женщина, открывшая дверь, была молода и красива. 12. Улицы, по которым мы шли, были темными и пустынными. 13. На прошлой неделе я прочитал книгу, которая мне так понравилась,

что я тут же перечитал ее. 14. Я хочу остановиться в гостинице, в которой мы жили в прошлом году: номера там чистые и просторные, а сервис просто замечательный. 15. Мэри была увлечена беседой с молодым человеком, которого я никогда раньше не видела в нашем доме. 16. Наконец-то ты увидишь дом, в котором я провел лучшие годы жизни.

Exercise 12. Supply the required articles, paying attention to nouns in generic use.

1. Watching him, he felt some of ... instinctive shame of ... healthy in ... presence of ... disabled. 2. ... English are ... political nation, and I was often asked to ... houses where ... politics were the ruling interest. 3. ... chemists will tell you that ... matter is never completely destroyed. 4. There was something of ... panther about him altogether. ... beast of prey — pleasant to ... eye. 5. ... cat has nine lives. 6. Gladstone headed ... first administration in 1863–74, and for ... long periods up to 1914, ... Liberals had a Parliamentary majority. 7. "... respect for ... property is ingrained in ... English soul," she remarked. 8. Lord Henry shook his head. "... American girls are as clever at concealing their parents as ... English women are at concealing their past." 9. ... police were a tolerant body and took ... view that ... man couldn't know who his father was. 10. I trust he is one of ... aristocracy. He has all ... appearance of it, I must say. 11. "What shall we have for breakfast, Will? Shall we be ... English and have ... porridge, or ... American and make ... pancakes?" she asked. 12. He made no special promises, never bullied ... weak or indulged ... sentimental. 13. He spent two minutes delivering ... impassioned eulogy on ... extreme Right Wing of ... Conservative Party, then two more denouncing ... Socialists. 14. Never marry at all, Dorian. ... men marry because they are tired; ... women, because they are curious; both are disappointed. 15. If ... caveman had known how to laugh, History would have been different. 16. Nature provides ... animals with weapons of defence; ... snake, ... scorpion, ... bee have their sting. 17. ... burnt child dreads ... fire. 18. ... Tories were trying hard to attack ... mining industry.

Exercise 13. Supply the required articles, paying attention to count concrete nouns.

1. ... rain was pouring down again. ... wind came in ... fitful gusts. ... depressing sound of ... pattering rain nearly drove them mad. 2. It's despicable, but I even dislike Brenda Pridmore, ... new girl on our reception desk, because she's so obviously ... loved child, she's got ... proper home. 3. Passing to ... desk he picked up ... key that had already been laid out for him, and coming to ... staircase, started up. 4. It's hard not to be impatient with ... absurdity of ... young. 5. ...

men make ... houses, ... women make ... homes. 6. It was cold in ... room and as she went to shut ... window, she saw ... shadows of ... trees standing like ... sentinels on ... grass, sombre in ... moonlight. 7. ... man is as old as he feels, and ... woman as old as she looks. 8. "If what you think were true, what ... mean, cruel, despicable woman I should be, what ... cad, what ... heartless, vulgar beast! Is that what you think I am?" 9. Now and then he revised his lectures and issued them in ... neat little books. 10. Inside ... drawer, ... diary was open. She had not left it so. For ... moment she stood there, staring at it. Then slowly, she lifted it out. ... book fell to ... floor and ... pages crumpled. 11. When they came downstairs again, ... others were standing in ... group, shivering ... little, though ... night was not cold. 12. ... little crowd that had assembled when they realized that something was going on stood at ... respectable distance. 13. She was ... dark, elegant alert girl in black, with ... high collar and ... very quick eyes. 14. Pretty soon I reached in my pocket for ... cigarettes and began to smoke. 15. He and his wife lived in ... modern bungalow on ... outskirts of ... city with no near neighbours. 16. She put on again ... brown coat and skirt in which she has come to ... theatre and ... same hat. 17. All I learned was that Mrs Driffield was ... excellent housekeeper and had ... conscientious maid. 18. Massingham was ... produce of ... sound, upper-middle-class family — ... doctor or ... solicitor, perhaps — and of ... old established grammar school.

Exercise 14. Supply the required articles, paying attention to abstract nouns.

1. ... poverty and ... beauty certainly made up ... affecting combination. 2. Four pairs of ... eyes were on him, black with ... suspicion and accusation. 3. There was ... silence in ... room. Everybody was looking, covertly, or openly, at Emily Brent. It was ... minute or two before she became aware of ... expectation. 4. ... crown of ... literature is ... poetry. 5. ... unemployment was as bad in East Anglia as it was elsewhere. 6. She was fighting down ... rising feeling of ... panic. 7. ... indifference with which he spoke seemed ... little callous to her. 8. ... sudden felling of ... lassitude, of ... intense weariness, spread over Vera's limbs. 9. She was not ... jealous woman and it was not precisely ... jealousy that she felt, but rather ... sense of ... exclusion. 10. He began to wonder whether he could ever make ... psychology so absolute ... science that each little spring of ... life would be revealed to us. 11. There was ... moment's pause and then Emily Brent spoke with ... decision. 12. ... slight feeling of ... uneasiness came over her. 13. Mary thought: "I've been left behind," and felt ... resentment of ... child when it is left out of ... game. 14. ... darkness closed in upon them. 15. Neither his words nor his tone betrayed ... impatience. 16. ... haste makes ... waste.

Exercise 15. Supply the required articles for abstract nouns modified by attributes.

1. Then Guy in ... deep and bitter reflection buried has face in his hands. 2. There was ... real distaste in his face, and yet it was ... face of ... coarse and sensual man. 3. ... English medieval literature is ... part of ... English literature as ... whole and, at ... same time ... part of ... European medieval literature. 4. With ... superciliousness of ... extreme youth, I put thirty five as ... utmost limit at which ... man might fall in love without making ... fool of himself. 5. His voice was conciliatory, almost caressing, and there was ... loving kindness in his eyes. 6. May felt that it was ... false kindness to keep ... truth from him. 7. All his emotions were exhausted, drained to ... state of ... dry fatigue. 8. That is perhaps ... most important fact of ... late medieval architecture in England. 9. I was suffering from ... bitter mortification. 10. These poems seem to me unmistakably ... final poems in ... English of ... great oral tradition of ... Northern European alliterative poetry. 11. ... despair of his screams made ... Colonel turn towards him. 12. He moved with ... nimbleness and airiness that were miraculous. 13. Her immediate reaction was one of ... intense irritation. 14. That must be ... story of ... innumerable couples, and ... pattern of ... life it offers has ... homely grace. 15. There was ... real passion in his voice, and in spite of myself I was impressed. 16. His mouth fell open and he stared at her in ... startled amazement. 17. When Hillier talked of Rosie in front of her, she listened to him with ... smiling gravity. 18. One should not approach ... reading of ... medieval English literature with ... confidence unless one is already fairly experienced in ... reading of ... more modern English literature. 19. During ... past few years, Mr. Boggis had achieved ... considerable fame among his friends in ... trade by his ability to produce unusual and quite often rare objects with ... astonishing regularity. 20. She smiled, and her eyes shone with ... malice I knew already. 21. She was conscious only of ... supreme terror. 22. ... relief possessed Vera — ... enormous, exquisite relief. 23. He asked for their advice with ... humility that was touching and promised to act upon it with ... sincerity that was impressive.

Exercise 16. Supply the required articles, paying special attention to abstract nouns that do not admit of the indefinite article.

1. In ... warm weather I spent most of ... afternoon reading out in ... garden. 2. What's ... news? 3. I'm not ... man to give you advice. 4. Uncle Nick made me feel that we had ... tremendous work to do. 5. It would be impossible to get ... permission while he was still in ... Army. 6. "Miss Dora, I've got ... bad news for you," he said. 7. ... splendid work these young scientists do, splendid. 8. "... bad news?

Did you say you had had ... bad news?" 9. I wrote him asking ... permission to use his place. 10. At first I found it difficult to understand ... English money. 11. One can't give ... advice in ... case like this, old boy. 12. He had lost ... work that he loved, his friends and his child. 13. Here there was ... real work for him to do. 14. I have asked you here partly to amuse myself but also to give you ... good advice. 15. It is ... such weary, weary work! 16. ... such weather makes everything and everybody disgusting. 17. It would be ... fun for George to be ... Governor and for her to be ... Governor's wife. 18. "Congratulations. That was ... very smart work altogether," he said. 19. ... birds do not like this sort of ... weather. 20. Your friend is ... great fun. 21. Perhaps you will be good enough, then, to give me ... information on which I can act. 22. ... weather was pleasant, ... country attractive, and he was ready for ... little change. 23. They have all ... information about it at ... Foreign Office. 24. He was delighted with ... permission.

Exercise 17. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with abstract nouns.

1. Девушка с жалостью посмотрела на нищего. 2. Жизнь этого человека полна приключений. 3. Нужно знать историю страны, язык которой изучаешь. 4. Это была скучная, однообразная работа. 5. Совет хороший, но сможешь ли ты им воспользоваться? 6. Какие новости? 7. Вы слышали последнюю новость? 8. Я принес вам плохую новость. 9. Какая неожиданная новость! 10. Давайте поговорим лучше о погоде. 11. Я не люблю такую холодную и ветреную погоду. 12. Вчера была такая скверная погода! 13. Они молча шли по дороге. 14. Он взглянул на незнакомца с нескрываемым удивлением. 15. Она вбежала в комнату в сильном волнении. 16. Доброта этой женщины безгранична. 17. Он критик. Его специальность — современная русская поэзия. 18. Сказки древнего Китая полны поэзии и юмора. 19. Говорят, у него хорошая работа на Севере. 20. Мы не можем уехать из города из-за работы. 21. Работа, которую ему предложили, была скучной и однообразной. 22. Я очень люблю английскую литературу. 23. Он попросил разрешения прочитать письмо. 24. Она хорошо знает голландскую живопись XVI века. 25. Позвони Джону, он наверняка даст тебе хороший совет. 26. После долгого молчания он начал свой рассказ. 27. Она издала вздох облегчения. 28. Он обладал терпением, которое поражало его друзей. 29. Спокойствие этого человека в такой драматической ситуации потрясло меня. 30. Он знает, что такое разочарование. 31. Страх, который я увидел в его глазах, удивил меня. 32. Я должна спросить разрешения пойти туда. 33. Какое удовольствие вновь видеть вас! 34. В ее глазах он увидел лишь презрение. 35. Он говорил с чув-

ством; его голос дрожал. 36. Волнение, которое он испытывал, было невозможно объяснить. 37. Современная музыка оставляла ее равнодушной. 38. Кто читает вам лекции по зарубежной литературе? 39. Он был беден и не мог дать сыну хорошее образование. 40. Он достиг больших успехов за последнее время.

Exercise 18. Supply the required articles, paying attention to non-count concrete nouns (names of material).

1. ... large bed was of ... brass, high and ornate with four great knobs, large as ... polished cannon-balls, at ... corners. 2. She has made a pot of coffee, and then, after ... hour, ... cold snack of ... beef and ... pickles, ... bread and ... butter; her hands were ... little moist with ... excitement. 3. In her bedroom, Emily Brent, dressed in ... black silk ready for dinner, was reading her Bible. 4. At eight twenty he came down to ... kitchen for his breakfast, smelling of ... shaving soap and ... shoe polish. 5. ... doctor strode to ... table where ... drinks were — he removed ... stopper from ... whiskey and smelt and tasted it. Then he tasted ... soda water. 6. I was eating ... bread that Rosana had brought up to my room. 7. How big ... sea was! From here there was no land to be seen anywhere — just ... vast expanse of ... blue water rippling in ... evening sun. 8. ... mantelpiece was bare of ... ornaments save for ... enormous block of ... white marble shaped like ... bear, ... piece of ... modern sculpture in which was inset ... clock. 9. She was still warm with ... memory of Milly's pancakes which had dripped with ... butter, and of ... coffee which had been served with ... cream. 10. She would go to her room and bathe her aching head and temples in ... cold water. 11. In ... larder they had found ... great store of ... tinned goods. They had opened ... tin of ... tongue and two tins of fruit. 12. She wore a dress of ... fine fawn wool, topped with ... elaborately patterned, short-sleeved tabard, and ... short-laced boots. 13. He was covered in ... fresh snow, his thin cheeks pink and flushed. 14. She hurried in again and found ... water almost boiled away. 15. ... sun warmed her forehead and dried ... drops of ... moisture from her cheeks. 16. She did not answer, but her face was hard and pale as ... stone. 17. They each had ... whiskey and ... soda and ... cigarette and looked at each other with ... fond eyes. 18. I sat down in ... shabby little armchair covered with ... maroon leather.

Exercise 19. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with non-count concrete nouns (nouns of material).

1. Вода в реке была холодная и прозрачная. 2. Подлей воды в суп, он слишком густой. 3. Он попросил стакан воды. 4. Снег был

очень глубокий. 5. Он побелел, как снег. 6. Я люблю чай, а мама предпочитает кофе. 7. Чай был горячий и крепкий. 8. Вино слишком кислое. 9. Некоторые люди едят мороженое на улице даже зимой. 10. Купи ребенку мороженое. 11. Пока вы разговаривали, мороженое растаяло. 12. Передай мне хлеб, пожалуйста. 13. Мясо было совсем холодное. 14. Принеси мне молоко из кухни, пожалуйста. 15. На ней было великолепное платье из белого атласа. 16. Бабушка принесла молоко и булочку. Молоко было свежее и холодное. 17. Портфель мал, но кожа хорошая. 18. Я сама связала эти носки из толстой серой шерсти. 19. Эта страна богата нефтью. 20. Закрой окно, воздух слишком холодный.

Exercise 20. Supply the required articles, paying attention to predicative and appositive nouns.

1. I'm not strong enough to suppress them. I'm too weak. I'm not ... man enough. 2. She was still standing at ... door, ... thin figure silhouetted against ... light. 3. "They are ... most disreputable people," said my uncle. 4. Ted Rocklex, ... father of ... girls, had four daughters and no son. 5. ... cottage, ... low building of ... brick and with ... white wood-cladded top and sails of ... windmill visible behind, was separated from ... road by ... wide ditch. 6. He looked thin, and yellow as ... guinea, and he had turned ... miser. 7. He was ... only son of ... civil servant who after being ... Colonial Secretary for many years in Hong Kong ended his career as ... Governor of Jamaica. 8. Annette was ... cook, ... housekeeper, and ... housemaid. 9. Newton, ... famous philosopher, was sometimes engaged in working out ... difficult problems, which occupied his mind so much that he became forgetful of everything else. 10. I'm going to be ... president of ... company. 11. Her voice, high, rather monotonous, ... voice of ... small girl, suggested that it was not ... matter of much concern to her. 12. Henry Greene was ... son of ... general. 13. Then he walked along Broadway, ... main street of ... town. 14. I was ... nursery governess to him. 15. It was ... relief when Stephen Copley, ... Senior Chemist, arrived just before ten, bustling in as usual. 16. His money was ... money I had brought him as my marriage portion. 17. ... waiter was ... old friend of mine, and at that season he was ... boots, ... porter, ... chambermaid and ... cook as well. 18. He was ... judge who sentenced Seton. 19. I was ... fool enough to ask her to live here still, and direct ... affairs of ... house for me. 20. His clothes are not ... clothes, nor his anxious wife ... wife of ... professional man.

Exercise 21. Supply the required articles, paying attention to set expressions.

1. After she had ... leisurely dinner downstairs, Julia played ... piano for ... while. 2. ... transport must come by ... sea to Plymouth. 3. He

knew Marion Sharpe by ... sight as he knew everyone in Milford. 4. I came across ... book in ... question quite by ... chance. 5. He went to ... rotten log near at ... hand and began to dig under one end of it with his knife. 6. I saw ... good deal of him during ... war. 7. She's taken quite ... fancy to you, Ridgeon. 8. You will go to ... sea and forget all about me in ... month. 9. ... rain had stopped, and we went on ... foot to Ebury Street. 10. What did her education and her accomplishments amount to? She could keep ... house. 11. She burned like ... fire from ... head to ... foot. 12. I think we ought to get in ... touch with his wife. 13. I'm afraid he'll take it very much to ... heart. 14. It was done in ... hurry, and I had no time to finish it. 15. She was continually at ... loss for words. 16. He had to make ... best of ... bad job. 17. Sometimes when we were sitting ... side by ... side in ... music hall, I looked at her face. 18. What about your landlady? I don't want to get you into ... trouble. 19. Mrs Barton Trafford had ... passion for ... literature too sincere to allow ... setback of this character long to discourage her. 20. And all this happened in ... twinkling of ... eye. 21. He was chronically in ... debt. 22. Even ... tradespeople, however, gave ... faint sigh of ... relief when September came to ... end and Black-stable sank back into its usual peace. 23. She was in ... rage. This was ... last straw. 24. She stood up as if signifying that ... interview was at ... end. 25. It was true that he had never had any but ... commonplace thought; on ... other hand, he never had ... shameful one. 26. We've had some tea already on ... board ... yacht.

Exercise 22. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles in set expressions.

1. Услышав мой ответ, она пришла в бешенство. 2. Вдали мы увидели огни селения. 3. Экзамен подходил к концу. 4. Я уже собирался выйти из дома, когда зазвонил телефон. 5. Кто занимается хозяйством в вашей семье? 6. Во время шторма капитан находился на палубе. 7. Юный Дэвид сбежал из дома в 16 лет и стал моряком. 8. По правде говоря, мне очень не хочется идти к Петровым сегодня. 9. С одной стороны, герундий имеет глагольную природу; с другой стороны, он проявляет именные характеристики. 10. Мы часто вспоминаем, как раньше ездили на машине на юг, к морю. 11. Ты был слишком груб с ним; по-моему, он обиделся. 12. Врач осмотрел больного и велел ему соблюдать постельный режим по крайней мере еще неделю. 13. Мы очень хорошо провели время у друзей за городом. 14. Представь себе, он даже не потрудился проводить меня домой! 15. Вы верите в любовь с первого взгляда? 16. Нужно положить конец этим бесконечным спорам. 17. Казалось, девушка была в замешательстве. 18. Об этом не может быть и речи, он придет в бешенство, если его побеспокоить сейчас.

Exercise 23. Supply the required articles, paying attention to the names of seasons.

1. It was ... fine day, early in ... spring, and we were in ... good humour. 2. As ... autumn passed, I saw ... good deal of Charles and Ann together. 3. ... garden was quiet with ... winter, ... grass shone emerald in ... sunlight, ... branches of ... trees had not begun to thicken. 4. Julia enjoyed... happy autumn. ... play they put on was ... success. 5. During ... winter I had heard ... rumour that she was abroad. 6. Though there was ... east wind blowing, ... sky was blue and there was ... feeling of ... spring in ... air. 7. ... spring drifted imperceptibly into ... early summer, and I was still painting ... house. 8. Quite early in ... autumn he began visiting us two or three times each week. 9. In ... summer of 1907 I was living in ... little cottage in ... country, at ... small distance from ... sea. 10. In March came ... first break in ... winter. 11. It was ... bright Sunday morning of ... early summer, promising ... heat, but with ... fresh wind blowing. 12. Through ... autumn, ... busy time for me, I was often uneasy. 13. ... winter and ... summer, ... stove was burning in his room. 14. It was ... cold fall and ... wind came down from ... mountains. 15. "... autumn!" muttered Troy. "And back to work again."

Exercise 24. Supply the required articles, paying attention to the names of parts of the day.

1. It was ... beautiful day, clean, warm and sunny. 2. In ... morning Thompson appeared as usual. 3. He would have to spend all ... week working, and do his swimming on ... crowded Sunday afternoons in ... municipal baths that stank of ... chlorine. 4. Philip Lombard had ... habit of walking at ... daybreak. 5. When ... afternoon came, she did not go out to work, because she could not leave without her pitiful duty unfulfilled. 6. They spent ... morning on ... cliffs, taking it in turns to flash ... mirror at ... mainland. 7. "We've spent such ... marvellous afternoon!" she cried. 8. By now it was ... midday and with ... miraculous swiftness ... shore began to empty itself of people. 9. The signals were seen by ... party of ... boy scouts on ... morning of ... eleventh. 10. "When did you get in?" — "... yesterday morning." 11. It was ... night. ... sea was smooth as ... glass. 12. There was no one else on ... beach so late in ... afternoon. 13. ... Friday morning at ... breakfast I found ... five-dollar bill folded up in my napkin. 14. On ... day of her mother's funeral it had been blowing ... gale, with ... sleet. 15. ... day was muggy and overcast. 16. I felt soggy ... next day. 17. ... rain had ceased and ... night was starry.

Exercise 25. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with the names of parts of the day.

1. Вечером он пошел в кино. 2. Был ясный теплый вечер.
3. Том провел вечер дома в полном одиночестве. 4. На следующее

утро снова шел дождь. 5. Лето было сухое и жаркое. 6. Затем настал день, когда мне нужно было возвращаться в Лондон. 7. Он вернулся поздно ночью. 8. На следующий вечер, за час до ужина, я снова услышала чьи-то тяжелые шаги на лестнице. 9. День был солнечный, но холодный. 10. Была ночь, все спали. 11. Был теплый летний вечер. 12. Наконец наступило лето. 13. Мальчик боялся провести ночь в лесу. 14. Было раннее утро. 15. Мой брат приходит перекусить в полдень. 16. Был поздний вечер. 17. На следующее утро мы отправились на станцию очень рано, еще до рассвета. 18. Была зима. 19. «Доброе утро», — сказал он. — «Какое чудесное утро!» 20. Он приехал в Париж солнечным июньским днем. 21. Когда я проснулась, все еще была ночь. 22. Был ужасный день, темный и холодный. 23. На рассвете Том тихо выскользнул из дома. 24. Я никогда не забуду тот день, когда я впервые увидел вас.

Exercise 26. Supply the required article, paying attention to the names of meals.

1. She was sitting on ... verandah waiting for her husband to come in for ... luncheon. 2. Whistling I went down to ... breakfast. 3. We had ... lunch late that day, almost two-thirty in ... afternoon. 4. I tried going to bed immediately after ... dinner, but I couldn't sleep. 5. I parked in ... front of ... restaurant near ... road and went in for ... cold lunch. 6. ... breakfast will be ready in half ... hour or so. 7. Everything is ready, isn't it? We'll take ... breakfast in. 8. All we had was ... quiet, simple, innocent dinner. 9. ... dinner was drawing to ... end. ... food had been good, ... wine perfect. 10. ... dinner was good, and plentiful. 11. I gave them ... wedding dinner. I cooked it with my own hands. 12. I think, Mrs Chester, I'll go home and not stay for ... dinner after all. 13. Mary-Ann was putting ... supper on ... tray to take it into ... dining room. 14. Before we were half-way through ... breakfast, ... door flew open and Japp rushed in. 15. Tom and Roger came back to eat ... enormous tea and then played tennis till ... light failed. After ... dinner they played ... dominoes.

Exercise 27. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with the names of meals.

1. Она согласилась поужинать со мной в субботу. 2. Мы сами узнали об этом только за ужином. 3. После завтрака он вышел из-за стола и закурил сигарету. 4. За ленчом Мэри сообщила мне очень плохую новость. 5. Я вернусь к чаю. 6. К обеду никто не придет, можешь не торопиться. 7. Обед еще не готов. 8. Стол был накрыт к чаю. 9. После обеда все пришли пить кофе в библиотеку. 10. Завтрак подан. 11. Обед начался в молчании. 12. Вы по-

мните обед на котором познакомились с Джоном? 13. Завтрак был легким, но очень вкусным. 14. Благодарю вас за такой замечательный ужин. 15. В восемь часов служанка подала ей завтрак в постель.

Exercise 28. Supply the required articles, paying attention to the nouns *SCHOOL*, *PRISON*, *BED*, *TOWN*, and *HOSPITAL*.

I. 1. After leaving ... school, I became ... clerk to his father. 2. He went to ... school to speak to ... headmaster about his son. 3. Demoyte was ... former headmaster, now retired, but still living in his large house near ... school. 4. When ... scandal was over, he would start ... school of his own. 5. Felicity certainly wants to leave ... school. 6. ... school was not ... particularly good one. 7. At ... odd moments he glanced back on those wonderful two weeks before ... school began.

II. 1. In ... few minutes she went to ... bed. 2. He sat up in ... bed and saw it was just ... daylight. 3. He sat down on ... bed and told me ... story again. 4. Then he found out that he could not stay in ... bed. 5. I sat on ... edge of ... bed in pyjamas, shivering. 6. Then, locking and bolting ... door, he prepared for ... bed.

III. 1. Landor got ... penal servitude and died in ... prison. 2. ... prison where Little Dorrit was born was called "The Marshala". 3. I never knew ... lawyer yet who didn't threaten to put me in ... prison sooner or later. 4. Steger next visited ... country jail, close to five o'clock, when it was already dark. 5. If he's found guilty of ... murder, ... judge will pass the statutory penalty, imprisonment for life. That means that he'll be in ... prison for ... long time, perhaps ten years or more.

IV. 1. I must get back to ... town after ... dinner. 2. They lived in ... same part of ... town. 3. How long have you been in ... town? 4. To him it was inconceivable that ... intelligent man should be happy in ... provincial town. 5. Dolores said nothing all ... way to ... town. 6. Blairhill was ... ancient town with ... winding alleys and ... old market place. 7. She drove up to ... town with ... rage in her heart. 8. My Aunt Milly was well known all over ... town. 9. I'm going to be out of ... town for ... few days.

V. 1. She told me that for ... while she had worked in ... hospital. 2. He's in ... hospital with ... couple of ... ribs and ... shoulder cracked. 3. After ... lunch Dr Kaily went off to ... hospital. 4. They had ... hospital in ... town during ... war. 5. Now he could safely make his own exit, preserving at ... same time ... high reputation of ... hospital. 6. Doctor Huger is ... best man for you but he's now at ... hospital doing ... emergency operation. 7. He is in ... hospital and his condition is reported as being serious. 8. My brother admitted that ... hospital to which Uncle Nick had been taken was ... lunatic asylum.

Exercise 29. Supply the required articles, paying special attention to their place.

1. I could not believe that anyone would make as ... expensive ... present as that from pure ... friendship. 2. It was ... too great ... shock to be borne with ... calmness, and she immediately left ... room. 3. His memory was good and for ... so young ... man he had read largely. 4. She thought again how ... strange ... freak of ... nature was this man. 5. ... love now seemed ... so little ... thing, seemed to have lost ... warmth and ... power. 6. She was surprised to discover that she could be made so furiously angry by ... so small ... thing. 7. I did not envisage ... so world-shaking ... catastrophe as this when I saw Edward hurrying toward me, but it immediately occurred to me that something untoward was afoot. 8. It's ... as good ... place, I suppose, as you could find. 9. ... many ... person had said they wished they had my hair. 10. But he was ... too cautious, ... too suspicious and ... too stubborn ... man to be pleased about it. 11. It was ... quite ... way down to ... main road and then we walked along ... main road for about ... mile and ... half. 12. It struck me ... how inexplicable ... thing was ... bravery. 13. I hope this isn't ... too great ... disappointment to you, Mary. 14. Yes, there they were; only two carts this time, with one horse in ... harness, and less than ... half ... dozen men standing in ... yard. 15. Then he found out that he could not stay in ... bed. He was in ... too great ... agony. 16. I've got ... as great ... respect for him as anyone in ... college. 17. Did you ever see ... such ... delicious pony in your life?

Exercise 30. Supply the required articles, paying attention to personal names.

1. He suddenly recognized ... Mrs Foliot whom they had been talking to at ... lunch. 2. She walked to ... part of ... room where ... puzzled Henry was standing. 3. And the other was ... foreigner, ... Mr Hercule Poirot. 4. "How's ... grandmother's rheumatism?" ... doctor asked. "She's been better lately, but ... Mother's bad now." 5. Mrs Gulliver, was that it? But she didn't remember ... Mrs Gulliver. 6. ... poor Tom saw no harm in repeating those absurd stories. 7. It was ... David Rubin I knew very well. 8. On ... walls of ... dining-room I saw ... charming Belotto, and there was ... pair of ... Zoffany's that I envied. 9. Major Wilby and ... lovely Mabel departed. 10. I felt sure that ... Colonel MacAndrew would not remember me. 11. It would be interesting to learn who had been present when ... fastidious Miss Easterbrook had had her accident with ... tea. 12. There was only one picture, positioned in ... overmantel, but this was ... original, ... early Stanley Spencer showing the Virgin's Assumption. 13. "Very well, ... Papa," said ... obedient Milly. 14. She climbed ... stairs and walked

with ... completely silent Katherine down ... corridor. 15. To have ... early breakfast was unbefitting for ... Blair. 16. ... Uncle Nick began teaching me ... mathematics and I spent ... hour every day with him. 17. When ... dear old Mrs Hay went back to ... town after staying with ... Burnells, she sent ... children ... doll's house. 18. There was ... man in ... back yard of ... next house doing something to one of ... front wheels of ... old Ford. 19. One day he was taken by ... friend to ... party given by ... certain Mrs Lambeth, ... rich banker's widow. 20. ... Dennorants were ... unassuming young couple to whom it had never occurred that their rank could impress anyone. 21. "It sounds most tempting," remarked ... polite Lanny. 22. Perhaps, Jan thought, it all seems lovelier than it has ever seemed because I've seen ... new Bart today, ... Bart whose tenderness has quenched his passion. 23. At that moment they were interrupted by ... gentle Mrs Shobbe.

Exercise 31. Supply the required articles, paying attention to geographical names.

1. He has been out in ... West Africa for ... past few years. 2. You have lately returned from ... east, I understand? 3. His ship nearly sank in ... Pacific. 4. ... Alps are ... high mountains in ... Switzerland, ... Italy, ... France and ... Austria. 5. He had pronounced views on what ... United States was doing for ... world. 6. His scheme was to reach ... sea and then get ... fisherman to take them across ... Channel. 7. He said it is ... story of ... writer who goes on ... voyage to ... South Seas. 8. He loved ... past, ... old music and ... dances of ... old England. 9. They stood for some time, talking in ... quiet tones, comparing ... Thames with ... Seine. 10. As ... man of ... means from ... South Africa, Mr Blore felt that he could enter into any Society unchallenged. 11. It was not ... Paris that he had accepted thirty years ago as his spiritual home. 12. Strickland's idea was to ship on some vessel bound for ... Australia or ... New Zealand, and from there make his way to ... Samoa or ... Tahiti. 13. She herself was returning from ... south of ... France. 14. I do not know how he had come upon ... notion of going to ... South Seas. 15. I came back from ... Paris on ... morning of ... fifteenth. 16. Mr Roberts sipped ... cup of ... coffee and looked out over ... Lake of ... Geneva. 17. Both ... Captain Nichols and Strickland were bound ... East, and it chanced that ... only opportunities for signing on were with ... ships sailing ... West. 18. ... county town of ... Yorkshire is ... York, ... beautiful town on ... River Ouse. 19. In ... heart of ... England, about 112 miles ... north-west of London, is Birmingham, ... city with over ... million inhabitants. 20. Do you remember ... panorama of ... Sahara Desert? 21. You haven't come back to ... very cheerful England. 22. ... Hague is ... seat of ... Government of ... Netherlands. 23. ... Argentina is ... second largest country in ... South America. 24. ... weather over ... Baltic was said to be worsening ev-

ery hour. 25. I had not been in ... Tahiti long before I met ... Captain Nichols. 26. ... Asia Minor is ... part of ... Asia between ... Black Sea and ... Mediterranean Sea.

Exercise 32. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of articles with geographical names.

1. Португалия — небольшая страна в западной части Пиренейского полуострова, на побережье Атлантического океана. 2. На севере Африки расположена Сахара, величайшая пустыня мира. 3. Что вы знаете о Памире? 4. В мае 1858 года экспедиция Ливингстона прибыла в Восточную Африку. 5. Озеро Байкал, расположенное в глубокой впадине среди высоких гор, производит большое впечатление. Байкал очень глубок. 6. Прощай весной я вместе с дочерью отправился на машине из Москвы в Крым. 7. Тайга Восточной Сибири не похожа на леса Ленинградской или Вологодской области, а леса Кавказа не похожи на леса Дальнего Востока. 8. Болгария — преимущественно горная страна. 9. Много прозвищ имеет Миссисипи, крупнейшая река Северной Америки. 10. Мыс Доброй Надежды так далеко вдается в океан, что издали кажется островом. 11. Соединенное королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии расположено у северо-западного побережья Европы на Британских островах. 12. Сити — финансовый и деловой центр Лондона. 13. Ист-Энд начинается за мостом Ватерлоо. 14. К Вест-Энду примыкают крупнейшие парки Лондона: Гайд-Парк и Кенсигтон-Парк.

Exercise 33. Supply the required articles, paying attention to miscellaneous proper nouns.

1. ... public houses were friendly and informal, hardly more important than ... cottages, and on ... porches often ... honeysuckle would be growing. ... names they bore were usual and familiar: "... Jolly Sailor", "... Merry Ploughman", "... Crown" and "... Anchor", "... Red Lion". 2. She arrived in ... Paris in ... afternoon, and when she was shown into her suite at ... Ritz, she gave ... sigh of ... satisfaction. 3. "Here, have ... *Evening News*, said Demoyte, taking it from ... table. 4. ... clock in ... City struck some hour. ... other clocks followed. 5. In ... Watering Place landscape at ... Tate we find ... shadows that belong rather to ... impressionists of ... next century than to ... matter-of-fact eighteenth. 6. ... University of St Andrews in ... Scotland has four colleges. 7. ... pub was called ... Plough, I saw that from ... illuminated sign outside. 8. He had applied for this assistantship in ... answer to ... advertisement in ... *Lancet*. 9. ... National Gallery is in ... Trafalgar Square. 10. High in ... air ... Eiffel Tower cast out ... revolving beam. 11. Two years ago, he left ... University of ... Bristol determined to do his duty. 12. We had

looked upon it then as ... extravagance to dine in ... shabby Italian restaurant in ... Westminster Bridge Road. 13. Two of ... most active clubs are ... Reform and ... Travellers, next to each other in ... Pall Mall — ... haunt of ... Treasury and ... Foreign Office, respectively. 14. She told him that Barton Trafford was reflecting on ... possibility of writing ... important article on him for ... *Quarterly Review*. 15. I rented ... flat overlooking ... Hyde Park. 16. We set off in ... direction of ... General Post Office. 17. In ... New College and ... Magdalen at ... Oxford ... students are still housed in ... old buildings erected in ... 16th century; at ... Christ Church I was shown ... kitchen which had been built at ... expense of ... Cardinal Wolsey in 1527. 18. I spent ... long hours in ... Louvre, ... most friendly of all ... galleries and ... most convenient for ... meditation. 19. They dined at ... Savoy. 20. ... "Friedrich Weber" was ... freighter sailing from ... Hamburg to ... Colombo. 21. Alroy Kear and I, as arranged, met on ... Friday at ... Victoria Station. 22. London passed before me. ... Piccadilly, ... Shaftesbury Avenue, ... New Oxford Street... 23. ... next morning it was cold and clear, and I walked down ... High Street toward ... vicarage. I recognized ... names over ... shops, ... Kentish names that have been borne for ... centuries — ... Ganns, ... Kemps, ... Cobbs, ... Igguldens — but I saw no one I knew. 24. There's ... good film at ... Regal Cinema this week. 25. "There's ... hotel there, yes?" "Two," said Victor Astwell, "... Golf Hotel up by ... links and ... Mitre down by ... station."

Exercise 34. Supply the required articles.

I. One morning, in ... fall of 1880, ... middle-aged woman accompanied by ... young girl of eighteen, presented herself at ... clerk's desk of ... principal hotel in ... Columbus, ... Ohio, and made ... inquiry as to whether there was anything about ... place that she could do.

II. Something in ... stillness with which he listened to her made her give ... glance through her eyelashes. There was ... curious expression in his eyes. It was as if he were gravely listening to ... sound that came from ... long way off.

III. While ... Lord Henry sat dreaming on these things, ... knock came to door, and his valet entered, and reminded him it was time to dress for ... dinner. He got up and looked into ... street. ... sun had smitten into ... scarlet gold ... upper windows of ... houses opposite. ... panes glowed like ... plates of ... heated metal. ... sky above was like ... faded rose.

IV. He made no more friends at ... new school than he had at ... old, but it was ... small quiet place with ... teacher for every ten boys and so rigidly disciplined that there was no fighting or bullying. ... students who wished to be left alone were permitted to go their own way as long as they kept their marks up to ... respectable standard and broke none of ... school rules.

What ... Michael's mother had not realized was that adjoining ... school grounds there was ... hill with ... tow to which ... entire school body was led by ... physical education teachers four times ... week to ski. For ... first time in his life, Michael began to feel ... exhilaration of ... grace and ... speed and soon became ... so daring ... skier he had to be warned ... time and ... time again to slow down. When ... coach of ... school team suggested that he write ... letter to ... Michael's mother explaining that Michael could become ... star of ... team, Michael shook his head obdurately and forbade him to communicate with his mother.

V. It was almost dark, ... Porsche humming along like ... jewelled clock, when he reached what he recognized as ... approach to Green Hollow. ... car radio was turned on and ... symphony orchestra somewhere in ... New England was playing "... Ride of ... Valkyries". He pressed down on ... accelerator, smiling. ... good old Wagner, he thought, he wrote ... automobile music before they ever invented ... automobile. He was going eighty-five miles ... hour when he saw ... flashing lights of ... police car, but then he would have to go right through ... town of Green Hollow and not come back, so he slowed down, like ... respectable citizen. When ... police car came up close, its siren wailing, he pulled over to ... side of ... road.

3. PRONOUNS

Exercise 1. Fill in the blanks with **SOME** or **ANY**.

1. She had ... children of her own family in her house, and ... children of other people.
2. I do not want ... money.
3. He sat there, like ... unhappy little animal.
4. A few had gone beyond the gate. ... were shouting hoarsely.
5. "Do you want ... water?" — "No, I do not want ... water."
6. The wounded were coming into the post, ... were carried on stretchers, ... were walking and were brought on the backs of men that came across the field.
7. In the town there were ... new hospitals.
8. Well, if you want to know, I have no money, and never had
9. "Couldn't you find tomato sauce, Barto?" — "There was not ...," Aymo said.
10. "Do not let us have ... nonsense about this job!"
11. I do not see that there is ... need for you to say Linnet was married.
12. If I had an affair, and he had discovered it, in ... way he would have revenged himself. He was a vengeful man.
13. He was involved in ... scandal and could not possibly go home.
14. The women were neither young nor old nor of ... particular social class.
15. Certainly it brought more profit than ... conceivable tourist party.
16. I think it is true only to ... extent.
17. ... people enjoy it, ... don't.

18. There is ... sugar in the sugar-basin, but that is not enough. 19. She has hardly ... patience left. 20. The customs man asked if I had ... works of art. 21. The shop is ... 3 miles from the village. 22. Where can I find ... pepper?

Exercise 2. Use *no*-compounds, *no* or *NONE* in the following sentences:

1. The Parsons had been shown one of the letters, but ... had been sent to them. 2. I don't want to go to his exhibition. He is ... artist. 3. ... did anything to help her. 4. I give my custom to five restaurants, one for each day of the working week. ... is expensive, and in ... is the cooking elaborate. 5. There was ... much to do at the party. It couldn't be more boring. 6. She was crossing the street when a car appeared as if from... and she was nearly run over. 7. ... trees grow here since the soil has toxic waste in it. 8. ... of them knew how unhappy she was. 9. The boy is ill-mannered because ... took the trouble to teach him good manners. 10. He had the gift, when talking to anybody, of doing so as if ... other person was in the room. 11. John's is the worst paper. ... else could have made the kind of mistakes he made. 12. The main part was played by ... other than Elizabeth Taylor. 13. "I'd like some more chocolate." — "I'm afraid there is ... left." 14. She had ... of intelligence to speak to. 15. The new leader of the party was clever, but he had ... of the former leader's charisma. 16. ... is the help needed more than in the Third World countries. 17. I wasn't sure what had happened so I asked 18. ... of them came on time and when I arrived at the station, there was ... there. 19. There was ... way out. I knew that ... I could do would save the situation. 20. "Where are the birds? There used to be so many of them in the garden and now I can see ...". 21. Of all the people he asked ... were able to tell him the way.

Exercise 3. Use the appropriate compound pronouns in the following sentences. In some sentences more than one variant can be used.

1. They send the letter to ... who knows you. 2. He never calls me ... but Sue. 3. Now let me ask Who is ... called Cruddle? 4. Jason had told him Cruddle was the greatest living writer or 5. The man is a recluse. He doesn't see 6. Listen to me, there is ... else to discuss. 7. I told her last night that we would do ... about it, but since then ... has occurred to me. 8. The police will make it public, you'll have them round asking questions of 9. You think ... will want to go on a Japanese art tour, people here, in this small town? I doubt it. 10. The expense will be ... to the money wasted on Colin's Far East trip. 11. I've never heard of this shop, but it must be ... in town. 12. "I'll tell you ... , Mrs Smith. I've been on my own for five years." 13. If she could not

use the knowledge, she had paid fifteen pounds for 14. "He was born a swindler, never has been ... else, never will!" 15. "Who can be writing such awful things? ... nowadays is so unwholesome." 16. He suddenly got very angry. All about 17. Derek is the know-all type who doesn't think he needs advice from 18. She gave up John as hopeless, but did not abandon the idea of ... confirming the truth. 19. I think she is ... I used to know, but whenever I call, she is out. 20. She sounded perfectly sober, and ... who knew her less well than Roy would have realized that she was not. 21. I think he would lack the nerve to do ... criminal. 22. The principal suspect had good reasons for murdering almost ... else. 23. "The gun was in the prop box until half an hour ago. ... could have picked it up!" 24. "It must be ...'s stupid joke." 25. "It isn't ... we can just leave and do ... about, don't you agree?" 26. "There is ... I didn't mention." 27. "I suppose you never watch ... except educational and artistic programmes." 28. "Lucy, do you have ... to tell me? About Miss Mead?" 29. "If ... asked 'What is civilization?' I think I'd direct them here." 30. I believe it is quite possible the letters have ... to do with any individual, they are directed ... against the firm.

Exercise 4. Translate into English, using *SOME*, *ANY*, *NONE* or compound pronouns.

1. Ни один из этих спортсменов не получил золотую медаль.
2. Задача очень сложная. Никто не понимает, как ее решать.
3. Кто-нибудь из твоих одноклассников поступил в университет в этом году? — Да, многие.
4. Некоторые из этих вещей слишком дорогие.
5. Я уверен, что в комнату никто не входил. — Вы хотите сказать, никто из тех, кого вы знаете?
6. Выложи конфеты из кулька и предложи часть из них своим гостям.
7. Ну что говорят о новой постановке? Она понравилась кому-нибудь из критиков? — Некоторым да, некоторым нет.
8. Вылей часть молока в кастрюлю и вскипяти.
9. Вы можете что-нибудь предложить? — Боюсь ничего, но я могу спросить совета у некоторых своих друзей.
10. Боже, сколько людей! Вы знаете кого-нибудь из них?
11. Кто-нибудь может мне помочь?
12. Нет ничего лучше этих осенних вечеров.
13. Никто не может прожить жизнь заново.
14. Я одолжил немного денег, но этих денег недостаточно.
15. Нам не о чем говорить с ними.
16. Никто не любит ходить к зубному врачу.
17. Она ушла без каких-либо объяснений.
18. Это ничего не доказывает.
19. Кто-нибудь из вас видел эту пьесу по телевизору?
20. Я думаю, никто этому не поверит.
21. Любой сделал бы то же самое при подобных обстоятельствах.
22. В этой комнате слишком много мебели. Часть нужно продать.
23. Мне нет необходимости что-либо объяснять. Все и так понятно.
24. Это может случиться с каждым.
25. Этот артист не известен никому из нас.

26. Какое вам дать яблоко? — Любое, они все очень красивые.
27. Я думаю, когда-нибудь она пожалеет о том, что произошло.
28. В вазе слишком мало печенья. Надо положить еще. 29. Этот человек никогда ничего не боится. 30. Для меня эта фотография важнее, чем что-либо другое. 31. Если произойдет что-нибудь важное, дай мне знать. 32. У вас не будет немного соли? 33. Очки должны быть где-то здесь. 34. Разве никто из вас не знал, что он приезжает сегодня? 35. Каким-то образом он сумел убедить ее. 36. Нет ничего более неприятного, чем ждать. 37. Я нашел здесь чью-то ручку. — Я думаю, это моя. 38. Я думаю, он сделал эту работу с чьей-то помощью. 39. Вы что-то сказали? 40. Когда-нибудь мы приедем к вам в гости. 41. Я могу закончить работу без чьих-либо советов. 42. Когда бы вы хотели прийти? — Мне подходит любой день. 43. Если бы у вас было хоть немного здравого смысла, вы бы не сделали это. 44. Не нужно думать, что любой человек может сделать это. Тут нужен специалист. 45. Какой-то идиот поставил здесь свою машину. 46. Никогда не разговаривай ни с какими незнакомыми людьми. 47. Больше нигде в мире вы не найдете такого прекрасного моря.

Exercise 5. Use the pronoun *other* in the required form.

1. The first man she met when she came to the party was Jack Smith. ... male guests were a TV executive and the local doctor.
2. He could swing himself from wheelchair to sofa or ... chair, but was unable to walk.
3. Among ... books he glimpsed was *Decline and Fall* by Evelyn Waugh.
4. You say there are ... letters. Who can be sending them, I wonder?
5. ... , and more probable story, was that he had met her when she was a courier for a travel agency.
6. He took bets on horse races, cricket matches and ... events.
7. The letter is identical in style with the one shown me by Uncle Tom, and I suppose with
8. At ... end of the table Mary was telling the story of her marriage.
9. When there was nothing more to be said about weather, the conversation moved to ... subject.
10. He flipped one end of the tie over
11. That is the first unusual event of the day. There are ... worth noting, although most of the day is like ten thousand
12. Friday morning. I face ... busy day. I wash, shave, eat and go out.
13. He had his stick in one hand, his hat in
14. It isn't easy to forget what happened ... night.
15. Yesterday she gave me back only one book and promised to bring ... on Friday.
16. She's had yet ... car accident — that's her third this year.
17. You shouldn't expect ... people to do your work for you.
18. You've missed your chance, now you'll have to wait for ... three weeks.
19. She walked very fast and came to the lake before
20. There was a man waiting on ... side of the street.
21. Can you suggest any ... solution to this problem?
22. The project was favourably received by companies, schools and ... local organizations.
23. I have

found only one slipper, I can't see 24. I doubt if he will grow into ... Byron. 25. You can have two shirts instead of one for just ... five pounds.

Exercise 6. Use appropriate reflexive pronouns where necessary.
Translate into Russian.

1. I think he was never sure 2. I manage to make ... understood somehow. 3. She permitted ... a small smile. 4. Are you enjoying ... here? — Yes, I am enjoying ... all right and I'd like to stay to the end. 5. He was justifying his new and dubious scheme to ... , telling ... that it didn't present any problem. 6. I washed ... and went down to breakfast. 7. You needn't water the plants, I'll do that 8. If they don't drive carefully they'll kill 9. As the man wheeled ... along the passage, she whispered something to Jason. 10. We left the wood and found ... in a big field. 11. She was kindness ... that evening. 12. He is no longer a small boy. It's time he started to behave 13. Derek had the look of somebody enjoying That was familiar to Jason Durling. 14. What I truly need to know is whether your friend is dark or fair, black or white, in the bloom of youth like ... , or just a little antique and rusty the way I am. 15. I'd like to know ... who wrote this report. 16. She couldn't bring ... to ask whether what the letters said was true. 17. He made no resistance but allowed ... to be shaken back and forwards. 18. He is not ... , you know. He said this afternoon that he wished life were like one of those schoolboy books. 19. They think they can look after 20. You know she flatters ... she's got wonderful colour sense. 21. What more could Caroline say? She felt ... quite infuriatingly frustrated. 22. Fear of pain is worse than pain 23. It is silly worrying ... about things which are outside your control. 24. At the table she found ... next to Barry Smith. 25. We find it difficult to acclimatize ... to the new working conditions. 26. The police officer identified ... and asked us to help him. 27. Many women of normal weight feel unable to identify ... with the super-thin models in fashion magazines.

Exercise 7. Translate into English, using reflexive pronouns.

1. Ему не следовало так вести себя с Мэри. 2. Она наверняка ему отомстит. 3. Посмотрите на себя в зеркало. У вас нелепый вид. 4. Вот торт и конфеты. Угощайтесь. Этот торт я пекла сама. 5. Сама лампочка нормальная. Я думаю, не работает выключатель. 6. Она сама донесла чемодан до дома. 7. Сам по себе этот закон неплох. Но вряд ли он станет работать в создавшейся ситуации. 8. Держите пока это открытие при себе. 9. Зачем вы ставите себе невыполнимые задачи? 10. После того, как у нее украли деньги, она оказалась в трудном положении. 11. Ей только три года, а она уже может сама одеваться. 12. Им понравилось вчера в театре? 13. Он

спрашивал себя, где же он мог допустить ошибку. 14. Они сколотили себе состояние на продаже спортивной одежды. 15. Ты же сам не знаешь ответа, почему же ты думаешь, что я должен его знать. 16. Ей надо было вести себя естественно, а не стараться произвести впечатление. 17. В нашем распоряжении целый вечер. 18. Она подумала про себя, что ей не стоило приходить совсем. 19. Он был вне себя от ярости. 20. Надо подарить ему электрическую бритву, он вечно порежется, когда бреется. 21. В том, что случилось, ему не следует винить только себя. 22. Что с ней случилось? Она сама не своя сегодня. 23. Через пять минут он пришел в себя. 24. Позвольте мне ознакомиться с правилами игры. 25. Я не унизусь до того, чтобы просить у него денег. 26. Он заблуждается, если думает, что получит первое место. 27. Если вы мне не верите, можете убедиться сами.

Exercise 7. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of personal pronouns or possessive pronouns (determinative or independent). When possible, give more than one variant. Sometimes the choice is indicated with the slash mark (/).

1. He was very helpful. I could have been in real trouble but for
2. Unlike (*he/him*), she felt the loss of ... parents deeply. 3. He was sure that everybody would give the marriage ... blessing. 4. "It is in everybody's interest." — "Especially in You are a tricky devil."
5. A lovely day like this is no good for making calls. Everybody is out and I can't blame 6. Derek, with one of the stewards beside ... , was bent over a table on which lay a chart of the coaches. 7. I am sure it will be (*she/her*) after all. 8. Wait for Mary and (*I/me*). 9. I would like to have ... own car. 10. I am looking for Mary's hat. Is this black one ... ? 11. (*Him/He*) and (*I/me*) have been close friends for many years. 12. The three of ... can work it out together round a table. 13. Do you think the boy was ... ? 14. Everyone came but She called and said she was ill. 15. Come along with ... fellows tomorrow. 16. Jack, Mark and (*she/her*) can be counted on to support our idea. 17. My brother is taller than 18. This isn't our car. ... is the red one, parked over there. 19. The children should put ... toys in the box. 20. Their eyes met, ... coolly amused, ... dark with dislike. 21. She was as annoyed as (*we/us*), but she didn't show it. 22. Between you and ... there is nothing to that rumour. 23. It was ... who objected. She said it was immoral. 24. I was very happy about it and I hope you were as happy as 25. If anybody objects, let ... think up a better scheme. 26. "What a lovely cat! What's ... name?" 27. "Can you tell me where Doctor Brown's office is?" — "Sorry, I don't know which is ..." 28. My sister and ... both have dogs. ... is five and ... is only two. 29. Somebody has left ... gloves here.

Exercise 8. Use either a possessive pronoun or the definite article in the following sentences:

1. The boy ate the last mouthful of ... cereal and was gone. 2. Carter raised ... eyebrows, opened a file and took out some papers. 3. The man was wounded in ... arm. 4. Caroline turned over the envelope in ... hand, ... manner that of a cat given an unexpected saucer of cream. 5. The little man turned, clapped a hand to ... forehead. "It is not in here, but by God, it was on the tip of ... tongue and now it's gone." 6. She was the only person who called him by ... first name. 7. I can't make up ... mind, shall I marry him? 8. The rehearsal on Wednesday evening had wound through ... course, and by ten-thirty had reached the last scene. 9. A man grabbed her by ... hand as she was walking in the park. 10. When he gave ... dogmatic documentary-producer's smile, ... face looked rather like that in a distorting mirror. 11. She nodded ... neat head, but said little. 12. Antique shops proliferate, showing in ... windows no more than a couple of chairs and an elegant table. 13. She took the boy by ... hand and led him across the street. 14. He still kept a photograph of her beside ... bed. 15. She combed ... hair and went to the kitchen to cook breakfast. 16. He was hit on ... head with a cricket ball. 17. What did she give you for ... birthday?

Exercise 9. Choose the correct form of the verb.

1. Neither of you (*is/are*) right. 2. One of these books (*is/are*) mine. 3. All of us (*was/were*) responsible. 4. All of the milk (*was/were*) drunk. 5. Some of them (*have/had*) refused. 6. (*Does/do*) any of them agree with you? 7. Neither you nor she (*is/are*) wrong. 8. I, who (*have/has*) no such ambitions, will write no more. 9. It (*was/were*) them who finally managed to persuade him. 10. Everybody (*have/has*) their dream. 11. None of them (*want/wants*) to discuss that. 12. Either of the two sisters (*is/are*) able to help you.

Exercise 10. Use the pronoun *ONE* in the appropriate form. Translate into Russian.

1. It was generally agreed that ... need not be obtrusively conspicuous to ... neighbour. 2. She lowered her voice in the manner of ... letting him into a secret. 3. He thought what a pity it was that ... could not choose ... clients. 4. The author gathers the suspects together and switches suspicion from ... to another. 5. "I need another whisky." — "Pour me ... too." 6. "Do you know what I miss here? Somebody ... can talk to." 7. We have much better museums here. ... you've been to aren't the best. 8. Let's make a copy for everybody in the office and a few extra ... for the visitors. 9. "Which of the men is

John?" — "... with a moustache." 10. The gardens were open to the public only on special occasions. The celebration to be held in May was doubtless such

Exercise 11. Use *ALL*, *EVERY*, *EACH* or *BOTH* in the following sentences:

1. There were two male guests. ... were accompanied by wives.
2. They ... say much the same thing. 3. Not ... Headfield residents liked the local theatre. 4. He took three pamphlets, ... with decorative lettering on the cover. 5. They supported it and were ... to be seen on the boards. 6. We ask ... our friends to do the same. 7. He paid attention to the food, concentrating on ... separate piece of salmon.
8. She knows it's ... rubbish. 9. She has ... reason to be sad. 10. When you run, ... foot leaves the ground before the other comes down.
11. Why do ... the work when you can get somebody else to do it for you? 12. "Jason, lovely to see you." Sandy gave Jason ... her hands.
13. There were small lamps with dark green shades on ... table. 14. He came home for lunch ... day. 15. If you ... think so, it will be good that you ... come.
16. — I am in love with Colin. — How does he feel about it? — The same way. — Hurrah for you 17. I packed my clothes, together with ... the notes I had made over the ten years.
18. ... of the three houses has a garage. 19. The committee meet ... other Tuesday.
20. Most of the streets are terrace houses, and they are ... very similar.
21. Apparently several letters have been sent, ... saying much the same thing. 22. ... his parents were teachers.

4. NUMERALS

Exercise 1. Paraphrase the following sentences. Begin as shown.

Example:

Our journey lasted three days. It was a

⇒ *It was a three-day journey.*

1. The boys were 16 years old. *They were* 2. The novel has 300 pages. *It is a* 3. They walked for five miles. *It was a* 4. The can holds three litres. *It is a* 5. The strike lasted ten days. *It was a* 6. The girls are fifteen years old. *They are* 7. The flight lasted two hours. *It was a* 8. The house had three storeys. *It was a* 9. The boy was ten years old. *It was a* 10. The bag of potatoes weighs eight kilos. *It is an* 11. The house has three bedrooms. *It is a*

Exercise 2. Read out the following; more than one variant may be possible:

$12+9=21$	$10-3=7$
$6\times 4=24$	$15:3=5$
7.45 a.m.	AD 47 (or 47 AD)
30.04.1978	93p
12,701	3.14159
2/3	the year 2000

Exercise 3. Complete the following sentences with cardinal numerals. Write your answers in words.

1. Let's go in paying this bill. 2. Don't mind the mess. We're all at ... and ... at the moment. 3. People seem to mispronounce my name ... times out of ... 4. Following the conflict, protests flooded in from the ... corners of the world. 5. At first I was confused by their reaction, but then I put ... and ... together. 6. A stereo picture looks-dimensional. 7.'s company,'s a crowd. 8. Pelé was a great player. He gave ... percent in every game. 9. When Susan gets excited, she talks ... to the ... 10. The father cut the biggest apple in ... and gave his daughters a half each. 11. Look, you can't drive in this direction! It's a ...-way street. 12. It doesn't matter to me which way you do it. It's ... of ... and half a dozen of the other. 13. I don't want a ...-to-... job. I like the freedom I have as my own boss. 14. Alice is ... in a ... — such a hard worker.

Exercise 4. Complete these sentences with ordinal numerals. Write your answers in words.

1. The International Monetary Fund has increased its aid to the ... World. 2. The Americans celebrate Independence Day on the ... of July. 3. This is an excellent car — ... to none. 4. I know her quite well. In fact, we've been on ...-name terms for years. 5. Please call me ... thing in the morning. I can't give you the answer now. 6. The candidates were interviewed on a ... come, ... served basis. 7. Driving is no problem for Bob. It's ... nature to him. 8. Ann was really in ... heaven when she won the prize. 9. Night by Shakespeare has been staged and filmed throughout the world. 10. Why is it I get the ... degree from you every time I come home late? 11. She always turned her term papers in at the ... hour. 12. I am tired of playing ... fiddle to Val. 13. We must not treat immigrants as ...-class citizens. 14. So long as it was a ...-rate holiday inn and not a ...-star hotel, we couldn't expect a speedy service. 15. In the ... place, you don't have enough money to buy a fur coat. In the ... place, you don't need one.

Exercise 5. Use a singular or plural verb in the present. Comment on the sentences in which two forms would be acceptable.

1. A hundred pounds (*be*) a lot to win. 2. \$20 (*seem*) very expensive.
3. Six months (*be*) a long time to wait. 4. Five and six (*be*) eleven. Four from nine (*leave*) five. Nine take away four (*be/leave*) five. Ten fives (*be*) fifty. 5. Ten minutes (*be*) more than enough time to complete this.
6. Eight thousand miles (*be*) too far to travel. 7. Almost two-thirds of the land in the southwestern areas of the country (*be*) unsuitable for farming. 8. Fifty percent of the country's population (*speak*) French.
9. If things don't get better, more than one person (*be*) going to have to find a new job. 10. The managing director, together with three heads of department, (*be*) preparing a new budget. 11. The room is too crowded — either a table or two chairs (*have*) got to be moved out.
12. What we need (*be*) three efficient computer engineers.

Exercise 6. Choose the correct form. Comment on the sentences in which two forms would be acceptable.

1. Ice melts at zero (*degree/degrees*) centigrade. 2. We've got enough paint for about twenty square (*foot/feet*) of wall. 3. Twenty- (*minute/minutes/minute's/minutes'*) walk would be very invigorating.
4. They bought a three-(*bedroom/bedrooms*) house in the country. 5. My husband is just over six (*foot/feet*) three. 6. We took a ten- (*day/days/day's/days'*) skiing holiday last winter. 7. The Smiths received twelve (*greeting/greetings*) cards on the day of their wedding anniversary. 8. The (1960s/1960's) saw an upsurge of mass culture. 9. She is only ten (*year/years*) old, but she is a little lady. 10. Do you seriously think three- (*year/years*)-olds should be taught to read?
11. Just imagine having to stand in line for one and a half (*hour/hours*)!
12. Four (*day/days/day's/days'*) journey proved much too tiresome.
13. Could I have five (*dollar/dollar's/dollars/dollars'*) worth of stamps? 14. It cost me eight (*pound/pounds*) fifty. 15. I weigh eight (*stone/stones*) four. 16. A sixteen- (*year/years*)-old person is a very interesting phenomenon.

Exercise 7. Paraphrase the italicized, parts using the numerals suggested.

Example:

Her suggestion was better than any other (second).
⇒ *Her suggestion was second to none.*

1. *Having reconsidered the matter*, maybe you should move into a smaller apartment (second). 2. *Before anything else*, put your name on this piece of paper (first). 3. Oh, Jenny, you look very good (million).

4. I dropped a contact lens and spent an hour on *my hands and knees* looking for it (fours). 5. Peter sells *used cars* (second). 6. He was shy at the beginning; then he became more friendly (first). 7. Somehow I'll get through college (one). 8. I bet you'll lose (ten; one). 9. She hasn't yet made up her mind about it (two). 10. We have a great number of things to do (thousand; one). 11. They divided the prize money into two equal parts (fifty). 12. The package was handled carelessly, but the teapot inside arrived undamaged (one).

Exercise 8. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of numerals.

1. Когда следующий поезд? Кажется, мы опоздали на девять пятнадцать. 2. Дайте мне, пожалуйста, открыток на три доллара. 3. Двухсотый посетитель получил приз. Я оказался двести вторым. 4. В этом колледже обучается около тысячи четырехсот студентов (2 variants). 5. У меня осталась только одна банкнота в пять фунтов. 6. По меньшей мере семьдесят земного шара покрыто водой. 7. «Какой у вас номер факса?» — «Семьсот пятьдесят пять, тридцать, девяносто два». 8. Пока выполнено только восемьдесят процентов работы. 9. Полученные результаты находятся в пределах от 10 до 0. 10. Космический корабль стартует в тринадцать часов (2 variants). 11. Предпоследний раздел начинается на тридцать второй странице. 12. Моему ребенку год и месяц, но все думают, что ему полтора года. 13. Сейчас мы сделаем десятиминутный перерыв (2 variants). 14. Британский галлон равен четырем целым и пятидесяти пятью сотыми литра, а американский галлон — трем целым и семидесяти восьми сотыми литра. 15. В одном дюйме примерно два и пятьдесят сантиметра (2 variants). 16. «Кто-то позвонил мне в два часа ночи». — «Готова поспорить, это был Стюарт». 17. До университета вас довезет сорок седьмой автобус (2 variants). 18. Премьер-министр Великобритании живет на Даунинг-Стрит, дом 10. 19. Ноль градусов Цельсия равен тридцати двум градусам Фаренгейта. 20. Какой год открывает двадцать первый век — двухтысячный или две тысячи первый?

5. VERBS

Exercise 1. Make up sentences of your own using the following verbs; note that some of them can be used both transitively and intransitively.

to economize	to entertain	to yawn
to arise	to depress	to shudder
to begin	to bark	to elapse
to welcome	to thaw	to report
to evaporate	to suit	to doze
to relax	to enjoy	to bother

Exercise 2. Fill in the blanks with link verbs in the required form.

1. It is difficult to ... fine when you've been sick for days. 2. His wife was French and ... it. 3. Children do not ... children forever. 4. Last summer, the roses in his garden ... very fragrant. 5. I didn't believe him at that time; nonetheless, he really ... a DJ. 6. It ... horrible and it is. 7. How it ... to be famous? 8. Cindy is caring and thrifty; she will ... a good housewife. 9. The sauce ... hot; I wouldn't recommend giving it to the children. 10. It ... darker with every minute.

Exercise 3. Make up sentences of your own using the following ditransitive verbs:

to ask	to write	to give
to wish	to cook	to promise
to envy	to show	to deny

Exercise 4. Point out link verbs and notional verbs in the following sentences:

1. A dark figure appeared in the doorway. 2. *Uncle Remus Stories* appeared in 1880. 3. Their offer appeared to be unfair. 4. It appears that he was involved in some scandal. 5. The dog appeared to be hungry. 6. I was feeling sleepy all day. 7. He felt his forehead and saw blood on his fingers. 8. It feels nice and warm near the fireplace. 9. The surface feels rough. 10. I felt a sudden desire to hold her hand. 11. I felt someone brush past me. 12. She felt a fool for having made that confession. 13. On entering the kitchen I smelt gas. 14. We were all alone in the house, but we smelled danger. 15. This salad smells of garlic. 16. The curtains smelled dusty and stale. 17. Hi, Sophie! You look smashing tonight! 18. I never look at the answers when I'm doing a crossword puzzle. 19. If you look closely, you will spot a familiar face in this snapshot. 20. Why don't you look me in the face? 21. In winter, the area looks deserted. 22. Our neighbour grows rare kinds of flowers. 23. Your daughter has grown into a remarkable young woman. 24. Money doesn't grow on trees, you know. 25. By noon the day had grown unbearably hot. 26. The people waiting in the queue were growing impatient. 27. I turned the page over so as to take a look at the signature. 28. When we turned to the right, a fortress ap-

peared in the distance. 29. Their son has just turned twenty. 30. The milk will turn sour — unless, of course, you keep it in the fridge. 31. Things were turning difficult. 32. You'll get more information by tuning in to the local station. 33. Susan got measles from her little sister. 34. This argument won't get us anywhere. 35. Billy gets drunk every weekend. It's disgusting! 36. The concert soon got very boring. 37. Every day, in every way I'm getting better and better.

Exercise 5. Fill in the blanks with complex transitive verbs in the required form.

1. Henry's friends have ... him "Superman" for some strange reason.
2. They ... the new baby Dawn, although it is not a Christian name.
3. The doctor ... three passengers dead.
4. My full name is Caroline Ann, but my parents ... me Annie.
5. The Chairman ... me his personal assistant, which was an honour.
6. The local authorities want to ... this unique building a national monument.
7. The staff meeting unanimously ... her purser.
8. If you ... your rivals stupid, you're making a big mistake.
9. The auditor ... some of the documents invalid.
10. "I ... you man and wife", said the registrar.
10. The newspapers ... a dozen people missing, but, mercifully, this turned out to be a mistake.
11. Some linguists ... to split infinitives as nonstandard forms.
12. Critics often ... F. Scott Fitzgerald as the laureate of the jazz age.

6. TENSE AND ASPECT

Exercise 1. Explain the difference in the use of tense-aspect forms in the following sentences. Make up similar sentences of your own, using the verbs *ARRIVE, GO, LAND, START, STOP, MOVE*.

1. The Moscow train leaves at 11:55. — The Moscow train is leaving at 11:55 tomorrow.
2. The Prime Minister usually stops for a brief visit in Berlin on his way to Spain. — The Prime Minister is stopping for a brief visit in Berlin on his way to Spain next week. On Tuesday, before he leaves for Madrid, he will have discussions with German Chancellor.
3. British Airways planes flying from St.Petersburg land in Gatwick. — Due to technical problems, the British Airways plane from St.Petersburg is landing in Heathrow today.
4. I am sure John will move into a better house shortly. — John is moving into a new house next week. He's got a handsome raise from his company.

Exercise 2. Translate the following sentences into English using the present simple and the present progressive.

1. Вы понимаете, что я имею в виду? 2. Вечно ты задаешь бес-
тактные вопросы! 3. Куда приклейть багажный ярлык? 4. Я беру
стакан теплого молока, добавляю столовую ложку муки, полстакана
сахара и два яйца, затем все хорошо размешиваю. 5. Мой
двоюродный брат приезжает нас навестить раз в месяц. 6. На этой
неделе наш офис заканчивает работу на час позже обычного. 7. Из-
вини, но ты просто упрямишься. 8. Семья Уайтов ест только здо-
ровую пищу. 9. Ты куришь? — Конечно, нет! 10. На каком языке
разговаривают эти девушки? — На венгерском. 11. Оскар Уайльд
в своих пьесах использует большое количество парадоксов. 12. Ут-
реннее заседание начинается в 10 часов. 13. Бумага загорается при
температуре 451 градус по Фаренгейту. 14. Рукописи не горят.
15. Где Ричард? — Он провожает свою невесту. 16. До меня дошли
слухи, что твои родители покупают новый дом (*Use hear*).
17. А вот и Кевин. — Не вижу. Где он? — Спускается по лестни-
це. 18. Как мне зарегистрироваться для участия в конкурсе?
19. Нина всегда пользуется косметикой естественных тонов (*Use wear*). 20. Почему ты не пользуешься электронной почтой? —
А как по-твоему, что я делаю сейчас? Как раз пишу сообщение,
не так ли? 21. Сегодня я выступаю перед студентами с докладом
о поездке в Индию. 22. Что ты собираешься делать в выходные?
— Поеду кататься на лыжах. А ты? — Я по субботам всегда хожу
в бассейн. 23. Грамматика любого языка изменяется постепенно.
24. Когда я буду разговаривать по телефону, не включай телеви-
зор. 25. Какую бы книгу ты ни читала, всегда записывай назва-
ние и фамилию автора. 26. Я собираюсь сохранить этой файл на
диске — на тот случай, если кто-нибудь случайно сотрет мои
таблицы из компьютера. 27. Позаботьтесь, чтобы у каждого чле-
на комитета был экземпляр договора. 28. Надеюсь, этот роман
будет переведен в ближайшем будущем. 29. Смотри не потеряй эти
записи; они чрезвычайно важны. 30. Не давайте согласия на уча-
стие в симпозиуме, если не сможете в указанное время прибыть
в Лондон. — Каков бы ни был мой рабочий график, я непремен-
но буду в числе участников.

Exercise 3. Complete the passage with the past simple of the verbs given below.

pull	click	wait	stick (2)	look
extract	get	order	take	reach

He ... the receiver cradle down with a finger, ... the file room,
and ... Chee's folder. While he ... for it, he ... open the desk drawer, ...
a brown pin with a white center, and carefully ... it back in the hole

where the Endocheeney pin had been. He ... at the map a minute. Then he ... into the drawer again, ... out another brown-and-white pin and ... it at the 'p' in "Shiprock".

Exercise 4. Complete the passage, using the appropriate forms of the verbs **MAKE, SEIZE, BURY, TAKE, BECOME (2), PEDDLE, GRAZE, CAN, TAKE, CATCH, BE (4)** and **LEAD**.

In winter it was a different story. It ... then that Timoney ... trips to the mainland in his little boat, returning with kegs of the fiery potion. He ... the liquor in remote glens and then ... it to the people secretly. Such ... the man's cunning that the police ... never able to catch him, and so they ... revenge on his ass.

The poor animal ... just as cunning as his master, owing to the harsh necessities of his existence. He only ... on the roadside at night, creeping along in the shadow of the fence, with his long ears cocked for the unheralded approach of his enemies. By daylight he ... easily recognize their blue uniforms, and he ... to flight when he ... sight of them. In the darkness of night, however, they ... upon him many times before he ... aware of their nearness. They ... him and ... him to prison.

Exercise 5. Use the given verbs in the correct form; bear in mind that certain verbs do not take the progressive aspect in some of their meanings.

1. I (*study*) the influence of heat on human body. I (*know*) that it (*be*) a challenge... 2. In Kenya we (*observe*) wildlife. We (*see*) that the animal world is in many ways similar to ours. 3. John (*proceed*) with his study of mammals. 4. At the department, we (*hear*) a lot about his genetic experiments. 5. Johnny, you (*be*) naughty. You can reach the books on the upper shelf yourself. You (*be*) tall enough. 6. We are (*have*) a good time at John's house. He (*have*) everything imaginable to entertain his guests. 7. I cannot make the 3 p.m. meeting. I (*see*) my doctor at this time. 8. He (*deserve*) a lot of praise for his courageous conduct. 9. This house (*belong*) to my brother-in-law. 10. Once Schweitzer (*come*) to a small village in Central Africa. He (*see*) that the natives (*receive*) proper health care.

Exercise 6. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the use of the past simple and the past progressive.

I. 1. Когда мы пришли, гости танцевали. 2. Когда-то я хорошо играл на гитаре. 3. Вчера я ехала в университет вместе с Аней. Мы говорили об учебе и планах на лето. 4. Пока дети спали, бабушка готовила обед. 5. Когда я заглянул в аудиторию, сту-

денты что-то обсуждали. 6. Раньше мы имели обыкновение проводить каникулы у моря. 7. Я встретил Катю на прошлой неделе, но мы не разговаривали, так как она спешила в театр. 8. Когда я была в Лондоне, я несколько раз ходила в Британский музей. 9. Чем ты занимался, когда я позвонил? — Я делал уроки. 10. В воскресенье с четырех до шести мы играли в теннис. 11. Он заглянул на кухню и увидел, что мама готовит ужин. 12. Темнело, шел дождь, становилось холодно. 13. Вы долго ждали его в субботу? 14. Она только и делала, что смотрелась в зеркало. 15. Мы поговорили несколько минут, и я ушла. Когда я оглянулась, они все еще стояли на том же месте. 16. Вчера мы два часа писали контрольную работу. 17. Почему я не видела тебя в перерыве? — Мы писали контрольную работу. 18. Когда я его увидела, он стоял у окна и курил. 19. Я заглянула в кафе. Они пили кофе и разговаривали. 20. Раньше на этой улице был рынок. 21. Она постоянно теряла библиотечные книги. 22. В кухне хорошо пахло. Бабушка пекла пироги. 23. Я не узнала ее сначала. На ней были очки, и в них она казалась старше. 24. Я проснулась очень рано. Во дворе что-то происходило. Наш пес громко лаял.

II.1. Я нашел эту фотографию вчера, когда искал свои водительские права. 2. Сестра отвлекла мое внимание, когда у меня был важный телефонный разговор. 3. Она уже делала тесто для пирога, когда вспомнила, что у нее нет соли. 4. Пока мы смотрели вечерние новости, кошка прокралась на кухню и стащила кусок мяса. 5. Когда мать зашла в комнату, ребенок уже крепко спал. 6. Когда Джон вчера переходил улицу, он споткнулся и упал. К счастью, машин поблизости не было, он быстро встал и ушел с проезжей части. 7. В эту минуту Мэри поняла, что едет не в том направлении. 8. Я рассказал им о сборнике юмористических рассказов, который тогда читал. 9. Когда Сьюзан вошла в комнату, гости уже сидели за столом. Хозяйка разговаривала с Блэком. На ней было красивое зеленое платье. 10. Я открыл для себя много интересных фактов, когда просматривал «Словарь британской истории». 11. Джек вышел на террасу. Моросил дождь. Он покурил минут пять и вернулся в дом. 12. Пока мы обедали, она рассказывала нам о своей поездке в Москву. 13. По мере того, как поезд подходил к конечной станции, м-р Смит становился все более задумчивым. 14. Пока мы ехали домой, Джейн рассказывала нам разные забавные истории. 15. Строители закончили работать в среду, когда уже смеркалось. 16. Она как раз отдыхала на юге, когда узнала неприятную весть о банкротстве мужа. 17. Я не слышал, что он говорит, поскольку в эту минуту мое внимание привлекло нечто другое. 18. На протяжении всего первого акта сидевшие рядом со мной дамы постоянно разговаривали, и мне пришлося пересесть.

Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the past simple or the present perfect of the verbs in brackets.

1. Naipaul (*emigrate*) to England when he was eighteen and (*live*) and (*work*) there ever since. 2. Since the 1995 unrest, and particularly after the 1997 General Election, the Government (*announce*) a number of initiatives on the inner city. 3. In recent years the collective aggression displayed by groups of younger fans (*cause*) a kind of "moral panic" in the press. Football hooliganism (*be defined*) as a major social problem. It (*attract*) not only widespread condemnation but a fair amount of sociological analysis as well with the result that there (*be*) a lively debate taking place about its origins and nature. 4. We (*finish*) third in the European Championship with a young team which (*improve*) a lot in the last two seasons. 5. In June 1989 the Home Office (*refuse*) to extend his residence because his studies (*be*) unsuccessful. Mr Masid says he (*fail*) his final examinations because of illness. 6. He will decide whether to take legal action when he (*study*) a tape. "Why he (*wait*) 16 years to say these things?" he asked. 7. A year later he (*play*) a central role in founding the Group of 89 who (*want*) to see a conservative model for Hong Kong's political development. 8. Above all, he insists that science not (*begin*) when material needs (*be satisfied*), but should be pursued and used for the satisfaction of the needs of all. 9. Mr Thesinger hates machines and modernity. Diversity is what he (*seek*) all his life. But seeing it (*be*) never enough. "I had to be a part of it," he says. Thus, his explorations (*take*) him into deserts and marshes. He never (*go*) alone. Everything (*depend*) on a group of people loyal to him in marsh places. "We (*starve*)," he says simply of a camel ride across the Empty Quarters of Saudi Arabia. "We (*have*) to draw straws for the food we (*have*).". 10. Since then, the "Willowgate" scandal over the illegal sale of cars (*bring*) down five cabinet ministers, one of whom (*commit*) suicide.

Exercise 8. Translate the following sentences into English, paying special attention to the use of the past simple and the present perfect.

I. 1. Ваш оркестр когда-нибудь был на гастролях в Англии? — Да, конечно. В последний раз нас пригласили на международный фестиваль прошлым летом. 2. Где ты была? — В театре. — Тебе понравился спектакль? 3. Вы обычно плотно завтракаете? — Да, но сегодня я не позавтракал совсем и чувствую себя не очень хорошо. 4. Когда ты усовершенствовал свой компьютер? — К сожалению, я еще этого не сделал. 5. Разве ты не знаешь, что Анна поступила в университет? — Если не ошибаюсь, она стала студенткой юридического факультета два года назад. 6. Он ведь уже сдал все экзамены, не так ли? — Да, вчера он сдал последний эк-

замен, но я не знаю, какую оценку он получил. — Да, она мне уже об этом сказала. 8. Ты раньше встречала этого человека? — Мы вместе учились в школе. 9. Гарри никогда не лжет. По крайней мере, в детстве он всегда говорил правду. 10. Где ты купила эту прелестную блузку? — В магазине одежды недалеко от дома. 11. Вы уже пообедали? — Как правило, мы обедаем поздно, но сегодня мы пошли в ресторан быстрого обслуживания сразу после работы. 12. Когда ты в последний раз говорила с Брайаном? — Я только что ему звонила. 13. Вы видели мои новые диски? Я их только что купила в университетском магазине. 14. Простите, что вы сказали? Здесь очень шумно, я плохо слышу. 15. Ты узнал, где они работают? Да, мне недавно сказали, что они больше года работают в одной международной компании.

II. 1. Я здесь уже целый час, а Майкл все еще не пришел. 2. Насколько мне известно, эта девочка всегда писала левой рукой. 3. В последнее время мой отец очень занят. 4. Наши соседи переехали в этот район совсем недавно и поэтому никого еще здесь не знают. 5. Я куда-то положила свою сумочку и теперь не могу ее найти. — Ты всегда была рассеянной! 6. Он отложил книгу и начал звонить по телефону. 7. Мы знаем его, можно сказать, всю жизнь. 8. Она никогда не опаздывает на занятия, потому что всегда выходит из дома пораньше. 9. Я не знаю, куда он улетел, но точно помню, что это было в начале месяца. 10. Она здесь с утра и, кажется, не собирается уходить. 11. Наконец-то он завершил диссертацию, но ему пришлось очень много работать. 12. Мы решили отправиться на отдых в Египет и вчера сообщили об этом друзьям. 13. Разве ты не видишь, что он сделал свой выбор? 14. Странно, что он уволился с этой работы; я думала, ему нравится такая беспокойная жизнь. 15. Мы никогда не подозревали, что Робин — такой остроумный собеседник. 16. Мы слышали, что они переехали в новую квартиру, которую им подыскали родственники. 17. Не забудь, пожалуйста, что диспетчер просил тебя позвонить в офис. 18. Они приехали в этот приморский город, когда их дочь была совсем маленькой, и живут здесь уже десять лет. 19. Марианна никогда еще не попадала в такое затруднительное положение; вполне понятно, что ей неловко перед коллегами. 20. Я всегда была уверена, что ему можно доверять, и он это доказал еще раз. 21. За последнее десятилетие климат так изменился, что иногда не знаешь, какое время года наступило.

Exercise 9. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

1. Ann is on holiday. She (go) to Italy. 2. It's the most boring film I ever (see). 3. This is the first time he (drive) a car. 4. I (smoke) —

negative) for three years. 5. When it last (*rain*)? — It (*rain* — negative) for ages. 6. It (*snow*) a lot last winter but it (*snow*) much so far this winter. 7. I (*smoke*) ten cigarettes today. 8. When it (*start*) raining? 9. How long it (*rain*)? 10. I (*see* — negative) Tom since Monday. 11. How long is it since you (*have*) a holiday? 12. I (*live*) here all my life. 13. It (*rain*) since I (*get up*) this morning. 14. That's a very old car. I (*have*) it for ages. 15. Prices (*fall*) but now they (*rise*) again. 16. Somebody (*spill*) milk on the carpet. — It (*be* — negative) me. — I (*wonder*) who it (*be*) then. 17. Einstein (*be*) the physicist who (*develop*) the theory of relativity. 18. You (*cut*) your hair yourself? 19. You (*hear*) about Ben? He (*break*) his leg. — Really? How it (*happen*)? — He (*fall*) off a ladder. 20. Mr Clark (*work*) in a bank for fifteen years. Then he (*give*) it up. 21. When we (*be*) on holiday, the weather (*be*) awful. 22. Why Jim not (*want*) to play tennis last Friday? 23. I not (*know* — negative) Carol's husband. I never (*meet*) him. 24. What on earth you (*do*)? Your clothes (*be covered*) in paint. 25. When I (*get*) there, everyone (*go*) home already. — So you (*see* — negative) him? 26. We (*finish*) the repairs to your car by tomorrow morning. It (*be*) ready for you at 11 o'clock. 27. I (*get*) married soon. — So I (*hear*). — Oh! When you (*hear*) about it? — Your father (*tell*) me yesterday. 28. That's the second time someone (*interrupt*) me this evening. 29. You can go when you (*finish*) your work. 30. He generally apologized for any trouble he (*cause*). 31. When Queen Victoria (*die*) in 1901, she (*reign*) for over 60 years. 32. I (*call*) at the manager's office, but (*discover*) I just (*miss*) him. He (*go out*) for lunch. 33. What (*happen*) next (*be*) just what everyone (*fear*). 35. The stop-watch (*say*) three minutes, fifty-eight seconds — he (*break*) the world record. He (*succeed*) in doing what previously (*be thought*) impossible. 36. We at present (*take*) vigorous steps to modernize our factories. Much of the obsolete equipment already (*be replace*). 37. The man (*stand*) on the corner all day. 38. The castle (*stand*) above the town for nine hundred years. 39. He (*work* — negative) for years. 40. I (*paint*) two rooms since lunch.

Exercise 10. Complete the sentences with the past simple or the past perfect of the verbs in brackets.

1. He decided to return to England. He (*arrive*) to find that Mrs Shaw (*die*) and that Edward (*disappear*). His sporting friend's excesses (*reach*) epic proportions. 2. Sir Derek said last night that he (*glance*) at the Hill Samuel plan and (*be*) interested to see how it works out. 3. What really infuriated him (*be*) comments that he (*apply*) for an American visa, which (*be turned*) down at a high level. 4. The other day we came upon a roadblock. A worker at a sugar mill (*be knocked down*) by a hit-and-run motorist. His colleagues immediately (*stop*) work, (*file*) out of the factory and (*sat down*) in the middle of the

highway, blocking traffic in both directions. 5. The Preview people who (*publish*) a few of my poems (*invite*) me to a party. 6. The company (*announce*) on Tuesday that it (*form*) a new international firm. 7. The second National Government, by contrast, (*result*) from a general election in which it (*inflict*) a massive defeat on the Labour party. 8. In conjunction with Steve Gartlan, who like myself (*conduct*) field research in Africa, I (*undertake*) a survey of existing studies. 9. Ronald could not see any way out of his present difficulties. He (*be*) clearly embarrassed about what (*occur*), but at first (*be*) unwilling to say much about what (*happen*). 10. Beaverbrook and Churchill agreed with him that Britain (*compromise*) enough and the issue of economic control of air routes could be decided later. 11. But the reported fall in profits (*be*) sharper than the City (*anticipate*). 12. It also (*pose*) a delicate problem for the Home Secretary himself, since Lord Scarman (*be appointed*) by him to carry out this inquiry. 13. He (*reveal*) at the weekend he (*be approached*) by a union member and (*receive*) a "lucrative" offer to go to the Republic. 14. The offensive launched on Saturday (*make*) quick initial progress, he said, and troops (*capture*) at least 10 government positions and large quantities of weapons. 15. I (*find*) the orchestra at a much higher level than I (*expect*). 16. General Ranatunga (*say*) the leftist rebels (*do*) an "unbelievable" amount of damage during the ceasefire. 17. Sentencing Constable Peter Anderson, 41, Mr Justice Jowitt told him he (*do*) "great damage to the trust in police". 18. She tried to ignore what he (*do*). However, when he later (*become*) drowsy, she (*telephone*) for an ambulance to take him to hospital. 19. Lautrec (*continue*) to work with Impressionism and Neo-Impressionism as he (*do*) in 1887, gradually developing a more distinctive brush stroke as he advanced towards a personal style. 20. As a youngster, Jacques once (*have*) to sit a difficult oral geography exam for which he (*do*) little work.

Exercise 11. Select the correct past form of the verbs given.

The Semple Family

A horn (*was honking/honked*) in the driveway: it was the Semples, Howard, Fay, and their three kids — right on schedule.

When we (*were living/lived*) in Centerville, their daughter Sissy (*took/was taking*) piano lessons from the same teacher as my daughter. We met every year at the piano recital. At one of these recitals, my husband inadvertently spilled punch down Fay's back. A conversation ensued. She told him that they (*would move/were moving*) to Rochester because Howard (*had/was having*) a job offer.

The Semple family was not without talents. Howard (*trained/had been training*) for the gargling Olympics all of his life. Every day, he began just before the sun came up, continuing through breakfast and again in the evening when everyone (*tried/was trying*) to sleep.

One child, Howard Jr., could bounce a rubber ball against the house for fifteen hours straight. His brother, Edwin, (*stole/was stealing*) anything that wasn't nailed down, and Sissy, who (*was looking/looked*) like a Hallmark greeting card, was a terrorist from hell. She would sneak behind you, dig her nails into your flesh, and then (*be looking/look*) innocent when her victim (*was crying/cried*) out in pain.

Howard and Fay usually (*stayed/were staying*) for about five days. One year they had been there nine days when a part (*was going out/went out*) on their car and they had to send for a new one.

That night, as I (*turned/was turning*) carefully in the bunk bed, I thought about Fay and Howard sprawled out in our queen-size bed and (*was wondering/wondered*) why they (*were doing/did*) it. The Semples (*were not caring/didn't care*) about us. We were no more than a stagecoach stop-off... It was eleven o'clock. Howard (*was still gargling/still gargled*) and Howard Jr. (*was bouncing/bounced*) a rubber ball against the side of the house.

(After Erma Bombeck)

Exercise 12. Use the required past form of the verbs in brackets.

I. It (*be*) twenty years ago and I (*live*) in Paris. I (*have*) a tiny apartment in the Latin Quarter and I (*earn*) barely enough money to keep body and soul together. She (*read*) a book of mine and (*write*) to me about it. I (*answer*), thanking her, and presently I (*receive*) from her another letter saying that she (*pass*) through Paris and (*want*) to have a chat with me; but her time (*be*) limited and the only free moment she (*have*) was on the following Thursday; she (*spend*) the morning at the Luxembourg and I (*give*) her a little luncheon at Foyot's afterwards? Foyot's (*be*) a restaurant at which French senators (*eat*) and it (*be*) so far beyond my means that I never even (*think*) of going there. But I (*flatter*) and I (*be*) too young to have learned to say no to a woman. I (*have*) eighty francs to last me the rest of the month and a modest luncheon (*cost — negative*) more than fifteen. If I (*cut*) out coffee for the next two weeks I (*manage*) well enough.

I (*answer*) that I (*meet*) my friend — by correspondence — at Foyot's on Thursday at half past twelve. She (*be*) not so young as I (*expect*) and in appearance imposing rather than attractive. She (*be*) in fact a woman of forty, and she (*give*) me the impression of having more teeth, white and large and even, than (*be*) necessary for any practical purpose. She (*be*) talkative, but since she (*seem*) inclined to talk about me, I (*be*) prepared to be an attentive listener.

II. I (*suppose*) every family (*have*) a black sheep. Tom (*be*) a sore trial to his for twenty years. He (*begin*) life decently enough: he (*go*) into business, (*marry*) and (*have*) two children. The Ramsays (*be*) perfectly respectable people and there (*be*) every reason to suppose that Tom Ramsay (*have*) a useful and honourable career. But one day,

without warning, he (*announce*) that he (*not to like*) work and that he (*not to be*) suited for marriage. He (*want*) to enjoy himself. He (*leave*) his wife and his office. He (*have*) a little money and he (*spend*) two happy years in the various capitals of Europe. Rumours of his doings (*reach*) his relations from time to time and they (*be*) profoundly shocked. They (*shake*) their heads and (*ask*) what (*happen*) when his money (*be*) spent. They soon (*find*) out: he (*borrow*). He (*be*) charming and unscrupulous. I never (*meet*) anyone to whom it (*be*) more difficult to refuse a loan. He (*make*) a steady income from his friends and he (*make*) friends easily. But he always (*say*) that the money you (*spend*) on necessities (*be*) boring; the money that (*be*) amusing to spend (*be*) the money you (*spend*) on luxuries. For this he (*depend*) on his brother George. He (*waste* — negative) his charm on him. Once or twice he (*fall*) to Tom's promises of amendment and (*give*) him considerable sums in order that he might make a fresh start. On these Tom (*buy*) a motor-car and some very nice jewellery. But when circumstances (*force*) George to realize that his brother never (*settle*) down and he (*wash*) his hands of him, Tom, without a qualm, (*begin*) to blackmail him.

(After W. S. Maugham)

Exercise 13. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the use of the past simple and the past perfect.

1. Том чувствовал легкое волнение перед встречей с другом, которого он не видел много лет. Интересно, он сильно изменился?
2. Мэри вдруг почувствовала, как она голодна; она ничего не ела с самого утра.
3. Подойдя к двери, он оглянулся, чтобы посмотреть, не забыл ли он чего-нибудь.
4. После долгих размышлений он решил подождать, пока не услышит все от самого Джона.
5. Не успел я выйти из дома, как пошел сильный снег.
6. Когда ушли последние гости, было уже далеко за полночь.
7. Было гораздо холоднее, чем я предполагал, и мне пришлось вернуться за теплым шарфом и перчатками.
8. Не успел я позовинить, как дверь распахнулась.
9. Энн легла спать только после того, как вымыла всю посуду и навела порядок в гостиной после ухода гостей.
10. Как только я вернулся домой, я сразу понял, что в мое отсутствие что-то произошло. В доме все изменилось.
11. Наступило лето. К этому времени мы уже познакомились со всеми соседями и часто устраивали пикники на берегу реки.
12. Он был рад снова увидеть Дэвида. Они были знакомы уже много лет и провели немало приятных часов, беседуя о музыке и поэзии.
13. Прежде чем он закончил рассказ, дверь отворилась и вошел отец.
14. Наконец она пришла в себя; она не знала, как долго была без сознания и не могла понять, где находится.
15. Он не

мог вспомнить, как попал в этот странный дом. 16. Когда я вошел в зал, члены комитета уже закончили обсуждать мой проект; как всегда, я пропустил все самое важное. 17. Она выглядела намного лучше, чем в последний раз, когда я ее видел. Видимо, ваше лекарство помогло. 18. Когда я вышел из дома, дождь уже закончился, ветер утих; ночь была теплой и ясной. 19. Лишь много лет спустя он узнал, что на самом деле произошло в тот ужасный день и почему его сестра так неожиданно уехала. 20. Она в волнении ходила по комнате. Джон все еще не позвонил. Что же случилось? 21. Теперь Антония часто думала о маленьком городке, в котором родилась и провела лучшие годы своей жизни. 22. Он неважко себя чувствовал уже несколько дней и плохо выглядел.

Exercise 14. Rewrite the following sentences using the passive voice. Pay attention to the use of the progressive forms.

1. The police are watching the house. 2. The members of the reconciliation group were gradually achieving consensus when new facts emerged. 3. The hospital personnel are providing medical care for the victims of the recent bomb attack. 4. While they were making her chairperson, allegations of fraud leaked into the press. 5. The Committee has been discussing the solutions for the recent political crisis since Friday. 6. In spite of bad weather the pilot landed our plane safely.

Exercise 15. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the use of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive.

I. 1. Прости, я опоздала. Ты меня давно ждешь? Я тебя жду уже больше получаса и решила уходить. 2. Вы хорошо говорите по-французски. Сколько лет вы его учили? Французский я учу с детства, а немецкий только что начала учить. 3. Где Джон? Я что-то давно его не видела. — Он в больнице. Он там с прошлой среды. 4. Ты не знаешь, Брауны уже уехали из Шеффилда? Я звоню им последний месяц и никак не могу дозвониться. — Они уже два месяца живут в Эдинбурге. 5. Что ты пишешь? Я пишу новогодние поздравления с утра и никак не могу закончить. У меня столько друзей! 6. Интересно, что он делал с моей книгой? Она вся порвана и перепачкана. — Мне кажется, ее разорвал их щенок. 7. Он с осени думает о переходе на новую работу. — А сколько лет он проработал в этом издательстве? — Он пришел туда года три назад. 8. Как ты себя чувствуешь? — Последние полгода я чувствую себя неважко, так как постоянно простужа-

юсь. 9. Я давно не встречал твою сестру. Неужели она уехала из Москвы? — Да, она вышла замуж и уехала с мужем во Францию. 10. Ты слышал, что они пытались научить своего попугая говорить по-английски? — Прекрасная идея, но я никогда не знала, что у них есть попугай. 11. Ты слышишь, как поет Елена? — Да, я слушаю ее пение с тех пор, как пришла. У нее действительно замечательный голос! 12. Видишь этого мужчину на улице? Вот уже целый час он что-то ищет. — Это наш сосед. Вполне возможно, что он не знает, куда подевался его маленький пекинес. Эта собачка живет у них в доме уже пять лет и все время куда-то пропадает. 13. Как долго твоя жена работает преподавателем? — Она преподает английский более двадцати лет и знает его, я думаю, в совершенстве. 14. Почему твоя сестра решила выйти замуж за Филиппа? У него всегда был такой скверный характер! — Но она знает его с детства, и они два года как помолвлены. 15. Говорят, Анна попала в автомобильную аварию и уже неделю лежит в больнице. Я думаю проведать ее в эти выходные. 16. Ты получала от него письма? — Нет, от него уже месяц нет никаких сообщений. 17. Последнее время все говорят о новом балете в Мариинском театре. Ты его уже видела? Нет, но я уже заказала билеты. 18. Вы нашли свою записную книжку? — К сожалению, нет. Все время пытаюсь вспомнить, где я ее оставила. 20. Мы уже идем по этой тропинке целый час и она нас никак не привела! — А я ни о чем не сожалею и всю дорогу наслаждаюсь свежим воздухом и живописными местами. Я очень рада, что присоединилась к вам и так прекрасно провожу время.

II. 1. Последние полчаса твой муж безуспешно пытается разжечь камин. Ты не думаешь ему помочь? 2. Дождь идет не переставая весь день, а мне нужно сходить за продуктами. 3. Мы дружим с Максимом и его женой на протяжении всех лет, что они живут в нашем доме. 4. Я наблюдаю за этими молодыми людьми с тех пор, как они вошли в гостиную. Они еще не притронулись к напиткам, но все время поглядывают в окно. 5. С тех пор как мы начали строить гараж, соседи все время перекапывают свой сад. Что они там делают, интересно? — Либо наблюдают за вами, либо ищут клад. 6. Карен все время молчит с тех пор как вернулась. Где она была и что с ней случилось? 7. Я намереваюсь написать статью о реформе среднего образования, но еще не решила, какой период следует охватить. 8. В последнее время местные газеты много пишут о том, как реставраторы воссоздают фрески в соборе XVII века. — Да, они используют технику старых мастеров и уже достигли впечатляющих результатов. 9. Кристофер потратил немало денег на лекарства для своей любимой собаки, которая болеет уже целый месяц. 10. Должна тебе напомнить, что родители пригласили нас на ужин и

будут ждать сегодня вечером. 11. Я говорила тебе сто раз, что работаю над этим переводом день и ночь, но еще не закончила его. 12. Андрей увлекается физикой со школьной скамьи. Не удивительно, что он стал видным ученым и подписал контракт на два года с одним из университетов США. 13. В течение последних трех месяцев группа молодых экономистов разрабатывает программу создания студенческих исследовательских центров. Эта программа была заказана Союзом студентов.

Exercise 16. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

1. The invention of the mechanical clock probably (*occur*) after 1277, since if it (*occur*) earlier, it is almost certain that it (*be included*) in Volume IV of this book.
2. Frederick saw the book as being what Smith (*write*) if he (*live*), and wherever possible he (*use*) quotations from Smith's notebooks.
3. British officials emphasised that Britain always (*apply*) an arms embargo to South Africa and (*continue*) to do so.
4. About an hour later her mother (*arrive*) and, when Liz (*explain*) what she (*do*), (*telephone*) for an ambulance.
5. Peter Ellwood, chief executive of the TSB retail bank, yesterday (*confirm*) he (*slash*) 25 percent of the most senior echelons of management.
6. Is this a play still capable of generating new meanings? Tim Pigott-Smith and his team to my mind (*find* — negative) them.
7. The man claimed to (*learn*) self-control, temperance and forbearance from his observations, and to (*profit*) more to rule his passions in the rest of his life, than he (*do*) by any thing that he (*hear*), or (*read*) before.
8. Although Dr de Klerk, was a member of the team, it is not the first time he (*meet*) Mr Mbeki.
9. Gregory of Tours and Bede both knew that the conversion of their peoples to Christianity (*do*) something to the religion to which they (*be converted*). This is what (*make*) them anxious about the attitudes of powerful men in their societies towards the churches of which they (*consider*) themselves the lords.
10. In place of Aristotle's association of time with motion, St Augustine (*turn*), not as Plotinus (*do*) to the concept of the "world-soul", but to the human mind for the ultimate source and standard of time.
11. Los Angeles is the archetypal 20th-century conurbation. Since the turn of the century, it (*grow*) from 50,000 people to 14 million.
12. Volvo (*confirm*) yesterday that it (*hold*) talks with its French rival, Renault, but (*refuse*) to say whether they (*discuss*) a possible merger.
13. They condemned the former Secretary of State for Transport for refusing to accept that government policies (*play*) a part in the series of transport disasters that (*occur*) over the last two years.
14. There (*be*) a time when a proposal of teaching Canadian literature (*be met*) with a polite amused silence, as if some eccentric spinster (*propose*) a course in basket-weaving.
15. This idea comes from

false reports that cloning of a human already (*be done*). Some millionaire or other, it sometimes (*be claimed*), (*have*) himself cloned in some secret clinic in Switzerland (or South America) by taking the nuclei from some of his cells. 16. The company (*be founded*) 30 years ago by two brothers, Jack and Fred Walker, with a few thousand pounds of capital and (*grow*) from a business with a turnover of under \$100,000 in the late 1950s to a \$620m concern with 3,400 employees in the UK and Ireland. 17. Mr Jones (*be expelled*) from the ruling party last year after he (*campaign*) against corruption. 18. She (*succeed*) rather more swiftly than she (*anticipate*) and in little more than an hour Mr Murdoch (*be offering*) his "unequivocal" support. 19. There was no incentive to move, for the bus queues (*be*) twice as long as usual; the rush-hour (*start*), and the prospect of the long wait in the rain (*appeal* — negative). They (*stand*) there, eating crisps, their minds blank, when suddenly a smart green mini (*pull*) up at the steps before them. 20. She spoke very seriously, thinking about trying, how she (*try*), how she still (*try*) to make her pony, Midnight, win. How she (*work*) at it, evening after evening since she was nine, learning to ride... 21. Abe Nathan, the former Spitfire pilot who for 23 years (*lead*) an often lonely crusade for peace, (*be jailed*) for six months yesterday by a Ramla court. 22. By the close of 1888, Lautrec (*move*) definitively away from the academic atelier and into avant-garde circles. 23. In his defence, Mr de Bry says that the document he (*sign*) merely (*acknowledge*) that the marble sculpture (*be handed*) over to the Getty Museum; it (*be*) not a certificate of authentication. 24. Eniko has disappeared since her arrest. Dr Ormerod said he (*be assured*) she simply (*be sent*) home. But no one (*be*) able to confirm this. 26. Although cruder versions of such theories (*be abandoned*) by the end of the nineteenth century, pre-formationist ideas still (*present*) an important theory. 27. The co-operation between the main industrialised countries (*prove*) itself very well. That (*show*) itself especially in the past few days. 28. Tony talked about his ex-girlfriend and then (*remember*) how upset he (*become*) when his parents (*split*) up when he (*be*) fourteen. At the time he (*start*) to play truant at school and his academic progress (*be disrupted*). 29. The company (*be founded*) 30 years ago by two brothers, Jack and Fred Walker, with a few thousand pounds of capital and (*grow*) from a business with a turnover of under \$100,000 in the late 1950s to a \$620m concern with 3,400 employees in the UK and Ireland. 30. In modern times the functions of parody (*be*) narrow and unproductive. Parody (*grow*) sickly, its place in modern literature (*be*) insignificant. We (*live*), (*write*) and (*speak*) today in a world of free and democratized languages; the complex and multi-leveled hierarchy of discourses, forms, images, styles that used to permeate the entire system of official language (*be swept*) by the linguistic revolutions of the Renaissance.

Exercise 17. Select the correct tense of the verb in brackets.

1. They walked out of the house on a gray winter morning. The smog (*was making/made*) their eyes tear. 2. Christmas cards made from recycled paper (*were selling/sold*) well all through last week. 3. The polls (*show/are showing*) a promising tendency among the urban population. 4. Scientists (*have warned/have been warning*) us about air pollution for years. 5. Our town (*had recycled/had been recycling*) paper and bottles for years before New York State (*was introducing/introduced*) recycling regulations. Because more people (*start/are starting*) to recycle, we (*shall expect/shall be expecting*) more buyers to shop for recyclable products. Next May the town recycling center (*will operate/will have been operating*) for ten years. 6. He (*spends/has been spending*) most of his time in the country lately. 7. This classroom (*holds/is holding*) 50 students. 8. John (*lacks/is lacking*) confidence. 9. Today I (*shall speak/shall be speaking*) about the role of recycling in an urban household. 10. The Dean has just fired his new secretary. He (*types/is typing*) his memos himself. — Good for him. I always (*am typing/type*) all my papers myself.

Exercise 18. Translate the following sentences into English, using various ways of referring to the future.

1. Если наши партнеры не подпишут соглашение, нам придется снизить цены.
2. Космический шаттл приземлится в субботу.
3. Мне будет трудно выполнить все эти инструкции. — Не беспокойся, я тебе помогу.
4. Небо покрыто тучами; будет дождь.
5. Если вы будете так любезны дать рецензию на эту статью, редакция непременно упомянет ваше имя.
6. Маловероятно, что представители этого движения победят на выборах.
7. Когда этот спортсмен приобретет побольше опыта, он станет одним из ведущих игроков команды.
8. Завтра, как обычно, заведующий кафедрой будет читать лекции с девяти до двенадцати часов.
9. Каковы ваши планы на выходные? — К нам приезжают знакомые из Минска; в субботу мы с ними погуляем по городу, а в воскресенье поедем на Финский залив.
10. Поторопись! Вот-вот начнется регистрация билетов на твой рейс.
11. В два часа здесь будет фургон для перевозки мебели (*removal van*). Мы успеем упаковать компьютер и микроволновую печь?
12. Налоговому инспектору придется проверить огромное количество документов.
13. Когда я напишу курсовую работу, можно будет пару дней отдохнуть.
14. Похоже, нынешняя зима будет очень суровой.
15. Стэнли талантлив и трудолюбив; где бы он ни работал, ему будет сопутствовать успех.
16. Ваши усилия будут вознаграждены, поверьте моему слову.
17. В начале следующей недели делегации ряда европейских государств прибудут в Рим для обсуж-

дения международных экологических программ. 18. На следующей неделе будет год, как мы даем объявления о продаже этого дома. 19. Я смогу пользоваться адресом вашей электронной почты, пока вы будете в отъезде? 20. Мы проследим, чтобы нашим гостям подавали только вегетарианские блюда. 21. Актеру придется отрастить бороду, чтобы его персонаж напоминал русского купца. 22. Наша галерея не рискнет выставлять эти шедевры за рубежом — если, конечно, вы не застрахуете их на весьма значительную сумму.

Exercise 19. Study the verb forms in the following utterances and decide whether the speaker sounds neutral, polite, or annoyed:

1. When will you be coming to see us again?
2. When will you have the next meeting?
3. Usually Bill plans our meetings.
4. John is always coming late.
5. Bill sets up the agenda and assigns the speakers.
6. John is continually abstaining from supporting any decisions we make here.

Exercise 20. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the use of the past perfect and the past perfect progressive.

1. Как только я постучал, дверь сразу распахнулась, как будто кто-то уже ждал меня.
2. Я знал, что они познакомились лет десять тому назад и все это время переписывались.
3. В саду было сыро и холодно. Дождь шел уже несколько часов.
4. Ее лицо было бледным, веки припухли и покраснели. Я понял, что она снова плакала.
5. Телефон звонил уже несколько минут, когда диспетчер наконец взял трубку.
6. Режиссер уже много лет хотел написать воспоминания, но работа в театре почти не оставляла свободного времени.
7. Когда он вернулся, мы постарались сделать вид, что говорили не о нем.
8. Мэри поставила пирог в духовку и села передохнуть. Дети, которые играли в саду, вбежали на кухню посмотреть, что она делает.
9. Я понял, что брат уже давно обдумывает мое предложение, но пока еще не обсудил его с женой.
10. Питер сказал, что он весь день готовился к докладу и никуда не выходил, однако не слышал моего звонка.
11. Управляющий часа два расспрашивал меня обо всех деталях этого плана, прежде чем согласился поддержать его.
12. Мы жили в новом доме уже месяц, когда впервые увидели наших соседей. Они были в отъезде.
13. Я сразу понял, что мой преподаватель французского не узнал меня, ведь мы не виделись лет десять.
14. Интересно, почему он не хотел, чтобы его родители знали, что он делал и с кем встречался все это время.
15. По его

мокрым волосам мать сразу поняла, что Том плавал в бассейне, хотя она запретила ему купаться одному. 16. Когда я наконец добрался до дома, моя семья уже давно обсуждала предстоящее путешествие. 17. Эмма была очень утомлена, так как целый день ходила по городу в поисках работы. 18. На ней было то же платье, что и в тот день, когда они познакомились. 19. Когда он утром спустился в гостиную, она была ярко освещена. Кто-то забыл выключить свет, и он горел всю ночь. 20. Джон, который уже давно с нетерпением поглядывал на часы, вдруг встал и выбежал из комнаты.

Exercise 21. Select the verb form that best suits the meaning of the sentence. If there is more than one possible answer, be prepared to explain the differences in meaning between them.

A recent poll (*reveals / has been revealing*) that more than 80 percent of people (*believe / will be believing*) kissing spreads colds. Fortunately, this belief (*proves / has been proven*) false. Doctors at a large New York medical center recently (*have conducted / are conducting*) research concerning the common cold. The interviewed hundreds of people who (*had been catching / had caught*) a cold during the previous year. The researchers concluded that cold viruses are most likely to be communicated when a person (*has / will have had*) hand contact with someone who is sick. People who conscientiously (*wash / are washing*) their hands significantly (*reduce / are reducing*) the danger of catching a cold. Through various tests and observations, doctors (*discover / are discovering*) that exposure to cold weather (*does / did*) not make a person (*catch / have been catching*) a cold. During the past decade, the American economy (*loses / has lost*) more than five million dollars per year from lost wages and medical expenses due to common cold. Unfortunately, no cure (*has been discovered / is being discovered*) for this persistent illness. By the time a miracle drug (*has been found / was being found*) millions of Americans (*are spending / will have spent*) millions of dollars in trying to relieve their miseries.

Exercise 22. Use the correct form of the verbs given.

(A letter by a young lady to her lover, who sent her a telegram some days ago saying that he could not visit her because of an accident.)

Your telegram made me very unhappy. Not merely because of the accident — though it made me shudder to think that something terrible might (*happen*), poor darling — but also, selfishly, because of my own disappointment: I (*look*) forward to your visit so much. I (*make*) a picture of it all so clearly. I (*meet*) you at the station with the horse and trap from the Chequers, and we (*drive*) back to the cottage — and

you (*love*) the cottage. We (*have*) tea and I (*make*) you eat an egg with it after your journey. Then we (*go*) for a walk; through the most heavenly wood I (*find*) yesterday to a place where there (*be*) a wonderful view — miles and miles of it. And we (*wander*) on and on, and (*sit*) down under the trees, and the sun (*set*), and the twilight (*come*) slowly to an end, and we (*go*) home again and (*find*) the lamps lighted and supper ready — not very grand, I (*be*) afraid, for Mrs Vole (*be* — negative) the best of cooks. And then the piano; for there (*be*) a piano, and I (*have*) the tuner come specially from Hastings yesterday, so that it (*be* — negative) bad now. And you (*play*); and perhaps I (*make*) my noises on it. And at last it (*be*) time for candles and bed. When I (*hear*) you (*come*), Theodore, I (*tell*) Mrs Vole a lie about you. I (*say*) you (*be*) my husband, because she (*be*) fearfully respectable, of course; and it (*disturb*) dreadfully her if you (*be* — negative). But I told myself that, too. I (*mean*) that you (*be*). You (*see*), I (*tell*) you everything. I (*be* — negative) ashamed. I (*want*) to give you everything I could, and then we (*be*) always together, loving each other. And I (*be*) your slave, I (*be*) your property and (*live*) inside your life. But you (*have*) always to love me.

And then, just as I (*get*) ready to go and call at the Chequers for the horse and trap, your telegram (*come*). I (*see*) the word "accident", and I (*imagine*) your all bleeding and smashed — oh, dreadful, dreadful. But then, when you (*seem*) to make rather a joke of it — why you (*say*) "a little indisposed"? that (*seem*), somehow, so stupid, I (*think*) — and (*say*) you (*come*) tomorrow, it (*be* — negative) that which (*upset*) me: it (*be*) the dreadful, dreadful disappointment; it (*hurt*) so terribly, so unreasonably much. It (*make*) me cry and cry, so that I (*think*) I (*be*) never able to stop. And then, gradually, I (*begin*) to see that the pain of the disappointment wasn't unreasonably great. It (*be* — negative) merely a question of your coming being put off for a day; it (*be*) a question of its being put off for ever, of my never seeing you again. I (*see*) that that accident (*be*) something really arranged by Providence. It (*be meant*) to warn me and show me what I ought to do. I (*see*) how hopelessly impracticable the happiness I (*imagine*) really (*be*). I (*see*) that you (*do* — negative), you (*can* — negative) love me in anything like the same way as I (*love*) you. I (*be*) only a curious adventure, a new experience, a means to some other end. Mind, I (*blame* — negative) you in the least. I only (*tell*) you what (*be*) true, what I (*come*) gradually to realize as true. If you (*come*) — what then? I (*give*) you everything, my body, my mind, my soul, my whole life. I (*twist*) myself into the treads of your life. And then, when in due course you (*want*) to make an end to this curious little adventure, you (*have*) to cut the tangle and it (*kill*) me; it also (*hurt*) you. At least I (*think*) it would. In the end I thanked God for the accident which (*prevent*) you coming. In this way Providence lets us off very lightly — you with a bruise or two (for I (*do*) hope it really (*be*) nothing, my precious dar-

ling), and me with a bruise inside, round the heart. But both (get) well quite soon. And all our lives, we (have) an afternoon under the trees, an evening of music and in the darkness, a night, an eternity of happiness, to look back on. I (go) away from Robertsbridge at once. Good-bye, Theodore. What a long letter! The last you (get) ever from me. The last — what a dreadful hurting word that (be). I (take) it to post at once, for fear, if I (leave) it, I (may) be weak enough to change my mind and let you come to-morrow. I (take) it at once, then I (come) home again and (pack) up and (tell) some new fib to Mrs Vole. And after that, perhaps I (allow) myself to cry again. Good-bye.

(After A. Huxley)

Exercise 23. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the sequence of tenses.

1. Мисс Браун подумала, что, если она даже и расскажет о том, что с ней произошло, ей никто не поверит.
2. Они не были уверены, захочет ли Джек поехать с ними.
3. Джоан рассказывала, что недавно получила письмо, в котором говорилось, что Генри убит на войне.
4. Я понял, что Патриция что-то знает, но по какой-то причине не хочет говорить.
5. Когда Мэри вошла в комнату, мать спросила ее, что она делала в саду, и Мэри ответила, что играла с собакой.
6. Она очень хотела, чтобы то, о чем они с подругой говорили последние месяцы, когда-нибудь сбылось.
7. Интересно, о чем она сейчас думает?
8. Я не мог понять, кто же написал это письмо.
9. Тетя Эмили сказала нам, что Джон, вероятно, дома.
10. Она решила позвонить Тэду и сообщить ему, что видела его сестру и что та спрашивала, как у него дела и почему он ей так давно не писал.
11. Кристина почувствовала, что становится холодно, и спросила себя, сколько еще придется ждать.
12. Дэлени спросил меня, сколько лет моей сестре.
13. Кстати, Мартин вчера сообщил мне, что Анна уже приехала из Германии.
14. Сьюзан сказала, что недавно переехала в новый дом и сейчас покупает мебель, но боится, что ей не хватит денег, чтобы купить все необходимое.
15. Я вспомнил, что уже видел эту актрису в каком-то спектакле.
16. Поднявшись на третий этаж, я увидел незнакомого мужчину, который стоял у моей двери. Я спросил, что ему нужно, и он ответил, что подошел минут пять назад и все это время звонил в дверь. Позже выяснилось, что он перепутал номер квартиры.
17. Я же говорил тебе, что не люблю рыбу.
18. Марта встретила своего брата в обувном магазине, куда зашла купить крем для обуви, и спросила, что он собирается покупать. Брат ответил, что зашел просто посмотреть, и что они могут сделать это вместе. Но Марта сказала, что у нее мало времени и что ей еще нужно будет зайти в супермаркет за продуктами.
19. Войдя в комнату и увидев

лица своих друзей, Люси поняла, что они только что спорили. 20. Филипп пообещал, что поможет нам собрать малину, как только освободится. 21. М-р Блэк был удивлен, что его любимая команда так плохо выступила на чемпионате, ведь до сих пор она играла прекрасно. 22. Я купил банку пива и хотел было утолить жажду, но мой приятель остановил меня, объяснив, что пить пиво на улице запрещено и что меня могут оштрафовать. 23. По радио объявили, что снег, который шел с понедельника, прекратится и что нас ожидает ясная морозная погода. Мы решили поехать кататься на лыжах.

7. THE PASSIVE VOICE

Exercise 1. Turn the following sentences into the passive voice, omitting the words in brackets. Note that the agent of the action in these passive sentences need not be mentioned as it is obvious/has been already mentioned or not known/important.

1. (*Students*) often confuse the meanings of these words. 2. (*The police*) arrested her for speeding. 3. (*You*) will know the tree by its fruit. 4. Fortunately, (*no one*) had said anything about it. 5. (*His friends*) have warned him about it. 6. (*The police*) kept the man in custody. 7. (*People*) waste a lot of time on small talk. 8. (*They*) do not admit children under sixteen to watch this picture. 9. (*We*) have already filled the vacancy. 10. I am sure (*nobody*) will ever discover my mistake. 11. (*We*) do not allow smoking here. 12. I hope (*they*) will have arranged the time-table of our exams by the end of May. 13. (*People*) are always blaming circumstances. 14. The secret agent knew that (*somebody*) was following him. 15. (*The population*) will feel the full impact of the strike, by which time (*they*) will have exhausted present stocks. 16. (*The manager*) summoned Tom, strongly reprimanded him, and threatened with immediate dismissal if (*he*) ever did the same thing again. 17. (*Her lawyer*) had instructed her to moderate her tone. 18. (*The committee*) were discussing this question when I joined in the conversation. 19. In hospital (*they*) were treating her for a stomach ulcer. 20. (*Some people*) wrongly believe antibiotics to be a panacea for common colds. 21. As (*they*) have destroyed the original, I've got only a copy of this document. 22. (*The office*) didn't inform the passengers that (*they*) had withdrawn the train from service. 23. Didn't (*anyone*) tell you that (*we*) do not allow people into the area unless (*they*) produce a certificate of inoculation? 24. All over the west (*upper classes*) have replaced God with respectability and air-condition-

ing. 25. (*The landlady*) threw that bed away because (*tenants*) had broken its springs.

Exercise 2. Put the verb in brackets into the correct tense of the passive voice.

I. 1. The principle of bottling is very simple. Food (*put*) in jars, the jars and their contents (*heat*) to a temperature which (*Maintain*) long enough to ensure that all bacteria and viruses (*destroy*). Then the jars (*seal*) air-tight and (*store*) in cool storage. 2. I think we might have a snack while our car (*wash*). 3. The company says that the production figures (*fall*) short of expectation. 4. We bitterly (*disappoint*) when we lost our court action. 5. At the coming examination the passage (*read*) to you only once. 6. You cannot possibly see our President right now. He (*interview*) by a team of journalists. 7. Further information immediately (*forward*) to you when it is available. 8. When we returned to our hotel, our room (*clean*) and we had to wait in the lobby. 9. When you press this red knob, an electronic alarm system (*activate*) and no one will be able to enter this building unnoticed. 10. More and more forged visas and invitations to foreign countries (*use*) by Russian people to enter western countries.

II. There has been another rail crash in Scotland. The crash occurred last night in freezing fog outside Glasgow. Four people (*kill*) instantly and at least ten people (*injure*) badly. The railway lines (*not clear*) thoroughly yet and a number of trains (*delay*) considerably.

III. Heavy snow has fallen in the North of England. Many roads (*block*) completely and traffic (*bring*) to a standstill. One town, Castlepool in Yorkshire, (*cut*) entirely off. Supplies (*drop*) urgently into the town by air later this afternoon.

Exercise 3. Complete the paragraphs. Put in the verb in the correct tense of the passive voice. Choose between *BY* and *WITH*.

Stonewall Hall

The building at the top of Chestnut Street is Stonewall Hall.

1. It ... in 1825 and today it ... as the finest Georgian building in the county (*build, regard*). 2. Its architectural design ... (*by/with*) Michael Swift but the construction process ... (*by/with*) his student and assistant James Cork (*conceive, direct*). 3. A number of changes ... since it was built, but the front of the building ... (*make, not change*). 4. It ... still (*by/with*) a set of beautiful Renaissance statues that ... from stone about three hundred years before they ... into the portico of Stonewall Hall (*decorate, carve, mount*). 5. Today the Hall ... (*by/with*) Barclay Council, and for the last ten years it ... as a home for Barclay Exhibition Centre (*own, use*). 6. At the moment it ... (*by/with*) exhibits that introduce us to the world of local folk art. Another exposition ... currently

there (*by/with*) a group of county industrialists. Lots of consumer goods produced locally ... at this new display (*fill, organise, present*).

Exercise 4. Translate the following sentences into English, using the passive voice forms where possible.

I. 1. Завтрак подается в восемь утра. 2. Мы поговорим об этом, пока готовится обед. 3. На Рождество и в Новый год потребляется огромное количество алкогольных напитков. 4. Большинство овощей станут мягкими (*mushy*), если их переварить (*over-cook*). 5. Здесь вас обслужат по высшему разряду (*in style*). 6. Этот дом строится уже два года. 7. Все будет сделано к концу будущего года. 8. Я уверена, что моё имя будет внесено в словарь «Кто есть кто». 9. Тюльпаны высаживаются осенью.

II. (*Отрывок из письма*) «...У меня печальные новости. Мои жигули, на которых я проездил больше 10 лет, угнали а затем варварски разбили (*vandalize*). Не оставили целым (*to leave intact*) ни одного стекла. Двигатель и колеса, конечно, сняли на запасные части (*take for spare parts*)».

Exercise 5. A large company is explaining how well it looks after its employees. Put the following sentences into the passive voice. Note that the information in *italics* is important.

1. We offer *company shares* to most employees. 2. We teach our staff *many useful work skills*. 3. Our company allows *six weeks' holiday* to all employees. 4. We give opportunities *to people with initiative*. 5. The company pays *bonuses* to people who work extra hours. 6. We give help to *people moving house*. 7. The company grants their new *executives low-interest mortgage loans to buy houses*. 8. We pay a sum of money *to women who leave to have children*.

Exercise 6. Translate these sentences into English, paying attention to the passive voice forms of ditransitive verbs.

1. Мне пообещали очень интересную работу. 2. Эту работу предложили мне, а не вам. 3. Ключ от комнаты должен сдаваться в бюро обслуживания (*receptionist*). 4. Вам уже передали мою записку? 5. Нам купили новое оборудование. 6. В этом году высшую премию (*the top prize*) не присудили никому. 7. Я уверена, что рано или поздно мне присудят Нобелевскую премию. 8. Вам только что повторили эти слова. 9. Одному из министров прислали на днях почтой бомбу (*a letter bomb*). 10. Это письмо прислано мне! 11. Мне продиктовали номер телефона. 12. Наша компания надеется, что нам предоставят заём. 13. Наконец мне предо-

ставили въездную визу. 14. Нам хорошо описали его внешность. 15. Вчера нам показали очень интересный фильм. 16. Эти документы показали всем журналистам.

Exercise 7. Translate the following sentences into Russian, paying attention to rendering passive voice forms.

1. The loss of such a huge sum of money should be immediately accounted for. 2. The delegates' common sense was appealed to when other arguments failed to reason with them. 3. A new set of general election is being called for by the opposition. 4. (*A notice*) Weddings are catered for here. 5. The team is so short of experienced players that some footballers from the reserve will have to be called on. 6. Your room is like an old curiosity shop, and I believe a lot of these curiosities can be easily disposed of. 7. Price reductions are longed for, but unlikely. 8. Has every member of the family been equally provided for? 9. Your knee ought to be seen to, it can get much worse. 10. (*A notice in a restaurant*) You are waited on the moment you blink your eye.

Exercise 8. Match the following phrasal verbs with the definitions given below. Make up sentences with these phrasal verbs used in the passive voice.

to insist on	to touch on	to lose sight of
to break into	to talk down to	to bargain for
to dispose of	to rely on	to cater for
to look for	to let down	to look forward to
	to refer to	

1. To mention the name of somebody or something; to talk about somebody or something. 2. To try to find something. 3. To force one's way into a locked building, etc. 4. To depend upon with confidence. 5. To expect and hope to enjoy something. 6. To make a protest against something. 7. To be no longer able to see something or someone. 8. To speak to someone as if they are less important or clever than oneself, so as to place oneself at a seemingly higher level. 9. To treat briefly. 10. To try to obtain (goods) at a cheap price. 11. To declare emphatically that something cannot be changed. 12. To provide a person or a group with all the things that they need. 13. To get rid of something that you no longer need by throwing it away. 14. To be disloyal, to disappoint somebody.

Exercise 9. Put the following sentences into the passive voice. Mention the agent only where it is necessary.

1. They lost sight of the boat. 2. In school teachers often found fault with me. 3. Has the company properly provided for the safety of the

workers? 4. We haven't heard of him since he left our town. 5. This railway guide is quite new and you can rely on it. 6. My boss is such a slob! I cannot put up with his outrageous manners. 7. The Prime Minister strongly insisted on his decision. 8. Your leather shoes will last longer if you take proper care of them. 9. You must wait for permission to enter. 10. They looked after my mother pretty well in hospital. 11. The police and the villagers are looking for the missing child. 12. Please don't wear that terrible suit; people will laugh at you. 13. I know that the director thinks highly of your work. 14. If they had listened to me, they wouldn't be in trouble now. 15. We agreed on all the terms.

Exercise 10. Fill in the blanks with suitable prepositions/adverbs. Translate the sentences into Russian, paying attention to phrasal verbs.

1. This map is highly inaccurate and it can hardly be relied.... 2. The conservation of energy was desperately appealed ... by a group of environmentalists. 3. Children can always tell when they are being talked, and they hate it. 4. The causes of war between Teflonia and The Banana Federation was only slightly touched ... in the book written by Professor Ignoramus. 5. Your relatives can hardly be counted ... to help you out of trouble. 6. "Can I help you sir?" — "No, thanks, I'm already being attended 7. Cheating, feeding answers and copying from other students' exercise books is generally looked in schools. 8. The discovery of a new drug was only briefly referred ... in the report. 9. There are a lot of difficulties that have to be dealt ... when you are starting a new business. 10. Such behaviour cannot be put any longer.

Exercise 11. Answer the following questions using the passive voice of the suggested verbs. The italicized noun groups are the subjects of your answers.

1. No one can attend the *meeting on that date*. What could be done to solve the problem? (отложить) 2. What must be done if a *plan* or an *idea* proves unworkable? (отказаться) 3. What might you do if you are not happy about *the price* of the thing you are going to buy at a flea market? (торговаться) 4. What will you tell your husband/wife if you want to know about *every penny* he/she spends? (читываться) 5. What will *you* feel if your best friend has left you with your boy/girl friend? (подводить) 6. *The weather in England* is very unstable and you may not depend on it. You can say that ... (полагаться). 7. What will you say about *somebody's bad spelling*? (обратить внимание) 8. What will you say if your Mom cannot choose between red and green *colours* for the kitchen and you are going to buy the

paint tomorrow? (остановиться на ... , решиться) 9. What will you do if your toilet is leaking and you desperately need *a plumber* to come? (вызывать) 10. What will you say if you cannot bear this brutal treatment? (мириться).

Exercise 12. Translate these sentences into English, paying attention to phrasal verbs and verbs with fixed prepositions.

1. Вряд ли можно одобрить подобное решение. 2. В этом году в России надеются на рекордный урожай (*harvest*). 3. На прогнозы погоды нельзя твердо полагаться. 4. В этом доме не живут. 5. На этот доклад часто ссылаются. 6. (*В ресторане*) Когда нас здесь обслужат? 7. Над его глупой ошибкой много смеялись. 8. Плохо, когда на бедных и больных смотрят свысока. 9. Его прооперировали сразу после того, как доставили в больницу. 10. В нашей стране с коррупцией так еще и не покончили. 11. На его слово нельзя положиться. 12. За электромонтером послали, как только перегорели пробки (*the lights had fused*). 13. О нем ничего не слышно с тех пор, как он уехал.

Exercise 13. Turn the following sentences into the passive voice using *(to) BE + participle II* after modal verbs/modal expressions. Make the italicized word(s) the subject of your sentence.

1. We cannot repair *your clock*. 2. You must not touch *this switch*. 3. Somebody should throw *this rubbish* away. 4. You must keep *dogs* on leads in the gardens. 5. We cannot avoid *such events*. 6. You should give *the money* back at once. 7. Members of the library may keep *books* for three weeks. After that they must return *them*. 8. How can the government create *more jobs* when the economy is in stagnation? 9. Passengers shouldn't throw away their *tickets* as inspectors may check *them* during the journey. 10. You cannot reserve *seats* in our restaurant. 11. One should check *the details* before one may take *any decision*. 12. We mustn't move *this man*; he is too ill. We'll have to leave *him* here. 13. *What* should we do in such *cases*? 14. The authorities had to isolate *the nuclear power station* because of the atomic leak. 15. Parents are to keep *these tablets* out of the reach of children. 16. Do you think we should consult *a lawyer* on this matter? 17. You may take *it* for granted that they will ask *this question* during the interview.

Exercise 14. Change the following sentences into the passive voice, making the italicized word(s) the subject of your sen-

tence. Put the adverbs of manner immediately before or after the participle.

1. I can easily arrange *this meeting*.
2. We badly need *new laws* in this country.
3. Mother dressed the *children* lightly but warmly that day.
4. FBI agents thoroughly checked *all entrances and exits*.
5. We've got no running water now as they are urgently repairing *our water-supply system*.
6. Our director will highly appreciate *your instant reply*.
7. They treated *him* badly in school and he retained no happy memories of his childhood.
8. The newspapers praised *this new TV show* very much.
9. We shall immediately discuss *your new proposal*.
10. At our last board meeting we very critically considered *your proposal*.
11. Nobody has ever seriously challenged *the President's authority in this matter*.
12. We demand that you should pay *the agreed sum* instantly.

Exercise 15. Ask questions about the italicized words.

1. *This tongue-twister* can't be easily repeated.
2. *All flights* were cancelled because of *heavy fog*.
3. For a long time *earth* was believed to be flat.
4. *Good wine* should be opened *about three hours before it is used*.
5. *He* was brought up by *his aunt*.
6. *New import taxes* were introduced *last month* on bringing cars in to Russia.
7. *Homeopathic remedies* can be effectively used *when treating colds*.
8. I was startled by *his anger*.
9. *A number of attempts* have been made to find the Loch Ness monster.

Exercise 16. Make up sentences. putting the words into the correct order.

1. For, here, been, he, ages, seen, hasn't.
2. of, world, when, end, expected, is, the, the.
3. Papers, safely, be, these, locked, strictly, confidential, should.
4. From us, often, has, about, truth, our past, been, concealed, the.
5. June, the, for, of, scheduled, meeting, the first, is.
6. Doors, eagerly, all, opened, for, are, me.
7. Suddenly, heated, argument, engulfed, with, was, I, mother-in-law, my, into, a.
8. Often, be, taken, this, how, medicine, should.

Exercise 17. Put in the preposition *BY* or *WITH*.

- I. The phonograph was invented ... Edison.
2. In the past such calculations were done ... slide rules; now they are done ... computers.
3. We were worried ... mosquitoes all night.
4. He is hated ... so many and loved ... so few.
5. Two birds can't be killed ... one stone.
6. The fire was caused ... a short circuit.
7. The Moscow meeting will be overshadowed ... huge debts that Russia owes to foreign banks.
8. I failed to get here on time as the traffic was jammed ... cars.
9. My

cottage is surrounded ... a deep green lawn. 10. We were brought together ... our mutual liking. 11. I believe that too little money is being spent ... the government on roads. 12. The walls of the room were decorated ... water colour sketches. 13. Hell is paved ... good intentions. 14. Her head is stuffed ... things she doesn't understand. 15. His blue sweater was darned at the elbows ... a thick black woollen thread. 16. At the press conference the Prime Minister was bombarded ... questions.

Exercise 18. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of the prepositions *BY* and *WITH*.

1. Этот двигатель питается (power) постоянным током.
2. Ящик был заполнен пустыми бутылками.
3. У меня голова забита разными грамматическими правилами.
4. Север страны был опустошен (overrun) наступающими войсками.
5. Улицы Санкт-Петербурга освещались электричеством ещё в начале XX века.
6. Магазины были запружены (throng) покупателями.
7. Многое скрывается от нас пустыми словами и обещаниями.
8. Я не знал, что ваше решение было мотивировано такими серьезными соображениями.

Exercise 19. Supply passive voice forms. Use the GET-passive form only where it is possible.

1. He (*catch*) by the police when he was driving through Cambridge at 60.
2. It was early autumn, but snow started all of a sudden and the hills (*cover*) with a white coat in no time.
3. It was late winter and the hills (*cover*) with deep snow.
4. Parliament (*open*) by the Queen last week.
5. My brother (*hit*) by a tennis ball at Wimbledon last Sunday.
6. I was in a hurry and (*dress*) in no time.
7. My Granny (*frighten*) out of her life when she saw me balancing on the edge of the window sill.
8. More and more people (*attack*) in the streets at night now.
9. The most famous pyramids (*built*) around AD 400.
10. Its upsetting when a person (*punish*) for something that he hasn't done.
11. I always (*choose*) for the unpleasant jobs.
12. In our green years this room (*share*) by the two of us.
13. Her back (*burn*) by excessive sun-bathing.
14. "Why didn't the policeman open fire?" — "He wasn't armed. Guns (*carry*) by English policemen only in special circumstances."

Exercise 20. Look at these newspaper headlines and write the first sentence of the newspaper article. Use the GET-passive in the present perfect or the present progressive. Mention the agent of the action where suitable.

POST OFFICE LOSES IMPORTANT DOCUMENT
THIEVES STEALING MORE BICYCLES, SAY POLICE
NEW SCANDAL BREAKS PRESIDENT'S REPUTATION
HEAVY LORRIES DAMAGING MOTOR WAYS
TERRORISTS HIJACK RUSSIAN AIRLINER
VANDALS KNOCK MONUMENT DOWN
STORM BLOWS OFF ROOF
TWO KIDS FIND PIRATES' TREASURE
COMPANIES PAYING INDUSTRIAL WORKERS HIGHER WAGES
HOOLIGANS ASSAULTING MORE YOUNG WOMEN
BIG BUSINESS BLACKMAILS GOVERNMENT
CITY COLLEGE EXPELLING SIX STUDENTS
UK LOSES SEMI-FINAL IN STUTTGART
DEALERS SELLING MORE CARS IN MOSCOW

Exercise 21. Translate the following sentences into Russian, paying attention to rendering the passive voice forms in the subject complement.

1. Turner was considered to be a genius even in his lifetime. 2. It is feared that many lives have been lost in the train crash. 3. She is said to know everything about this project. 4. There is said to be plenty of oil off our coast. 5. Mr Bond is generally recognized as a top-class secret agent. 6. This remedy is believed to be very effective. 7. There is supposed to be a train at 11. 25. 8. His motives are alleged to be purely financial. 9. It was suggested that we do it at once. 10. I was mistakenly assumed to be a Pole because of my surname. 11. There are believed to be thousands of ways to make a fortune.

Exercise 22. Report the information contained in these sentences by using passive constructions with the verbs of saying and believing.

1. The Prime Minister and his wife are getting divorced (*allege*).
2. Our language teacher earns \$ 1 million a year (*rumour*). 3. The President has suffered a heart attack (*report*). 4. The bridge is unsafe (*fear*).
5. There are large gold deposits located under St.Petersburg (*say*). 6. The end of the world will come soon (*expect*). 7. They have bedlock without wedlock (*believe*). 8. There is a zombie in their group (*feel*). 9. Power corrupts, and absolute power corrupts absolutely (*know*). 10. Love is like the measles — all the worse when it comes late in life (*think*).

Exercise 23. Translate into English, using reporting verbs in the passive voice.

1. Говорят, что у него двенадцать детей. 2. Сообщается, что Лох-Несское чудовище поймано. 3. Общепризнанно, что история

повторяется. 4. Общеизвестно, что курить вредно. 5. Доказано, что ум — хорошо, а два лучше. 6. Существуют опасения, что у нас скоро опять будут экзамены. 7. Утверждается, будто бы в будущем году будет 362 дня. 8. Объявлено, что этот кандидат в члены парламента практически здоров. 9. Известно, что он сердцеед. 10. Чувствуется, что он пьющий человек. 11. Ожидается, что мы все станем состоятельными людьми. 12. Существует надежда, что мы всё преодолеем.

Exercise 24. Distinguish between actional and statal passives.

1. "Have you met Wyndham Earl before?" — "No, I don't think we *are acquainted* with each other." — "Once you *get acquainted* with him, I'm sure you'll change your mind about lots of things." 2. I'm happy to say that the compromise *has been* finally *reached*. Now that the compromise *is reached*, we can go on discussing other items of the agenda. 3. The works *are located* in the outskirts of the city. I'm afraid Mr Cooper cannot *be immediately located*. 4. His qualities of leadership *are entirely misdirected*. Passengers for half a dozen flights *had been misdirected* to the same gate. 5. The information retrieval system in our office *is being* currently *computerized*. Our publishing office *is fully computerized*. 6. Our manager *was fatally wounded* in a bank robbery. He *is fatally wounded* and is not likely to regain consciousness. 7. The office *was evidently broken in* through the back door. It *was broken* with a sledgehammer. His arm *was broken* in many places

Exercise 25. Distinguish between actional and statal passives in the following text.

Guide to Jewellery

What you pay for

The price of a piece of jewellery *is determined* by two factors: materials and the hours of work that *are spent* in its making. Intricate design can require days or even weeks of skilled work, and the goldsmith, like any other craftsman, charges his work at an hourly rate. Materials such as gold and precious stones *are governed* by world market prices.

What to look for

When you have found a piece of jewellery you like, look at it under the magnifying glass. A well-made piece will surprise you with the precision of the details and the care with which even the reverse is *finished*.

Gold

Because this rare metal *can be found* in pure form in nature, is pleasing and workable, and does not tarnish or corrode, it was one of

the first metals to attract man's attention. Artefacts made from gold are found in many ancient civilizations, and from the beginning gold was also used as money. The purity of gold is measured in carats (in contrast to precious stones, where the carat is a measure of weight). Pure gold is called 24 carat. Gold used for jewellery is generally 18 carat and is alloyed with silver or other metals which can produce white, yellow and reddish hues. Recently "blue gold" has been marketed for jewellery in modern design. Its blue colour is obtained by a thermic process and can be used for dazzling effects.

Exercise 26. Translate the following sentences into Russian, paying attention to the use of the verb forms in italics.

1. Cotton blankets are less warm and don't wear as well as woollen ones.
2. The thermometers are reading 30 degrees in the shade.
3. This photo wants touching up.
4. His advice deserves acting on.
5. Drunkenness at work is a very serious matter that needs looking into.
6. The engine was running smoothly.
7. When the water has boiled let it cool a little before adding any food concentrates.
8. The lorry backed and crashed into a lamp-post.
9. Does your new car drive smoothly?
10. The population growth has considerably slowed.
11. The current agreement ends on December 21st.
12. This year the snow and ice had melted long before spring came.
13. Although nylon washes well and does not need ironing, most people refuse to wear it nowadays.
14. The article says that inflation is likely to be curbed in the near future.
15. The novel describes the adventures of two teenagers in Africa.
16. The notice read: "No Loitering".

8. MOOD AND MODALITY

Exercise 1. Translate into English using "formulaic subjunctive"

1. Я далек от мысли не доверять вам.
2. К черту политику и политиков!
3. Да здравствует свобода!
4. Достаточно сказать, что Джим так и не ответил на письмо.
5. Они вернулись, как бы это сказать, не совсем трезвыми.
6. Будь здоров, Сэм! Тебе стоит принять аспирин.
7. Покойный был добрым человеком. Мир праху его!
8. Будь это сам Принц Уэльский, я не позволю ему разговаривать подобным образом!
9. А вы играете в покер, миссис Сиддонс? — Боже упаси!
10. Что бы ни случилось, я не отступлю ни на шаг.
11. Пусть будет по-твоему. Я надеюсь, что ты знаешь, что делаешь.
12. Будь проклят Джон Сильвер! Разорви его на части!
13. Мы свяжемся с вами, если это потребуется.
14. Черт

возьми! Опять мотор не заводится. 15. Мой дядюшка, упокой, господи, его душу, был добрым помешником. 16. Уж если ты хочешь знать всю правду, то женился я ради ее состояния.

Exercise 2. React to the following statements, using "formulaic subjunctive" expressing wish or swearing:

1. Your tax declaration is due by the end of the week. —....
2. The astronauts are ready to take off, sir. —....
3. Chicago Bulls have lost a second game. —....
4. The boat is sinking, Jane. We may soon be dead. —....
5. I have made up my mind and I need your permission. —....
6. The damned computer has lost our file. —....
7. Bless him, Father, for he died a hero. —....
8. Atishoo! God, when will I stop sneezing! —....

Exercise 3. Paraphrase these sentences to express desirability, using object, subject, predicative, and attributive clauses.

E x a m p l e:

I suggest that the declaration (should) be adopted.

⇒ *It is essential that the declaration (should) be adopted.*

⇒ *My suggestion is that the declaration (should) be adopted.*

⇒ *I hope you will approve of my suggestion that the declaration (should) be adopted.*

1. Her original plan was that the guests should leave by midnight.
2. It is imperative that the election be held at the appointed time.
3. Both countries demand that the military exercises be held outside their territorial waters.
4. Nobody seems to agree with your idea that the ceremony should be put off till later.
5. It was vital that letter of the law should be observed.
6. The management's request that the report be handed in next Monday may be our end.
7. My final decision is that you two should work as a team.
8. Sarah insists that nobody should be told about their marriage.

Exercise 4. Translate into English, using analytical or synthetic forms of the verb; explain your choice.

1. Господа, я настаиваю на том, чтобы условия соглашения были пересмотрены.
2. Мне не очень нравится ее идея, чтобы каждый платил за себя.
3. Первоначальный план состоял в том, чтобы оборудование было куплено за границей.
4. Очень важно, чтобы ты научилась понимать, что можно делать, а чего нельзя.
5. Повстанцы требуют, чтобы их территорию признали суверенным государством.
6. Мне неприятна сама мысль о том, чтобы

Дженни публично извинилась. 7. Совершенно необходимо, чтобы никакая информация не попала в газеты. 8. Предлагаю вернуться к обсуждению этого вопроса завтра. 9. Твоя идея работать без перерыва только вызовет раздражение. 10. Мистер Филипс настаивает на полном изменении правил работы с документами.

Exercise 5. Translate into Russian, paying special attention to tense forms following *WISH*.

1. I wish I could speak several languages. 2. She began to wish she hadn't said it. 3. I wish I had a car of my own. 4. I wish you would be a little more careful in future. 5. He wished he had told them all the truth. 6. I wish I could help you. 7. We wish you wouldn't bring your friends to our house at two o'clock in the morning. 8. She suddenly wished she were at home and in bed.

Exercise 5. Translate these sentences, using *WISH*. Pay special attention to affirmative and negative forms.

1. Жаль, что я последовал его совету. 2. Жаль, что я не последовал его совету. 3. Жаль, что вы ушли так рано. 4. Жаль, что вы не ушли попозже. 5. Он пожалел, что пришел. 6. Он пожалел, что не пришел. 7. Как жаль, что ты уже видел этот фильм. 8. Как жаль, что ты еще не видел этого фильма. 9. Я жалею, что не пригласил ее. 10. Я жалею, что пригласил ее. 11. Жалко, что ты не написала им. 12. Жалко, что ты написала им. 13. Мне жаль, что я принял ваше приглашение. 14. Мне жаль, что я не принял вашего приглашения. 15. Жаль, что ты все им рассказала. 16. Жаль, что ты ничего им не рассказала.

Exercise 6. Complete these sentences, using *WISH* and *IF ONLY*. Explain your choice.

1. Будь у меня побольше денег! 2. К сожалению, я ничем не могу вам помочь. 3. Ах, если бы сейчас было лето! 4. Мне хотелось бы, чтобы вы избавились от этой привычки. 5. Зачем же я это сказал! 6. Ах, была бы я чуточку помоложе! 7. Мне не следовало вчера садиться играть в карты. 8. Жаль, что мне уже не шестнадцать лет. 9. Ах, отчего мне не шестнадцать! 9. Вот бы она замолчала!

Exercise 7. Translate these sentences, using *WISH* or *WOULD RATHER*. Explain your choice.

1. Н предпочла бы, чтобы вы воздерживались от подобных комментариев. 2. Жаль, что мы не смогли встретиться перед на-

чалом конференции. 3. Мне очень хотелось бы, чтобы мы посмотрели выставку вместе. 4. Мне было бы гораздо приятнее, если бы вы могли пойти со мной. 5. Джим уже жалел, что согласился прийти. 6. Жалко, что тебя не будет / ты не сможешь прийти. 7. Я бы предпочел, чтобы мы занялись наконец делом. 8. Как жаль, что мы не купили этот альбом в Сан-Франциско!

Exercise 8. Translate these sentences, using *IT'S (HIGH / ABOUT) TIME*.

1. Какой телевизор? Тебе давно пора быть в кровати! 2. Господи! Когда же кончится дождь? 3. Мэри, я думаю, нам уже пора. 4. Вам уже давно следует знать, что долги надо отдавать. 5. Не пора ли тебе перестать просить у матери денег? 6. Ей пора обратить внимание на свои зубы. 7. Им уже давным-давно нужно было бы купить компьютер. 8. Филу уже пора понять, что он не мальчишка.

Exercise 9. Complete these sentences, using *WISH / WOULD RATHER, IF ONLY, and IT'S (HIGH / ABOUT) TIME*.

1. ... I could sing like you do! 2. ... you would be a little more discreet. 3. ... Jack finished his speech; everybody is bored to death. 4. ... Sarah stayed at home, she's too small for the opera. 5. ... she wasn't here. Her presence makes me nervous. 6. ... I hadn't given that silly promise! 7. ... you knew the difference between a joke and an insult. 8. ... we could spend the evening together. Forget the party! 9. ... I hadn't tasted that sherry! It was awful! 10. ... you would be more polite to your mother-in law.

Exercise 10. Rewrite these sentences, using *WISH / WOULD RATHER, IF ONLY, and IT'S (HIGH / ABOUT) TIME*.

1. It's getting late. We ought to be leaving. 2. Please hurry up! 3. My parents would prefer me to marry somebody else. 4. Please stop making this terrible noise! 5. Why am I so damn stupid! 6. Unfortunately we don't know his decision. 7. Could I ask you not to smoke in bed. 8. He should be aware of these rules by now. 9. It's a pity you have to go. 10. Jim should find himself a regular job. 11. Why don't we talk about it later. 12. How idiotic of me to have given this promise!

Exercise 11. Think of appropriate sentences with *WISH / WOULD RATHER, IF ONLY, and IT'S (HIGH / ABOUT) TIME* to react to the following situations:

1. Your neighbour is mowing his lawn at six o'clock on a Sunday morning. —.... 2. Contrary to your advice, Anne had put all her money

on the horse that came last. — 3. The party is in full swing, but you have a hard day tomorrow. — 4. The tourist group to which you belong has decided to climb the Vesuvius. — 5. You are watching an undubbed Japanese movie and understand very little. — 6. Professor Bore has taught you for three months and still addresses you as "this young man in the front row". — 7. You bought a second hand car and it broke down after the first fifty miles. — 8. Your directly stated opinion has created quite a commotion in your office. —

Exercise 12. Translate into English, using different forms of expressing desirability.

1. Вот бы мне такую же шикарную машину! 2. Жизненно необходимо, чтобы малый бизнес пользовался государственной поддержкой. 3. Как жаль, что идет дождь. 4. Пожалуйста, перестаньте разговаривать! 5. Желательно, чтобы вы внимательно ознакомились со всеми документами. 6. Будь я на десять лет помоложе! 7. Мне понравился ее план собраться всем вместе на даче у Саши. 8. Я предпочла бы, чтобы вы предприняли эту поездку без меня. 9. Тебе уже давно следовало принять какое-нибудь решение. 10. Сандра предложила, чтобы мы встретились у Филармонии без четверти семь. 11. Она вдруг страшно пожалела, что согласилась участвовать в этом спектакле. 12. Я требую, чтобы он никогда больше не появлялся в нашем доме!

Exercise 13. Use appropriate forms of the infinitive after "emotional *SHOULD*".

1. It is disgusting that he should (*to waste*) money she earns for him! 2. I'm amazed she should (*to tell*) us as much as she did. 3. Isn't it weird that during all these years we should (*to live*) not two miles from each other? 4. And who should (*to answer*) the phone but Jack Higgins! 5. I'm sorry your name should (*to come*) forward in connection with this affair. 6. It doesn't strike me as odd that Lora should (*to treat*) like a little girl while she was in hospital. 7. I wonder why this matter should (*to get*) so much publicity. 8. It's a shame Fred should (*to get*) a C for his term paper. 9. It's perfectly natural that a man like him should (*to avoid*) paying taxes. 10. Isn't it strange that Bud should still (*to sleep*)?

Exercise 14. React to the following statements, using "emotional *SHOULD*":

1. This school is to be closed next year. — It's absurd that 2. I'm positive that Jake stole the papers. — I'm sorry that 3. We haven't seen Mike for days. — It strikes me as odd that 4. Lora claims she

has seen a ghost upstairs. — I wonder why 5. The local authorities are planning to demolish the church. — It's a shame that 6. Did you hear that Mary and Tom are getting married? — It's perfectly natural that 7. Fiona eats nothing but raw vegetables. — It really puzzles me how 8. I've been gambling, Dad, and I'm in debt. — I'm astonished how 9. What do you think about the proposed budget? — It's infuriating that 10. Somebody has put salt in my tea. — I wonder who

Exercise 15. Translate these sentences into English, using "emotional *SHOULD*".

1. Жаль, что ты так думаешь. 2. Подумать только, что мы встретились после стольких лет! 3. Не понимаю, почему она не сказала тебе всей правды. 4. Вот ведь до чего дошло! 5. С какой стати ему вас обманывать? 6. Смешно, что Джейн думает, будто я ей поверю. 7. Меня возмущает, что комитет проголосовал против вашего проекта. 8. И кто ты думаешь мне позвонил — Элис! 9. Обидно, что работу пришлось остановить после того, как было затрачено столько усилий. 10. И надо же этому случиться перед самыми экзаменами! 11. Удивительно, что она приняла все ваши условия. 12. С какой стати я буду тебе помогать?

Exercise 16. React to the following, using "emotional *SHOULD*":

1. John, I think you should pay for the broken window. — 2. Do you think Francis is capable of killing a woman? — 3. The Board of Directors has voted down our suggestion. — 4. Jane always finds an excuse not to go out with me. — 5. I can hardly believe you are completely candid with me. — 6. The Government is planning to raise the income tax. — 7. What do you think of the President's latest attack on Parliament? — 8. Mrs Reed says she'll call the police if we park our car here. —

Exercise 17. Fill in the blanks with suitable mood auxiliaries where necessary to express fear and purpose.

1. He was terrified lest his whereabouts ... be discovered.
2. I opened my umbrella so that she ... get wet (*negative*). 3. I'll give you Dan's home number so you ... contact him without bothering his boss. 4. I am afraid we ... miss the train. 5. I'm telling you this that you ... know how to behave in Mr Down's company. 6. Avoid using the phone lest our conversation ... be overheard. 7. He wanted to win a seat in Parliament only that immunity ... protect him from legal persecution. 8. Andrew turned up the collar of his coat lest he ... be recognized. 9. Andrew turned up the collar of his coat fearing lest he ...

be recognized. 10. She turned down the volume so that the music ... disturb the baby (*negative*).

Exercise 18. Translate into English, using the auxiliaries *MAY / MIGHT* and *SHOULD* to express fear.

1. Боюсь, как бы мне не заболеть. 2. Я побаиваюсь, как бы нас не приняли за жуликов. 3. Она в ужасе, что ее имя может попасть в газеты. 4. Оливер испугался, как бы его не наказали. 5. Опасаясь, что ее узнают, она спустила вуаль на шляпке. 6. Хелен надела свитер, боясь простудиться. 7. Быстро темнело, и мы начали опасаться, что не сможем найти дорогу домой. 8. Он постарался прийти вовремя из опасения, что друзья не будут его ждать. 9. Я несколько дней не выходил на улицу, боясь ареста. 10. Капитан опасается, что нас атакуют ночью.

Exercise 19. Substitute clauses with the mood auxiliaries *MAY / MIGHT*, *CAN / COULD* and *SHOULD* for infinitive phrases expressing purpose.

1. She opened the door for Sam to get some fresh air. 2. Granny put her hand to her ear to hear what was being said. 3. Finally, Bobby had to stand up to let them pass to their seats. 4. I opened my umbrella in order not to get wet. 5. Please move to the right for me to see the stage. 6. Sally put her hands to her ears not to hear that sound again. 7. Speak more slowly for M.Poirot to understand you better. 8. Turn off the radio so as to hear the birds singing.

Exercise 20. Distinguish between sentences where *LEST* introduces object clauses expressing fear and adverbial clauses of purpose. Translate into Russian.

1. The Protestant refugees, inhabitants, and the garrison of the city, which was built deliberately with a wall lest a catholic rebellion should ever occur, held the city for fifteen weeks against a poorly equipped catholic Irish army led by James II, the exiled king. 2. One suspects that he is more the victim of a national Puritanism, of a fearfulness lest architecture should be too interesting. 3. The church was acting on behalf of all, and had a prime obligation to push for a public morality which matched its perception of the natural law lest the very fabric of society be torn asunder and its members cast on the road of moral decline. 4. That in turn led to the assumption that diversity was embarrassing, that different standpoints within the biblical books should be harmonized, lest the authority of the sacred writings be diminished. 5. The children had to be well turned out and, lest their accents and manners should be corrupted by those of the stevedores'

and dock-workers' children up and down the street, it was insisted that they keep themselves to themselves. 6. For the fact is that, in the course of the entire show, nothing happens — not in some bold Beckettian way, but out of sheer terror lest the tiniest bit of plot prove too much for a "family audience". 7. Tertullian was the first Church Father to declare that Christians ought to abstain on Sunday from secular duties or occupations, lest these should give pleasure to the Devil. 8. The Rabbinical establishment has forbidden Jews from entering the site, lest they step on the Holy of Holies where only the properly purified High Priests may enter.

Exercise 21. Complete the following sentences, using object and adverbial clauses after *LEST*.

1. The weather is changing; I am afraid lest
2. Maud closed the window lest
3. On hearing the sound, she instantly turned around, fearful lest
4. Then Mrs Stone closed all the windows and bolted the door lest
5. After the incident with the traffic police, they feared lest
6. I never carry more than a couple of dollars on me lest
7. Bob never visited the haunted house again scared lest
8. After robbing the bank, he spent the rest of his life fearing lest

Exercise 22. Classify the sentences below into three groups depending on whether they express comparison to a simultaneous, prior, or future action/state.

1. Sarah was breathless as though she had been running.
2. You sound hoarse as if you had a sore throat.
3. He behaves as if nothing had happened.
4. She gave me an angry look as if she would attack me that very moment.
5. Don Samuel was eating greedily as if he hadn't seen food for weeks.
6. She was her usual self again, as if the quarrels of the past were forgotten and forgiven.
7. Sam lifted his gun as if he would shoot Harry there and then.
8. She continued playing as if she were unaware of the interruption.

Exercise 23. Classify the sentences below into two groups depending on whether they express comparison to a real or unreal action/state. Discuss ambiguous cases.

1. Rosie smiled as if she knew something we didn't know.
2. He walked slowly as if he were carrying a heavy load.
3. Let's go on with the party as if nothing had happened.
4. She continues reading as if she doesn't hear the noise.
5. Joe is panting as if he had run a mile.
6. Mrs Lloyd behaves as if she had some guilty secret to hide.
7. He moves unsteadily as if he is blind or wounded.
8. Stop talking to your students as if you were a sergeant and they soldiers!
9. He suddenly

moved as if he would snatch the papers from Burrows' hands. 10. The car shifted dangerously as if it was about to topple.

Exercise 24. Make up sentences by combining suitable clauses from the left and right columns. Consider different possibilities.

I feel		I were young again.
It feels		he had done something wrong.
She looked		it were made of rubber.
Jack sounded	as if	we were deep underground.
It was	as though	it were winter now.
It seemed		the world were going to pieces.
It looks		something terrible had happened.
The steak tasted		he were going to break down.

Exercise 25. Translate these sentences into English using *AS IF / AS THOUGH*.

1. Похоже, что будет дождь. 2. Его голос звучал так, как будто он говорил из глубокого колодца. 3. Ты выглядишь, как будто ты не ел неделю. 4. У меня такое чувство, что случилось что-то ужасное. 5. От него шел такой запах, как будто он только что вышел из дешевой парикмахерской. 6. У рубашки такой вид, как будто ею мыли пол. 7. Было похоже, что они только что поссорились. 8. Казалось, что Мэри вот-вот расплачется.

Exercise 26. React to the following situations, using sentences expressing comparison.

1. Peter has just come in breathing hard and looking hot and frightened. — 2. The sky has become dangerously dark and the wind has risen. — 3. The winter has been long and cold and now March seems not much different. — 4. People have been coming to the house next door bringing flowers and nicely wrapped packages. — 5. You have a premonition of disaster. — 6. Your guest has had three cups of tea already and is asking for another one. —

Exercise 27. Fill in the blanks with suitable subordinators to introduce clauses of concession (*THOUGH, ALTHOUGH; NO MATTER + HOW / WHO / WHAT / WHEN / WHERE / WHY; HOWEVER, WHOEVER, WHATEVER, WHENEVER, WHEREVER, WHETHER*).

1. ... you may be tired, you have to go on. 2. I'll do as I please ... you like it or not. 3. ... who may open the door, give him the letter. 4. ... you may come, I'll be waiting. 5. Bob will have to go ... sick he

may be. 6. ... comes, tell them I'm asleep. 7. ... be your reasons, the Duke will pay no attention to them. 8. I'll take you home ... far you live. 9. ... may happen, I'll stick by your side. 10. I won't marry him ... rich he may be!

Exercise 28. Rewrite these sentences, using inverted word order after *NO MATTER HOW*, *HOWEVER*, *AS*.

1. Though you are very hungry, you'll have to wait another hour before you get lunch.
2. Though Jack was very tall, he couldn't reach the upper shelf.
3. Even though the show was interesting, you should have stayed at home to help your sister.
4. Although you may like this cat, I won't have it in my house!
5. I'll buy this fur coat even if it is very expensive.
6. Kate won't believe you even though you may be very persuasive.
7. Jim and I are going to complain irrespective of the circumstances.
8. I'll tell him the truth even if he gets mad at me.

Exercise 29. Classify the sentences below into two groups depending on whether they express "real" or "unreal" concession.

1. Whatever she may do, she has my support.
2. Whatever she may have done, she has my support.
3. No matter how tired you may be, you have to go on.
4. Though/although you are tired, you have to go on.
5. However tired you may be, you have to go on.
6. Tired though you may be, you have to go on.
7. No matter how tired you are, you have to go on.
8. However tired you are, you have to go on.
9. Stupid as he is, I hope he will understand me.
10. Stupid as he might be, I hope he will understand me.
11. Whatever be his reasons, I will not agree.
12. Everyone has the right to live, whether he be rich or poor.

Exercise 30. Use suitable forms of the infinitive after mood auxiliaries in sentences expressing emotion and concession.

1. However cowardly he may (*behave*) during the incident, I still think he is sufficiently reliable.
2. I am terrified lest Lord Bloom should (*overhear*) our conversation on the verandah last night.
3. Send him to me whenever he may (*arrive*).
4. It's monstrous that the police should (*treat*) you like that! They had no right!
5. We'll proceed according to plan, no matter what decision the Committee might (*take*) tonight.
6. Our main concern was that these documents should (*get*) into our competitors' hands before the talks began.
7. It was perfectly natural that that we should all (*feel*) exhausted after such a day.
8. Whoever it may (*be*) who helped you, he acted like a gentleman.

Exercise 31. Translate these sentences into English, paying attention to the expression of desirability, emotion, purpose, comparison, and concession.

1. Что бы вы ни думали, мой муж — честный и добрый человек. 2. Боюсь, как бы они не застали тебя здесь со всеми этими бумагами. 3. Вот бы и нам такой прекрасный дом с садом! 4. Удивительно, что мы с вами пришли к совершенно одинаковым выводам. 5. Было похоже, что отец Браун никогда не закончит свою проповедь. 6. Я сделаю звук погромче, чтобы вы уловили каждое слово. 7. Их требование заключается в том, чтобы мы направили официальное извинение. 8. Какова бы ни была цена, я готова заплатить выкуп за Майкла. 9. Я нахожу совершенно недопустимым, что Сара вмешивается в наши дела. 10. Постарайтесь не хлопать дверью, чтобы ребенок не проснулся. 11. Удары были такими сильными, что казалось, здание вот-вот развалится на куски. 12. Фред вдруг пожалел, что вообще начал этот разговор.

Exercise 32. Translate the following sentences of real condition into English.

1. Я буду очень благодарен, если вы ответите на несколько вопросов. 2. Если он мог тебе сказать такое, он сумасшедший. 3. Если вы любите джаз, вам без сомнения знакомо имя Луи Армстронга. 4. Мы не откажемся, если ты пригласишь нас победить. 5. Если самолет вылетел вовремя, они появятся здесь с минуты на минуту. 6. Когда человек счастлив, он делает других людей счастливыми. 7. Раз ты утверждаешь, что бывал в Солсбери, ты не можешь не помнить знаменитый собор. 8. Если деньги отправили утром, они прибыли в банк не позже трех часов.

Exercise 33. Rewrite these sentences expressing “problematic future”, using forms of theoretical condition.

1. If by some remote chance he dares to show his face again, I'll give him a piece of my mind! 2. If the baby wakes up, which I doubt, give him some warm milk. 3. If by any chance you die before retiring age, your widow will receive your pension. 4. If it happens so that your television breaks within twelve months, we'll replace it free of charge. 5. If by any chance I am late, don't wait up for me. 6. If by some unlucky chance the talks break down, there could be a serious international crisis. 7. If my parents are willing to pay for my education, I'll spend a term at Yale. 8. If Jim happens to call while I'm gone, please give him my office number. 9. If by some unlucky chance I see her in this area, I'll have to consider moving

away from here. 10. If you happen to disapprove of my cooking, I won't charge you a penny.

Exercise 34. Classify the sentences below into three groups depending on whether they express real, unreal, or theoretical condition referring to the future.

1. If you should set your foot on my threshold ever again, I'll kill you.
2. It'll be nice if you bring some of these peaches tomorrow.
3. If I were to win the competition, I would be the happiest person on earth!
4. We would appreciate it if you could reply at your earliest convenience.
5. If you should need to consult me again, you can reach me at this number.
6. Wake me up if Mother comes while I'm still asleep.
7. If we bought a house in the country, we could spend summers there.
8. If we should miss the 10 o'clock train, we won't get home before midnight.
9. I'll pay back my debt if you only agree to wait another month.
10. I wouldn't invite Mary if I were you.

Exercise 35. Translate these sentences into English (real and unreal condition referring to the future).

1. Если снова вдруг окажетесь в Вашингтоне, обязательно позвоните мне.
2. На твоем месте я бы не стал связываться с людьми вроде Джексона.
3. Если бы я разбогател, я бы первым делом купил себе джип.
4. Мэри приедет к нам только при условии, что мы оплатим ее билет.
5. Мы с Томом были бы очень рады, если бы Сью пожила у нас недельку.
6. Случись нам встретиться снова, я скажу ему все, что думаю.
7. Я позвоню, если у меня будут какие-нибудь новости.
8. Если бы Мейсон вдруг обратился ко мне за советом, я бы знал, что сказать.
9. Если бы я вышла за него замуж, моя жизнь превратилась бы в ад.

Exercise 35. Use suitable verb forms in sentences of unreal and unrealized condition. Explain your choice.

1. We (*miss*) yesterday's match if the car (*break* — negative) in the middle of the road.
2. If we (*have* — negative) to go to that reception tomorrow, we (*go*) with you.
3. If I (*be*) you, I (*tell*) him exactly the same.
4. I (*be*) a lot more comfortable if you (*call* — negative) me a hundred times a day.
5. If you (*be*) more attentive, you (*notice*) the policemen at the entrance.
6. If only I (*have*) a decent suit, I (*propose*) to her right away.
7. If the meeting (*schedule* — passive) for tomorrow instead of Wednesday, we certainly (*come*).
8. I (*be*) most unhappy if I (*get*) this question at the examination yesterday.
9. If he, God forbid, (*refuse*) to cooperate, we (*have*) to dismiss him.
10. I (*be*) very grateful if you (*can*) send me the papers by express mail.

Exercise 36. Translate these sentences into English; consider possible variants (imaginary condition).

1. Если бы нам вчера удалось дозвониться до Салли, мы передали бы твою просьбу. 2. Случись вам оказаться в Атланте, обязательно заходите к нам. 3. Мы с Мейбл были бы очень рады, если бы вы смогли прийти. 4. Если вдруг появится Колин, скажи ему, пусть убирается к черту! 5. Будь я постарше, я бы знал, что ответить на такое предложение. 6. Вчерашний ужин понравился бы мне гораздо больше, если бы Джон не пытался острить. 7. Я его не прощу, даже если он вдруг решит извиниться. 8. Если бы я была твоей матерью, я бы поговорила с тобой совсем по-другому. 9. Ты бы не простудился, если бы одел свитер, как я тебе говорила. 10. Что бы ты стал делать, если бы получил такое известие?

Exercise 37. Explain the use of *WILL / WOULD* in these conditional sentences.

1. I'll be most grateful if you will help me. 2. The dish will break if you put it in the oven. 3. We'd be very happy if you would come. 4. If you will wait a few minutes, the Dean will see you without your making an appointment. 5. If you don't water the flowers, they will die. 6. If you would reserve seats, we would be sure of a comfortable journey. 7. A lot of people will vote for him if he will accept the nomination. 8. We'll catch an earlier train if you will drive us to the station. 9. If there's a power failure, it will create a major disaster in the city. 10. If he got my letter in time, he would be able to change his plans.

Exercise 38. Translate these sentences into English (real and imaginary condition).

1. Что мы будем делать, если такси не придет? 2. Если бы мне пришлось выбирать между двумя сестрами, я бы выбрал Джуллию. 3. Если бы вы предложили это раньше, наше решение, возможно, было бы иным. 4. Я бы не удивился, если бы увидел ее верхом! 5. На твоем месте я бы ни за что не согласилась. 6. Если ты когда-нибудь и соберешься с духом, боюсь, что будет слишком поздно. 7. Как бы вы среагировали, если бы издательство ответило вам отказом? 8. Случись мне разгадать эту тайну, я дам тебе знать немедленно. 9. Я буду просто счастлива, если ваш план сработает. 10. Ты бы заметил эту машину, если бы все время не оглядывался на Милли. 11. Было бы здорово, если бы мы пошли в клуб вместе. 12. Если случится так, что они решат пожениться, я не стану их отговаривать.

Exercise 39. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use inverted word order.

1. If I were to meet him ever again, I would spit in his face. 2. She would never have gotten that job if she had mentioned her Russian husband. 3. If we lived closer, Mary would see you more often. 4. If she should come, tell her we're out for the whole day. 5. If I were in your shoes, I would apologize. 6. I would have acted differently if I had known all the facts. 7. Sam and Sally would be happier if they had children. 8. If you should write to Alice, send her my love. 9. I could marry again if I were ten years younger. 10. If you should be late once again, you'll lose your job. 11. If the assassin had succeeded, there would certainly be chaos in the country. 12. If it were not for the expense involved, I'd certainly travel by plane.

Exercise 40. Use appropriate forms of the verbs in brackets in conditional sentences. Explain your choice.

1. If you (*run*) into anything nasty, don't hesitate to call me at any time of day or night. 2. I (*talk*) to mother if I (*think*) of it; but it went right out of my head. 3. She did not realize that if she (*live*) alone she (*have to*) spend all her money on rent and food. 4. The news came as a thunderbolt! I (*believe* — negative) it unless I (*hear*) it myself. 5. It's lucky Jim left behind the car keys; if he (*have* — negative), we (*return* — negative) to the apartment and (*get*) your message on Monday. 6. If you (*admit*) your guilt there and then, they (*expel* — negative). Peter from school, and he (*be*) at the university now. 7. But for the soft carpet downstairs, I (*break*) my neck falling down. 8. If we always (*allow*) the children to do as they please, these nice flower-beds (*devastate*) long ago. 9. Sarah (*be*) much happier now if she (*become*) a hairdresser like her mother. 10. If only they (*stop*) making this terrible din! It is driving me crazy. 11. (*Be*) I to see this ugly creature again, I (*hesitate* — negative) to shoot him. 12. You look something awful. You (*be*) a whole lot better if you (*chase* — negative) beer with whiskey last night.

Exercise 41. Use appropriate synthetic and analytical forms of the verbs in brackets. Explain your choice. Suggest parallel indicative forms where possible.

1. Edgar gave her an anxious look fearing lest she (*faint*) in front of the guests. 2. It's terribly important that no connection (*be*) made between you and your friend. 3. She was not afraid now, for it was as though Mike (*be*) there in the room with her. 4. Therefore I suggest, gentlemen, that our meeting (*be adjourned*). 5. God (*help*) the poor devil! God (*give*) him wisdom and courage! 6. I'm ready to take for granted

whatever you (say). 7. The man turned toward the gate, taking a tentative step as though he (*hear*) something. 8. It strikes me as odd that she (*know*) the pass-word. 9. The details aren't for briefings but (*suffice*) it to say we are convinced our man was bought off. 10. The aircraft was vibrating as if it (*fall*) apart. 11. Explain it to me again as if I (*hear* — negative) it before. 12. It's vital we (*be involved* — negative), so whatever conversation we have shouldn't be logged. 13. It was as though she (*be ordered*) to be here and there and do what they wanted. 14. I will treat whoever you (*choose*) to marry as my own son. 15. (*Be*) I twenty years younger, I (*marry*) her here and now! 16. Whatever opinions we (*have*), I'm afraid the final decision will be his. 17. The houses looked as if they (*pass*) through an intensive bombardment. 18. I'll make them wish they never (*be born*). 19. However much she (*eat*) made no difference to her shapely figure. 20. All the same, it's odd that you (*say*) what you did just now. 21. He spoke loudly, as if he (*rehearse*) a speech to Pinkie and the others. 22. And he sauntered out of the room in the direction of the very important department presided over by Sir Hubert Wotton; that he (*enjoy*) the inspiring spectacle of another friend doing his day's work and being interrupted by an idle man. 23. He specially desired, Professor, that you (*accompany*) me on the second visit. 24. A ruby light was rolled over the bloomless flower-beds, filling them, as it (*be*), with the ghosts of the dead roses. 25. Perilous and strange though her situation (*be*), Isabel felt luxuriously sleepy after the hectic escape from Ipanema. 26. It was as if the whole road (*move*) upwards like an Underground staircase in the dusty sunlight. 27. It is only proper that such impossible incidents (*begin*) in the most prim and prosaic of all places. 28. He did not insist on his official right to brush the hat, for fear it (*fall*) to pieces. 29. They felt the excitement going on outside, as if this (*be*) a day on which life for many people reached a kind of climax. 30. Her disapproval probably (*deepen*) if she (*hear*) the conversation in her master's drawing-room that afternoon. 31. If I (*be*) your mother I (*give*) you a good hiding. What your father and mother (*say*) if they (*know*)? 32. He betrayed me, so I ordered that he (*be*) killed. 33. You act as if you already (*solve*) the problem in some way of your own. 34. He realized that, (*be*) he to try to do this face to face, he (*find*) it difficult to express himself without losing his dignity. 35. It's true that I detested snobbery and all its manifestations and still do, and that my sympathies have always been with the oppressed whoever and wherever they (*be*). 36. For just a moment, as he stood punching the air, he looked as though he (*burst*) into song.

Exercise 42. Translate into English, using various forms of the subjunctive mood.

1. Случись нам снова увидеться, я буду вести себя совсем по-другому. 2. Такое впечатление, как будто весна никогда не на-

ступит. 3. Прокурор настаивает, чтобы Джонсона арестовали за покушение на убийство. 4. Что бы ты ни говорила, она все равно поступит по-своему. 5. Если бы не его улыбка, я бы искренне поверил во всю эту историю. 6. Мы остались дома из опасения, что Эмма проснется и испугается. 7. Очень странно, что все письма напечатаны на одной и той же машинке. 8. Благодаря небу, что эта информация не попала в руки журналистов. 9. Как бы я ни был сыт, я не могу отказаться от кусочка рокфора. 10. Будь он хоть чуточку поумнее! Он бы не стал докапываться до правды. 11. Если продать машину, она даст нам недостающую тысячу долларов. 12. Как жаль, что я отказался! Если бы только я подумал! 13. Дом стоял наклонившись, как будто он вот-вот упадет. 14. Боб старался не разговаривать, чтобы гости не заметили, что он пьян. 15. Если бы ты хорошо знал французский, тебя приняли бы на работу. 16. Нам давно пора понять, что только мы сами можем помочь себе.

Exercise 43. Paraphrase the following sentences, using the subjunctive mood.

1. "Why don't you study physics at the university?" she said to him. — She suggested that 2. It's a pity I always forget people's names. — I wish 3. "The house is quiet, it is strange," she said. — She found it strange that 4. It worries me that you smoke so much. — If only 5. The candidates must have a thorough medical examination. — It is essential that 6. "Let's finish the meeting on time," he said to them. — He proposed that 7. The contract must be signed by all parties. — It is important that 8. I am sorry we don't have enough money. — If only 9. "Search the prisoner and tie him up!" shouted the officer. — The officer commanded 10. It's a shame you live so far away from us. — I wish 11. "Our decision must be kept secret," said the boss. — The boss insisted that 12. "Billy is on time, this is unusual," she said. — She was surprised that 13. You must tell us the whole truth. — It is essential 14. Sandra sent us her greetings. Isn't it amazing? — We were surprised that 15. I am so sorry Fred is away. — If only 16. "Put him in a cell!" commanded the officer. — His order was that 17. What a pity it rained last night. — I wish 18. "Repeat your story," the Judge told me. — The Judge requested that

Exercise 44. In the dialogues below, put the verb in brackets in an appropriate form of the subjunctive mood. Use suitable auxiliary verbs where necessary.

Mary: I wish we (*have* — negative) to go out tonight, but we have no choice. I (*like*) to stay in and watch television. If only your boss (*invite* — negative) us!

John: I know, but it's important. It (*be*) bearable if he (*speak* — negative) all night about how wonderful his children are, but he always does. He talks as if they (*be*) angels, and they are absolutely horrible!

Mary: Listen! Suppose we (*call*) them and (*say*) that our car is out of order.

John: No, I'd rather we (*go*). Just try to look as if you (*enjoy*) yourself.

Jim: Hello, dear. You look as if you (*need*) a drink. What's the matter?

Liz: It's Annie at the office. She behaves as though she (*be*) the only one who knows how to work. I (*mind* — negative) if she (*listen*) to other people sometimes!

Jim: What if you just (*ignore*) her? Do you think that (*work*)?

Liz: That (*work*) if she (*have*) any brains, and she hasn't!

Jim: Liz, I wish you (*calm down*) a little. There's no need to worry.

Rita: I was given three new projects today. As if I (*have* — negative) enough to do already! I had to accept them, but I really wish I (*refuse*).

Bill: What (*happen*) if you (*refuse*)?

Rita: They (*fire*) me. And I think this (*be*) better for me!

Bill: Don't get mad! I wish you (*calm down*) a bit.

Rita: If only I (*can*)! The boss makes me work as if he (*pay*) me a hundred thousand, and it's only thirty-five!

Exercise 45. Translate into English using the subjunctive mood wherever possible.

- Если бы я закончила перевод вчера, я была бы свободна сегодня.
- Ах, почему мне не 16 лет! Я был бы так счастлив!
- Он выглядел, как будто не спал несколько дней.
- Будь я волшебником, я бы подарил тебе все цветы на свете!
- Его идея состоит в том, чтобы мы отправились все вместе.
- Если бы я знал французский, я бы лучше понял вчерашний фильм.
- Она бы не ушла, если бы не твоя глупая шутка.
- Достаточно сказать, что работа так и не была закончена.
- Если бы ты принял аспирин утром, ты бы сейчас чувствовал себя лучше.
- Мне не нравится их план, чтобы ты поехала первой.
- Была бы ты постарше! Я бы сразу женился на тебе.
- Если бы я была мужчиной, я бы убила тебя на месте за твою вчерашнюю шутку.
- Он бы остался, если бы не этот телефонный звонок.
- Он вел себя так, будто он никогда не бывал в театре.
- Будь я на твоем месте, я бы не стал ждать.
- Меньше всего на свете я хочу сомневаться в ваших словах.
- Если бы ты меньше выпил вчера, ты бы сейчас чувствовал себя лучше.
- Если бы не этот фильм ужасов, мы бы лучше спали прошлой ночью.
- Будь я помоложе, я бы полу-

чил удовольствие от вчерашнего концерта. 20. Похоже, что весна никогда не наступит. 21. Удивительно, что вы помните мое имя! 22. Боюсь, как бы она не узнала моего лица. 23. Храни тебя Господь! Пусть у тебя все получится! 24. Случись мне его встретить, я перейду на другую сторону улицы.

Exercise 46. Translate these sentences into Russian; comment on the use of subjunctive mood and parallel indicative or verbless forms.

I. 1. To be a writer, that requires work and the determination to follow a certain road, wherever it may lead. 2. Far be it from me to intrude on old Kinto's privacy. 3. I suppose it surprises you that we should be friends, have a lot in common and enjoy talking together? 4. If you hadn't come to my rescue, if you hadn't drunk possibly poisoned beer, well, I shouldn't have got here. 5. Golden-haired, blue-eyed, perfectly proportioned, conjured up as it were by the wave of a magician's wand, he came out of the world of myth. 6. He branched off into German and Herr Spiess presently rendered a brief translation in case some of his English colleagues should not understand. 7. I would have been happy to have given him any professional knowledge that might be useful to him, but Martin said that would not be necessary. 8. Dear Philip, how touching that you should think I can remember anything; every year my memory gets worse. 9. I've been a tactful woman and a good listener, even if I've never had much in the way of brains. 10. But you know, things seem all right, and then there's something about them that makes them go wrong, and then you wish they were not there and had never been thought of. 11. He spoke as though the other people who worked with him were merely assistants who didn't know exactly what he was doing or trying for. 12. It's a pretty fair hell for a brilliant man who isn't brilliant any more, who's, as it were, dead in an invalid chair. 13. The harlequin, already clad in silver paper out of cigar boxes, was, with difficulty, prevented from smashing the old Victorian lustre chandeliers, that he might cover himself with resplendent crystals. 14. Even the square stone tower of the church looked northern to the point of heathenry, as if it were some barbaric tower among the sea rocks of Iceland. 15. However this may be, it is certain that the general mounted his horse again and was talking earnestly to Murray. 16. This elaborate epistle he articulated as if it were all one word; and Miss Barlow rattled it down as if it were all one word. 17. If your Grace will permit me to speak, and if I retain any right to advise you, I would urge that as many people as possible should be present. 18. For a moment it looked as if the bald-headed man would knock the little cleric on the head. 19. His eyes have a sort of ache in them, as if he ought to wear glasses, or had given himself a headache with thinking. 20. The ar-

rival of the strange relative had been somehow unsatisfying and as it were unconvincing. 21. I should have thought you'd have had some feeling for that sort of art; but I can't see why you should be so uncommonly keen on photography. 22. Indeed, he had an odd feeling as if he were a giant looking over the valley of the pygmies. 23. If I were to tell them that old Jink was an assassin, they would almost die of laughter before my eyes. 24. He telephoned to March asking him to take the boat down the river as arranged, that they might meet at Willowood by the time appointed. 25. Even these details Harold would never have noticed but for what happened in the same instant. 26. He couldn't understand her; it was as if he were listening to a foreign language. 27. Did the narrator merely say that these strange things happened, without saying how they happened, they could easily be classified with the cow who jumped over the moon. 28. But Colonel Crane would not have been so complete a type of the old army man if he had not hidden somewhere a hobby connected with his travels. 29. It would be unjust to say that he deserted a lady in distress, for she did not look in the least like a distressed lady. 30. If you would do me the honour to lunch with me tomorrow at half-past one, the true story of the cabbage awaits you.

II. 1. He felt as if he had travelled a great many miles to be ignored like this. 2. But there seemed no reason why he should be restless and expectant about Christmas, as if he were a child himself. 3. Even if he could have done what every man wishes to do at such a moment, something supreme and satisfying, it would have been something in a sense formal or it would not have satisfied him. 4. Somehow it seemed at once as if her speech would never end; and not one sentence of it was ever ended. 5. God send she doesn't play in a real tragedy. 6. He looks a very sedentary, scientific little cuss, as if he'd never been unhooked from a desk or a typewriter. 7. The more she thought about it, the more she wished she had been there. 8. He stifled his tears, lest he wake his new roommate. 9. The event made her feel strange, as if her heart were being tugged off-center, or as if an earthquake had moved her beautiful Rio out to sea. 10. If Socialism were to take on a human face, it would vanish — bup, poof! 11. His heart had clumped shut on the necessity that he be brave on behalf of them both. 12. Lest her eagerness betray them, she hastily informed the man in a firm, full, crisp voice that they would spend the afternoon in inquiries and reflection, and would consult with him in the morning. 13. The remaining three bullets he resolved to keep for a human enemy, if any should appear. 14. The Indian, resuming leadership, insisted they drift downstream, beyond where the cultivated fields gave out, and only there cross over. 15. The Amazon would flow backwards to the Andes, were I to hate you. 16. He would come into her room to read her a story and seal with a kiss his wish that her dreams be sweet. 17. Right and wrong. That's what she talks about.

As if she knew. 18. She hesitated a moment outside the door for fear the place might be full of Fred's friends. 19. He held the microphone tenderly as if it were a woman, swinging it gently this way and that. 20. Why, anybody would think you were in love. 21. It was as if they doubted whether he had the money to pay for his meal. 22. They faced each other as if it were from opposing territories, but like troops at Christmastime they fraternized. 23. Seize him and tear off the mask so that we may know whom we shall hang this morning from the castle wall. 24. Great Spirit, grant that I may not criticize my neighbor until I have walked a mile in his moccasins.

III. 1. His novel taught me that it is right to persist in an obsession, to hold to one's belief no matter how unreasonable it might seem. 2. He was the one with the distant, distracted look and the voice which sounded as though it were the product of an experiment by Dr Timothy Leary. 3. Lest the large number of winners — 37 regional awards and 21 project awards — diminish the impact of the event, the decision was taken this year to nominate just two schemes for national accolade. 4. The judge who convicted a confessed devil-worshipper, Richard Ramirez, of 13 murders has recommended that he be executed. 5. No matter how stiff a building, it can fall. 6. Should you cook for others beside yourself, they too will benefit from the new food regime. 7. He had himself represented on the first page of a book of liturgical gospel readings and in a psalter as if he were a Christ-like emperor seated in majesty. 8. The other party was entitled to rescind the contract if he were plaintiff, or resist specific performance if he were defendant. 9. The capitalist, who is really a parasite on the workers, is represented as though he were the opposite; as the source of production and the benefactor of the workers. 10. He painted the slave Juan de Pareja erect and level-gazed against a plain background, as if he were the proudest of aristocrats. 11. China had demanded that he be returned home. 12. Were he as famous as Nehru, the Centenary Trophy could just as easily have been named after him. 13. It is not as though there always was a clear conception of what such a science would be like, and as though all that was lacking was success in producing it. 14. It was not immediately clear how the 1,500 would get to the West, although it looks as though another spectacular mass exit will be avoided. 15. It looks as though Mr Murdoch will narrowly avoid joining the \$1 bn interest payers list at next year end. 16. The committee reported in February 1943 in very alarming language that there would be nothing left for the British postwar aircraft industry unless something were done at once. 17. No matter what the emergency, accident or disease, no matter how long or complicated the treatment, the health service will always be there, to provide the finest care. 18. Whoever should be my heir, let him be obliged to give, do, and perform all that is written in this my will. 19. It is not as though regular blood donors

receive preferential treatment when they come to need a transfusion. They are not even issued with little gold stars to wear.

IV. 1. Her story-telling has no obliqueness, no mystery; everything is slowly and patiently explained, as though the audience was a fidgety bunch of six-year-olds. 2. The laws of a country are thought of as separate, distinct, individual rules; the law of a country, however much we may analyse it into separate rules, is something more than the mere sum of such rules. 3. He can paint a still life as if he were Manet arriving on the scene two centuries early; he can paint a landscape as if he were Corot. 4. Ian Halcrow's Macbeth looks great but never draws us close, and he and others swallow or truncate their lines as though they cared very little for them. 5. The community perpetually retains a supreme power of saving themselves from their legislators, whenever they shall be so foolish, or so wicked, as to lay and carry on designs against their liberties and properties. 6. As though this were not enough, a gang of Ugandan footpads then raided the homes of the newly-arrived British police training mission and made off with their video machines. 7. Despite frequently heard voices to the contrary, total catholic-nationalist domination would be the likely outcome of a united Ireland unless a confederal structure were implemented. 8. Moves to outlaw "hacking" will not tackle sophisticated computer crime unless a line is drawn between amateur hackers and professional criminals. 9. Most observers believe that Congress cannot be defeated unless a single opposition candidate is fielded in every seat. 10. This will remain an untestable speculation unless and until we meet other forms of life, but speculation can be useful. 11. The belief in Whitehall is that it would be damaging to Mr de Klerk if he were seen to be making reformist moves because of external pressure. 12. Have fresh fruit or sugar-free yoghurt for dessert a minimum of three days a week; the other days have low-sugar or no-sugar dessert recipes whenever possible (e.g. unless eating out or at a friend's house). 13. Fearing that the crackdown after the Tiananmen Square assault may be softening, city authorities warned this week that "counter-revolutionary" remnants would become a "time bomb" unless "ferreted out" with more vigour. 14. The medicine was of little value unless given by injection at intervals of not longer than 3 hours. 15. A man is not punishable for a serious crime committed by another unless he has actually instigated the commission of a crime, and then he will be punishable though the crime committed may differ in some degree from that which he instigated. 16. An accused person will be criminally liable unless he was so insane as either "not to know the nature and quality of the act he was doing," or "not to know that what he was doing was against the law". 17. In all practical terms, they are behaving as though we already had a currency union, which is defined as a zone of fixed exchange rates and free movement of capi-

tal. 18. The Romans had a special veneration for authority, precedent, and tradition, and they greatly objected to change unless it was thought to be in accord with ancestral custom, which meant in practice the sentiments of the oldest living senators. 19. The mind is but a barren soil, a soil which is soon exhausted, and will produce no crop, or only one, unless it is constantly enriched with foreign matter. 20. Since no knowledge could be innate unless its materials or constituent ideas were, any argument against innate ideas is, in effect, an argument against innate knowledge.

V. 1. The other game was far more interesting with Speelman looking for much of the time as though he was spending a very unhappy 33rd birthday. 2. Unless radical action is taken, British cities seem poised to become yet more turbulent, brutalized, and trouble-torn. 3. It is as though Klein were seeing his real surroundings for the first time without allowing either literary or religious traditions to mediate his vision. 4. And all owners, no matter how much they protest, must accept that the risk of such dogs to all people, and especially children, is not acceptable. 5. Unless appropriate economic action is taken, there are a number of ways in which the developing countries could suffer rather than profit from the new emphasis on environment. 6. One group of people treat others only in respect of the labour they provide, labour which then can be bought and sold as though it was any other useful article. 7. No matter how deprived life on this earth is, you must accept it as God's will, and that those who don't complain, struggle, or rebel will be fully rewarded in heaven. 8. Ali's expression reminded us fleetingly of his exuberant youth, the mischief we experienced in his presence no matter how perilous the circumstances. 9. Yet, unless a real emergency should occur, it was difficult to see how such a government might be brought about. 10. There is a sick Jewish problem of voting for a black man no matter how unfit he is for the job. 11. Scottish Health Services Councils advocated the establishment of poisoning treatment centres in district general hospitals to which all cases of deliberate self-poisoning should be referred, no matter how serious the medical condition of the patients. 12. No matter what your chosen activity (dance, aerobics, yoga, weight-lifting, tennis and so on), there is a good chance that some class or club will be available near you and that you can join. 13. It is significant that, no matter what the subject of his letters, he cannot keep his mind off poetry for more than a few lines at a time. 14. Peretz was the great theorist of Jewish secularism who sought to separate education from the synagogue, and to make the Yiddish language the national home of all Jews no matter where they might live. 15. If you grow up among oceanic fields of wheat, tossed between extremes of summer and winter, you never learn to value the happy medium, and no matter where you live afterwards, you never stop yearning for the old totality of space 16. A relaxing thought for investors is the fact

that no matter which government will be in power, no major economic changes are likely. 17. Mr Gorbachev seems trapped. However much he might like to duck out, he cannot. 18. The Prince's taste is indeed reactionary, however much it may be used to support occasional liberal causes such as community architecture and ecology. 19. However much one may value identification with one's community, it cannot be a foundation of an obligation to respect the law. 20. The various appropriations and metamorphoses undergone by Bellini's masterpiece in the hands of his successors cannot realistically — however much Reynolds might have thought it — be said to represent progress.

VI. 1. Our law is much richer in detail than any code of law (unless based on Case Law) can possibly be. 2. No matter what the emergency, accident or disease, no matter how long or complicated the treatment, the health service will always be there, to provide the finest care. 3. The deadline on the payment, which is the final tranche of a total Bond investment of more than 154m, is early November, but it now looks as though the money could be paid over as early as next week. 4. However much the Christian religion taught of Christ, the Old Testament played a vital part in the reconciling of Germanic society and Christianity. 5. The logic of convergence, therefore, does not stop with the EMS. Jacques Delors was consistent — however much the logic may be disliked in Downing Street — in suggesting that a European central bank should grow out of the EMS. 6. The union existed to speak for artists and art organizations, to offer them advice, to argue for them and to champion their interests in the media and to government whenever and wherever the need may arise. 7. But from Hobbes's description it seems as though its very contemplation filled him with a trembling, timorous fear. 8. While his delegation (two grandmaster seconds and a doctor) have stayed out of sight, performing their analytic labours, Karpov has attended receptions, even sometimes looking as though he is enjoying himself. 9. No mention is to be made of any of the facts upon which these three orders were founded until after the conclusion of the last of the three trials involved, whenever that may be. 10. It seemed as though the two of them were synchronized, every hesitation or movement of my father was repeated in a backward direction by the figure who still faced us. 11. All over Japan the feudal lords were at war with one another, and the country was torn to pieces, as it were, politically and socially. 12. The judge held that the child's welfare required that she be adopted by the foster parents with whom she had lived for three of her five years. 13. But even if Mr Honecker were in the best of health, he would surely have been sacrificed. 14. Obsessed with Classicism since his student days, he was threatened with failure at the end of his course at the Architectural Association school

unless he renounced Classicism (God) and submitted a Modern scheme (Satan) for his final-year project. 15. In every case, whoever the client, the restraint, taste, and refined simplicity, the comfort and adaptability of traditional forms are more constant than any overtly stylistic belief or any form used as a signature. 16. He sounded as though he disapproved of exotic plant feeds and the new variety of vegetative showmanship. 17. It is in this context that Marx and Engels finally turn the tables on the ideas of philosophers who, like Hegel, had argued about the primacy of ideas, especially the idea of the State, as though these ideas had formed the processes of history rather than the other way round. 18. So there is a statutory rule that in Acts made since 1850, unless a contrary intention appears, masculine words shall include the feminine, words in the singular shall include the plural, words in the plural shall include the singular. 19. But if they have actually been sold by the creditor, the heir will be compelled to pay over their price, unless a contrary intention of the deceased should be shown by the heir. 20. Latin settlers strongly resented the privileged status of the indigenous Muslims and, wherever and whenever royal authority was weak, took the opportunity to drive them out and take over their possessions. 21. Does Mr Bush foresee some sort of crisis during which his image will suffer unless boosted?

9. MODAL VERBS

Exercise 1. Rewrite these sentences, using the adverbial modifiers and clauses suggested, so that they represent potential, not actual, performance of the situation in the past.

1. I find I can understand English better than I can speak it (*when I first arrived in England*). 2. I can let you have the money tomorrow (*yesterday*). 3. My daughter can play the piano beautifully (*at one time*). 4. We can overhear every word our neighbour say (*at the hotel we stayed at*). 5. I can't get into the house (*because I had forgotten my key*). 6. The doctor can see you later today (*yesterday*). 7. I can't get the letter translated immediately, but I could get it done by tomorrow morning (*by the following morning*). 8. I can well understand how you feel about the situation (*at the time*). 9. You can see that he is bored to death (*at the party last week*). 10. He can drive a car (*when he was eighteen*).

Exercise 2. Rewrite the sentences using the clues suggested. Use **CAN**, **COULD** or a suitable form of the expression **BE ABLE TO**.

1. We can climb to the top of this mountain (*tomorrow/yesterday*).
2. She can come (*next week/whenever she wanted to*). 3. I can join the broken ends (*when I get some glue/with glue yesterday*). 4. I can make at least half of it (*by the time you get back/before he got back*). 5. He can eat anything (*when the doctor gives him permission/before he was ill*). 6. Mother says I can go out with you (*tonight/Mother said...*). 7. She can write with her left hand (*if she practises for an hour/when she had to*). 8. You can do what you like (*this afternoon/always*). 9. I can reach London (*by the weekend/yesterday*). 10. My wife can leave hospital (*in a week's time/a few days ago*). 11. I can help her with her homework (*after tea/when she was in difficulties yesterday*). 12. We can catch the 2.30 train (*tomorrow afternoon/in spite of the fog*). 13. Simon can shoot well (*in a few weeks/before his accident*).

Exercise 3. Translate these sentences into English, using verbs and expressions which denote possibility.

1. Здесь нельзя переходить улицу.
2. Неужели уже так поздно?
3. Не мог он вам этого сказать!
4. Можете взять книгу с собой.
5. Он мог решать такие задачи, когда ему было всего 8 лет.
6. Карапашом писать нельзя.
7. Что же вы ничего не сказали? Я мог купить для вас эту книгу в Санкт-Петербурге.
8. Он смог сдать экзамен только вчера.
9. Не могли бы вы еще немного подождать?
10. Думаю, я могла бы перевести это письмо сегодня вечером.
11. Вы можете идти, если хотите, конечно.
12. Еще вчера я мог бы ответить на этот вопрос.
13. Он умел хорошо играть в теннис, когда был молодым.
14. Я могу отсюда прочитать надпись на пьедестале.
15. Можете закончить работу дома.
16. Можно мне еще кофе?
17. Если бы ты хотел, мог бы прийти вчера.
18. Где здесь можно курить?
19. Это все, что мне удалось получить до сих пор.
20. Она сможет встретиться с вами в понедельник.
21. Она, может быть, встретится с вами в понедельник.
22. Она может встретиться с вами в понедельник.
23. Я не могу открыть дверь. Ее, кажется, заело.
24. Он не мог вчера открыть дверь.
25. Они не смогут воплотить эту идею на практике.
26. Вы не можете судить о вещах, которых не понимаете.
27. Ему можно пользоваться машиной в ваше отсутствие?
28. Неужели он брал машину в мое отсутствие?
29. Не может быть, что она еще спит.
30. Это было больше, чем я мог вынести.
31. Этим летом мы, может быть, поедем во Францию.
32. Вечером, может быть, будет дождь.
33. Возможно, ты прав.
34. Управляющий сказал, что ты можешь остаться в гостинице до 10 часов.
35. Я просто не смог отказаться.
36. До цирка можно

добраться за 10 минут. 37. Жаль, что его не было дома. Он мог бы нам помочь. 38. Жаль, что его нет дома. Он мог бы нам помочь. 39. Никто не смог бы научить ее произносить этот звук правильно. 40. Неужели он сумел это сделать? 41. Неужели он не сумел этого сделать? 42. Неужели он не смог доказать свою точку зрения? 43. Неужели она не поняла его шутки? 44. Неужели вы вчера не слушали радио? 45. Неужели они об этом не узнали? 46. Неужели он этому верит? 47. Неужели было так холодно? 48. Неужели она ничего не сказала родителям? 49. Неужели они не получили мою телеграмму? 50. Неужели вы не смотрели фильмы Чарли Чаплина? 51. Неужели вы не умеете плавать? 52. Неужели она не рассказывала вам о поездке в Индию? 53. Я все время знал, что Джозеф не сумеет ее убедить. 54. Вы могли бы мне вчера позвонить. 55. Может быть, он мне вчера звонил. 56. Не может быть, чтобы ему здесь не нравилось. 57. Не может быть, чтобы он не одобрял вашего решения. 58. Не может быть, чтобы он знал твою тайну. 59. Не может быть, чтобы вы смирились с этой несправедливостью. 60. Не может быть, чтобы он меня не понял. 61. Он не мог меня не понять. 62. Не может быть, чтобы эти строители столько зарабатывали. 63. Не может быть, чтобы они не сказали ей, что переехали. 64. Они не могли не сказать ей, что переехали. 65. Он не может этому не поверить. 66. Не может быть, чтобы директор так с вами разговаривал. 67. Не может быть, чтобы Роджер бросил музыку. 68. Не может быть, чтобы она еще не сдала экзамен по истории. 69. Этому человеку, вероятно, было не больше сорока лет.

Exercise 4. Translate these sentences into English, using can or could + indefinite or perfect infinitive.

1. Его жена, должно быть, ничего не знает, если говорит, что все можно исправить.
2. Не может быть, чтобы это было правдой.
3. Неужели он до нее не дозвонился?
4. Разве он не предупредил вас, что не приедет?
5. Неужели студенты не поняли моих объяснений?
6. Проводник не мог не заметить подозрительного пассажира.
7. Вероятно, Робин еще не знает о своем повышении по службе.
8. Когда мой отец был молод, он мог пройти тридцать миль и не почувствовать усталости.
9. Кто мог подумать, что ты уйдешь не попрощавшись!
10. Она могла приходить, когда хотела.
11. Мама сказала, что я могу пойти с тобой погулять.
12. Ваш ассистент может работать в моем офисе; он мне не помешает.
13. Возможно, вы и упоминали о своей деятельности в Шотландии, но я этого не помню.
14. Он знал, что она заболела, и, наверно, уже навестил ее.
15. Возможно, вам и понравится этот остров, кто знает?
16. Ты мог бы не оставаться на той вечеринке, если не хотел.
17. Не может быть, чтобы наш торговый агент не пришел в назначенное время.
18. Ты мог бы признать свою ошибку.

Exercise 5. Replace the words in italics with a clause, using **MAY**, **MIGHT** OR **COULD**.

1. *Perhaps you will find you have made a mistake.* 2. *It is just conceivable that we shall get an answer tomorrow.* 3. Accept his offer now. *It is just possible that he will change his mind later.* 4. Owing to the strike, trains *will possibly* be subject to delays. 5. *It is possible that parents will find that they cannot understand the way their children are now being taught.* 6. We *shall possibly* find we can't get accommodation, as we haven't booked rooms. 7. Let's not wait any longer. *It is possible that he won't turn up at all.* 8. *It is not impossible that the Government's policy will prove to be little short of disastrous.* 9. *It is possible that they will not reach an agreement tomorrow.* 10. *It is not possible that they will reach an agreement tomorrow.*

Exercise 6. Translate these sentences into Russian, commenting on the use of **WILL / WOULD**.

1. You will already be familiar with this subject. 2. Would his name be Michael, by any chance? 3. This will be what we're looking for. 4. As you will no doubt have heard, he's getting married. 5. You won't have seen newspapers today, I suppose. 6. You won't know his name, of course. 7. Children will sit for hours watching TV. 8. I tried to refuse his invitation. But he would insist on my coming. 9. I don't know what's wrong with the car. It simply won't start. 10. Is the ladder long enough? Yes, it will reach up to the roof. 11. He would have been the manager's assistant, I assume. 12. You wouldn't have seen my gloves, by any chance? 13. The family won't have finished their dinner yet. 14. No wonder the house is cold. You will go and leave the door open. 15. In the nineteenth century, people would go to church on Sundays as a matter of course. 16. I think I will finish the work tonight. 17. My car is very fast. It will do over 180 kilometers an hour.

Exercise 7. Rewrite the sentences, using **MAY** or **MIGHT** + indefinite or perfect infinitive.

1. Although the method is crude, it's certainly effective. 2. Although he is badly paid, his work is very rewarding. 3. Perhaps you would let me know tomorrow. 4. I think you should at least have apologized for what you said. 5. I wish he would be a little more tactful. 6. Although the book is long, you could hardly call it boring. 7. Perhaps you would post this letter for me while you're out shopping. 8. Although he acted unwisely, he was at least trying to do something constructive. 9. I'm irritated that he didn't try to look at the problem from my point of view. 10. Although his work has improved, it still isn't good enough.

11. I'm annoyed that she doesn't keep her room reasonably tidy.
12. You'd better look where you are going.

Exercise 8. Translate the sentences into English, using the verb **MUST** or the appropriate form of **HAVE TO**.

1. В самом деле, тебе надо быть немного более тактичным.
2. Никому не нравится, когда приходится работать по субботам.
3. К сожалению, должен сказать, что ваши расчеты не точны.
4. Кандидаты должны заполнять бланк чернилами. 5. Развод, должно быть, оказался для него большим ударом. 6. Когда в лаборатории будет установлен компьютер, вам не придется чертить графики вручную. 7. Ты не обязан приходить просто для того, чтобы доставить мне удовольствие.

Exercise 9. Complete the sentences with **MUST**, **MUSTN'T**, or a suitable form of **HAVE TO** or **HAVE GOT TO**.

1. We ... hurry, or we'll be late.
2. Application forms ... be returned to this office within 15 days.
3. You ... visit us again some time.
4. I can never remember people's phone numbers. I always ... look them up.
5. The car broke down, and we ... have it towed to a garage.
6. The situation has now become intolerable, and something ... be done about it immediately.
7. I realize how difficult the situation is, but you ... try not to let it let you down.
8. Visas where required ... be obtained in advance of travel to the countries concerned.
9. I'm sorry ... tell you this but you leave me no alternatives.
10. It's not fair! I always ... do the dirty work.
11. You really ... try to be a little more tactful.
12. No one likes ... work at the weekends.
13. Whichever party forms the next government ... probably reinforce some sort of prices and incomes policy.
14. Candidates ... write in ink, and ... write on one side of the paper only.
15. The verdict of a jury... be unanimous: if its members are unable to reach agreement, the case ... be retried before a new jury.
16. Fortunately, the crowd dispersed peacefully. If they hadn't, the police might ... use force.
17. We ... make the job sound too difficult, or he won't take it on.
18. He suddenly took a turn for the worse, and I ... call the doctor in the middle of the night.
19. If a similar problem crops up again, you... report it to me at once.
20. It's a very difficult choice ... make.

Exercise 10. Paraphrase the clauses in **italics**, using **NEEDN'T** or a suitable negative form of **HAVE TO** or **NEED TO**.

1. *It isn't necessary for us to leave so soon.* The show doesn't start till eight.
2. *You're not obliged to come just to please me.* 3. I don't think *it's necessary for us to take his threats too seriously.* 4 *It isn't*

necessary for you to decide immediately. 5. Tomorrow is a public holiday, so you're not obliged to go to work. 6. You're not obliged to take my word for it. You can go and see for yourself. 7. If we get everything ready now, we shan't be obliged to rush around doing everything at the last minute. 8 If you listen more carefully, it wouldn't be necessary for me to keep repeating things just for your benefit. 9. He doesn't know what work is. He's never been obliged to earn his own living. 10. You're not obliged to do everything he tells you, are you? 11. It's hardly necessary for me to say how grateful I am for all you've done. 12. It was quite unnecessary for you to have told John anything. It was none of his business. 13. I shan't be able to come tomorrow, but it's unnecessary for this to make any difference to your plan. 14. He was completely at a loss. He had never been obliged to deal with such a situation before. 15. The house had just been decorated, so it wasn't necessary for us to do anything before we moved in. 16. They offered him the job on the strength of his letter. He wasn't even required to have an interview. 17. You were disappointed, I realize, but there was no need for you to have made such a fuss in public. 18. Unless you choose to tell him yourself, it is unnecessary for him ever to discover what happened. 19. It's unnecessary for you to be alarmed. 20. Nothing new came up at the meeting. I don't think it was necessary for me to have gone.

Exercise 11. Rewrite the sentences, using **DIDN'T NEED TO** or **NEEDN'T HAVE** with a suitable form of the verbs in brackets.

1. You (*wake*) me up; there's another hour before the train leaves.
2. I (*wake*) him up, because he was already sitting on the bed, putting his socks on.
3. You (*bring*) any food, but since you have, let's eat it now.
4. We (*open*) the drawer, seeing that it was already open.
5. I (*ring*) the bell, because the door opened before I got to it.
6. You (*wait*) for me; I could have found the way all right.
7. We (*wait*); he was back before you could say Jack Robinson.
8. The house had just been decorated, so we (*do*) anything before we moved in.
9. You were disappointed, I realize, but you (*make*) such a fuss in public.
10. You (*tell*) John anything. It was none of his business.
11. I bought 2 bottles of milk. — You (*buy*) milk; we have heaps at home.
12. He's repaired my old watch, so I (*buy*) a new one after all.
13. Everything was done for me. I (*do*) anything.
14. I've opened another bottle. — You (*do*) that. We've only just started this one.
15. You (*send*) for the doctor. I'm perfectly well.
16. You (*water*) the roses. Look, it's raining now.
17. I (*cut*) the grass myself. My brother did it.
18. You (*walk*) up; you could have taken the lift.
19. He (*buy*) such a large house. His wife would have been happy in a cottage.
20. We (*swim*). We were able to wade across.
21. You (*bring*) your umbrella for we are going by car.
22. I saw the accident but fortunately I (*give*) evidence, as there were plenty

of other witnesses. 23. We (*wait*) for John, because he never came at all. 24. We (*wait*) for John, because he arrived before us. 25. I (*prepare*) lunch; it had been served when I came home. 26. You (*make*) two copies: one would have been enough. 27. You (*prepare*) dinner; we are dining out this evening. 28. You (*do*) the washing up alone; I had come especially to help you.

Exercise 12. Complete the sentences with the verbs *MUST*, *CAN'T* or *NEEDN'T* and the appropriate form of the verbs in brackets.

1. Did you hear me come in last night? — No, I ... (*be*) asleep. 2. I wonder who broke the wineglass; it ... (*be*) the cat for she was out all day. 3. "I had my umbrella when I came out but I haven't got it now". — "You ... (*leave*) it on the bus". 4. He ... (*escape*) through this window because it is barred. 5. You ... (*give*) 10p. 5p would have been enough. 6. I saw a brontosaurus near the river yesterday. — You ... (*see*) a brontosaurus. There aren't any brontosauri in this country. 7. He is back already. He ... (*start*) very early. 8. He returned home with a crocodile. His wife ... (*be*) very pleased about that. 9. I phoned you at nine this morning but got no answer. — I'm sorry; I ... (*be*) in the garden. 10. The machine said, "You weigh 70 kilos," and I said, "Thank you". — "You ... (*be*) so polite with it". 11. I told him to turn left and he immediately turned right. — He ... (*understand*) you. 12. He was very sick last night. The oysters we had for dinner ... (*be*) good. 13. I saw Shakespeare in the supermarket yesterday. — You ... (*see*) him; he is abroad.

Exercise 13. Express the contrary of the following statements.

1. They must do it at once. 2. I must explain what it means. 3. You may use my tape-recorder. 4. You must hurry. 5. You and your friends may play in the back garden. 6. You must go to the party. 7. You may go to the party. 8. You may use the dictionary. 9. The boys must wear their uniforms. 10. We must write to them every day. 11. You may go out after dinner. 12. You must wait until they come. 13. They must lock the door. 14. You may eat with your fingers. 15. They must tell us in advance if they are coming.

Exercise 14. Rewrite these sentences, incorporating the verbs suggested followed by an object clause introduced by *THAT*.

1. The Government wanted the housing programme to be speeded up. (*recommend*) 2. The judge wanted the court to adjourn for lunch. (*order*) 3. The Speaker wanted the MP to withdraw his remark. (*rule*)

4. The Colonel wanted his troops to attack at dawn. (*decide*) 5. The chairman wanted the minutes to be taken as read. (*propose*)
6. Teachers wanted more nursery schools to be set up. (*advocate*)
7. The magistrate wanted the man to be released. (*direct*) 8. The police wanted members of the public not to approach the two men but to report to the nearest police station. (*give instructions*) 9. Shareholders wanted the Board to give more detailed information about profits. (*demand*) 10. The employers wanted the men to return to work so that negotiations could begin. (*urge*)

Exercise 15. Join the pairs of sentences, using the conjunctions suggested.

1. He left the letter on the hall table. He wanted me to be sure of seeing it when I came in. (*so that*) 2. The two students talked in undertones. They didn't want the teacher overhear what they were saying. (*so that*) 3. The police issued a warning. They wanted the public to be aware of the danger. (*in order that*) 4. I'm taking an umbrella. It may rain. (*in case*) 5. He keeps his wife's jewels in the bank. He fears the house may be burgled. (*lest*) 6. I don't want you to think I'm not telling the truth. I have brought two witnesses with me. (*in case*) 7. He sent his son to university. He wanted him to have the best possible chance of a good career. (*so that*) 8. I asked you to come here. I want you to have an opportunity to explain things yourself. (*so that*) 9. Loudspeakers were fixed in the adjoining hall. Everyone would have an opportunity to hear the speech. (*so that*) 10. I'll give you my telephone number. You may want to get in touch with me again. (*in case*)

Exercise 16. Translate the sentences into English, using modal verbs and expressions which denote necessity.

1. Твоя соседка, наверно, очень рассеянная, если ушла, забыв запереть квартиру. 2. Мария должна ждать нас у ближайшей станции метро. 3. Питер, должно быть, отказался от этого предложения. 4. Наши поставщики, должно быть, сдержали свое обещание. 5. Не надо волноваться. Ольга еще может приехать. 6. Не надо волноваться. Может быть, Ольга уже приехала. 7. Как жаль, что вы должны уходить. 8. Солдаты должны отдавать честь офицерам. 9. Не надо было тебе тратить все деньги на книги. Теперь у нас ничего не осталось. 10. Должно быть, Гарри не смог позвонить в назначенное время. 11. Тебе не надо было меня ждать. Я вполне мог бы и сам найти дорогу. 12. Ты должен быть очень внимателен: работа в лаборатории опасна. 13. Шофер ждет, по всей вероятности, уже час. 14. Твоим родителям не обязательно идти на это собрание. 15. Нам не пришлось бы спешить, если бы спек-

такль начинался позже. 16. Если бы я знал, какие методы они используют, я мог бы предложить некоторые усовершенствования. 17. Тебе не надо идти к врачу: ты вполне здоров.

Exercise 17. Complete the sentences with modal verbs.

1. His fiancée writes to him every day. She ... be very much in love with him. 2. I don't seem to have my key with me. I ... have left it in my other jacket. 3. He has no idea what the book is about. He ... have read it very carefully. 4. They haven't been on speaking terms recently. They ... have had a quarrel about something or other. 5. I'm amazed that she married him so soon. She ... have got to know him very well. 6. John said she ... be at least seventy, but Peter thought she ... be anything like as old as that. 7. You ... leave work early this evening if you wanted to. 8. My grandmother ... be very unpleasant at times. 9. Will you answer the phone? It ... be your mother. 10. One ... hold one's breath for three minutes, with practice. 11. You ... break your neck! 12. We ... go swimming tomorrow. 13. It ... be a very comfortable car, but it uses a lot of petrol. 14. One ... travel to Holland by boat, by hovercraft or by air. 15. It ... be true. She ... be mistaken. 16. Where ... she have gone? 17. You ... be right. 18. English cooking ... , in fact, be excellent. 19. We ... hurry, or we'll be late. 20. Application forms ... be returned to this office within 15 days. 21. You ... visit us again some time. 22. I ... never remember people's phone numbers. I always ... look them up. 23. The car broke down, and we ... have it towed to a garage. 24. The situation has now become intolerable, and something ... be done about it immediately. 25. I realize how difficult the situation is, but you ... try not to let it get you down. 26. Visas where required ... be obtained in advance of travel to the countries concerned. 27. I'm sorry to ... tell you this, but you leave me no alternative. 28. It's not fair! I always ... do the dirty work! 29. You ... have told me that you had invited people to dinner.

Exercise 18. Translate the sentences, using modal verbs of necessity.

1. Консерваторы, разумеется, выиграют следующие выборы.
2. На собрании будет, конечно, много народа. 3. Наши гости должны были прийти уже давно. 4. Я сказал, что смогу перевести этот договор. 5. Не надо говорить неправду. 6. Я беру зонт — на случай дождя. 7. Чтобы ты не подумал, что я искажаю факты, я привел двух свидетелей. 8. Важно, чтобы вы сами просмотрели эти документы. 9. Странно, что в статье не упомянуто имя изобретателя. 10. Какая жалость, что ты пропустил этот концерт — его стоило послушать. 11. Интересно, что на конференцию пригласили моего соавтора, а не меня. 12. Видел бы ты его лицо!

Exercise 19. Translate the sentences into English, using modal verbs of possibility.

1. Итак, можно задать вопрос, каковы достижения современной науки. 2. Более полное описание этого правила можно найти в практической грамматике французского языка. 3. Хорошую бумагу можно купить в нашем магазине. 4. Можно я навещу вас в Париже? 5. Позвольте спросить, кто из вас его там видел? 6. Я закрою окно, можно? 7. По правилам ты можешь оставаться здесь только в течение двух дней. 8. Кормить животных запрещено. 9. Можно мне еще чашку чая? 10. Могу я узнать ваше имя? 11. Мог бы пойти и посмотреть, что там происходит. 12. Я мог бы и в 5 часов прийти. 13. Можешь забыть все, что было вчера. 14. Будь, что будет — уеду на неделю к морю. 15. Микробиологи борются с вирусами, чтобы люди жили / могли жить дольше. 16. Пусть он оправдывает наши надежды. 17. Ты ведь чуть не разбил это зеркало. 18. Могу я дать вам совет? 19. Можно, кстати, заметить, что студенты не пользовались словарями. 20. Мы, может быть, никогда не узнаем имени этого героя. 21. Может быть, это была не самая лучшая картина на выставке, но мне она запомнилась. 22. Прием, оказанный этому кандидату в городе, вероятно, дал ему повод думать, что он здесь пользуется широкой поддержкой. 23. Может быть, они уже добрались до станции. 24. Он, может быть, и профессор, но ничего не понимает в политике. 25. Ты, может быть, думаешь, что это Джон, но я уверен, что его сейчас нет в городе. 26. Существует опасение, что все принятые меры предосторожности могут не спасти город от последующих наводнений. 27. Куда же она могла уйти? 28. Я так и знала, что он не отдаст долг вовремя. 29. В тот год я еще мог спорить с ним по всякому поводу. 30. Том может справиться с ситуацией. 31. Ральф пусть забудет все. 32. Сейчас же отнесите эти счета директору. 33. Больного из палаты 4 можно выписать завтра. 34. Скажите Уинстону, пусть войдет. 35. Никогда не думал, что ботинки могут быть такими удобными. 36. Почему аудиторы не могут оставить нас в покое? 37. Даже телевизор может надоест до смерти. 38. Мы живем недалеко друг от друга; могли бы встретиться когда-нибудь. 39. Все равно мне трудно понять, почему этого посетителя никто не заметил. 40. Ни одна женщина не могла бы этого написать. 41. Никто не мог ожидать, что он придет туда. 42. Всякий иногда бывает прав / Иногда бываешь прав. 43. Она не могла решить, что ей надеть в такую погоду. 44. Он не мог придумать, что делать с этим письмом. 45. Если бы у вас было чувство юмора, вы бы не могли не заметить, что он шутит. 46. Эту грубость уже нельзя было игнорировать. 47. Он уже чувствовал, что близок к решению проблемы. 48. Остальные могут подождать в саду. 49. Вероятно, немногие

знали его лучше, чем Питер. 50. Он тебе нравился, и ты ему, поэтому вряд ли уж он был такой плохой. 51. Из-за своей неопытности я тогда, наверное, в ней ошибся. 52. Почему ты не предупредил, что меня могли бы ввести в заблуждение? 53. Нужели он ждал нас так долго? 54. Он, наверное, совсем не сознавал того, что делал.

Exercise 20. Complete the sentences with modal verbs and expressions followed by the appropriate form of the verb suggested.

He and Margaret got down to business. Maurice had given instructions which ... (*not be*) departed from. There ... (*be*) no press announcements of the engagement: and none of the wedding except for a single notice in the Manchester evening paper, for the sake of Diana's relatives. No announcements. He ... (*write*) himself to his friends. Why all this? However his friends ... (*behave*) in other situations, here he ... (*trust*) them: Charles and all the rest ... (*set out*) to welcome her. That was part of their creed. They ... (*be*) far kinder than, in the past, my circle ... (*be*). The wedding ... (*be*) in Godfrey's church, in a fortnight's time. Here — and this was entirely understandable, for as Godfrey said, it was in order not to harass the girl — there ... (*be*) no one invited, except a cousin of Diana's to give her away. Very quietly Margaret said: "... I (*not come*)?" Maurice thought she ... (*be*) more panicky. "No." Margaret's tone was level, unemphatic. "I ... (*come*). I ... (*sit*) at the back of the church."

10. VERBALS

10.1. The Infinitive

Exercise 1. Use the infinitive in brackets in the appropriate form.

1. I am afraid it will be his destiny (*throw out*) in the street. 2. He tried various numbers at random, but without success. It was funny, he seemed (*lose*) his knack. 3. He was a lucky old man (*buy*) before art became a branch of greed. 4. He can not bear (*remind*) of what he might have missed. 5. His answers became increasingly brief, he hardly seemed (*listen*) any more. 6. The old man began to confess he was a fool (*spend*) so much of his life in a city, (*leave*) himself so little time to enjoy this. 7. I liked in them the things they did not want (*like*) for. 8. "Well, there were worse types of human being. I might almost claim (*be*) one myself, once, long ago." 9. This time Jean did not wait (*attack*). 10. I was not wholly surprised (*hear*) his voice on the tele-

phone an hour later. 11. She sprang up from the armchair in which she appeared (*doze*). 12. "Oh Goodness, I seem (*blurt out*) the secret." 13. He is said (*injure*) in a car accident. 14. She was thought (*shop*) in Regent Street. 15. I am very sorry (*involve*) you in this. 16. She was prepared (*think*) unreasonable, but not silly. 17. He is a great talker not (*trust*) further. 18. There was an ad in our local paper put in by a man with a collection of stamps (*sell*).

Exercise 2. Use either the full or the bare infinitive according to the context.

1. She made me (*wait*) for half an hour. 2. The pupil was made (*revise*) the new grammar rules. 3. She did not dare (*argue*) with the principal. 4. How dare you (*come*) gatecrashing like this! 5. She might have had her objections, but she dared not (*say*) a word. 6. I'd like you (*join*) us. 7. I think we should (*start*) early in the morning. It may (*become*) hot later. 8. I used (*live*) here when I was a child. 9. You need not (*answer*) today. You can (*think*) for a day or two. 10. Will you help me (*write*) this assay. 11. She refused (*tell*) us the truth. 12. I'd much rather not (*go*) to the party. I have a headache. 13. If you do not remember the spelling of the word, you'd better (*look*) it in the dictionary. 14. Her parents wanted her (*learn*) two foreign languages. 15. The earthquake measured only two. There was no damage done. I just felt my house (*shake*). 16. The burglars had the old lady (*show*) them where she kept her money. 17. As he had lost his key, there was nothing (*do*) but (*break*) the door open. 18. Would you rather (*stay*) at home or (*join*) them? 19. It is much better (*invest*) your money in a business than (*keep*) it at home. 20. You had better (*put*) the money in a bank than (*keep*) it in a teapot. 21. She did not as much as (*open*) his letter, let alone (*answer*) it. 22. He heard the door (*creak*) and saw a shadow (*steal*) into the room. 23. She was heard (*say*) that she always voted Labour. 24. I need (*help*) my grandmother. She cannot (*do*) it herself. 25. Do you need (*see*) the boss today? — Yes, I had better (*do*) it. There is some urgent business (*discuss*). 26. He is a very dependable man. I have never known him (*let*) anybody down. 27. She had the maid (*bring*) some tea. 28. The maid had (*bring*) the tea herself. 29. Why not (*enjoy*) the evening at home? 30. She asked why it was necessary (*take*) the tablets. 31. She does nothing but (*find*) fault with everybody around her. 32. He will do anything but (*answer*) the question directly. 33. I advised him (*ask*) a passer-by where (*turn*) to get to Regent Street. 34. Rather than (*argue*) for hours why don't you (*look*) in a reference book? 35. The only thing I could do was (*check*) myself. 36. The members of the Opposition could not help but (*yield*). 37. He tried (*make*) me (*believe*) he was my distant relation. 38. All you need (*do*) is (*stand*) back and let it (*pass*).

Exercise 3. Translate the following sentences into English, paying special attention to the use of the bare infinitive:

1. Я не позволю ему вам грубить.
2. Я не позволю ей приходить в мой дом.
3. Она не позволяла сыну встречаться с Мэри.
4. Я не позволю сплетничать об этом.
5. Джек сказал, что никому не позволит клеветать на свою сестру.
6. Вам лучше сесть на поезд в пять часов.
7. Нам лучше спрятаться от дождя в беседке.
8. Ей лучше остаться одной на некоторое время.
9. Тебе лучше не приглашать Джона на день рождения.
10. Тебе лучше взять с собой поменьше вещей.
11. Им бы лучше поискать собаку в парке.
12. Вы лучше держали бы язык за зубами.
13. Я думаю мне лучше забрать ребенка из школы в пять часов.
14. Я, пожалуй, не стану пить этот сок. Мне не нравится, как он пахнет.
15. Я бы лучше послушал классическую музыку.
16. Я бы предпочел не отвечать вам.
17. Я бы предпочла не думать об этом.
18. Хотите поехать на машине? — Нет, я лучше прогуляюсь.
19. Я скорее переночую на вокзале, чем останусь еще минуту в этом доме.
20. Она сказала, что предпочла бы умереть, чем выйти замуж за нелюбимого человека.
21. Я, конечно, согласился, но, честное слово, лучше бы мне было отказаться.
22. Лучше бы я не следовал их советам.
23. Чем без конца жаловаться на судьбу, лучше подумайте о том, что в жизни много приятных вещей.
24. Чем сплетничать про других, посмотрите лучше на себя.
25. Смотри не сломай телевизор совсем. Почему бы не позвать монтера, вместо того чтобы пытаться исправить самому.
26. Она пригрозила, что скорее откажется от работы совсем, чем позволит начальнику унижать себя.
27. Он не мог не сказать правды.
28. Они невольно заметили, что в отношениях между супругами есть некая напряженность.
29. Люси не могла не отказаться от этого предложения.
30. Книга так ее растрогала, что она не могла не расплакаться.
31. Я не мог не поддержать ее.
32. Я невольно думаю, что нам надо изменить тактику ведения предвыборной кампании.
33. Я невольно замечаю, что в политической жизни страны происходят положительные изменения.
34. Живи сам и давай жить другим.
35. Первобытные люди должны были обходиться тем, что давала им природа.
36. Помните, самое главное — не выпускайте из рук трос.
37. Она заставила меня все переделать.
38. Он сказал ей повторить послание (*Use have*).
39. Отцу хотелось, чтобы она училась в университете, но он не может заставить ее учиться.
40. Он заставил нас пообещать, что мы сохраним это в тайне.
41. Нас заставили подписать этот документ.
42. Что заставляет вас говорить неправду?
43. Я сделаю так, что он сам вам все расскажет.
44. Она только и делает, что спит.
45. Бабушка только и делает, что ворчит.
46. Эта огласка могла бы только навредить фирме.
47. Ты, кажется, только

и делаешь, что ешь. 48. Ей ничего не оставалось, кроме какходить в магазин самой. 49. Ему оставалось только повиноваться. 50. Мне ничего не остается, кроме как купить билет. 51. Их ребенок — вундеркинд. Он умеет все — только не сочиняет песен. 52. Она, казалось, была готова на все, чтобы спасти его от тюрьмы — только что не сесть в тюрьму самой. 53. Единственное, что нам остается, — это попытаться выиграть время. 54. Она была так напугана, что не могла даже двинуться с места, не говоря уже о том, чтобы что-то предпринять. 55. Вам не нужно спрашивать разрешения. 56. Как вы смеете вскрывать мои письма! 57. Она не посмела не выполнить приказ мистера Смита. 58. Пожалуйста, сообщите мне о вашем решении как можно раньше. 59. Неужели он осмелился пререкаться с тобой?

Exercise 4. Point out the infinitive, identify the structure it is used in and translate into Russian (infinitive as subject).

1. It seemed urgently necessary to speak. 2. It requires a good deal of superhuman wriggling to get out from under the steering wheel. 3. To be in company with somebody one dislikes must be truly painful. 4. I said it would be just as convenient for me to be a member of the team. 5. It would be wrong to show these letters around. 6. It does not need Sherlock Holmes to deduce something is up. 7. It might be difficult to talk privately tomorrow. 8. When I said it was essential for me to have a compartment to myself, he shook his head. 9. It was sad to see two intelligent men squabbling over such a trifle like children. 10. To walk down the road was for her a journey of exploration. 11. It was surprising to hear him talking to his partner with unnecessary sharpness. 12. It would be a very bad precedent to let the boy cut the end of term. 13. She had a great inclination to laugh. Oh, dear, how easy it was to get men to do what you wanted. 14. He felt at that moment such a love for the human race that it had never occurred to him to refuse. 15. It made me hot to realize that I might have been killed. 16. It was hard for me to believe they were exploiting the old man in any mercenary way. 17. We are delighted you have come. But it would not do to show that too obviously in front of Henry. 18. It needs a very strong faith to stand entirely alone. 19. It might be best to start now on what I intend doing.

Exercise 5. Translate into English, paying special attention to the use of the infinitive as subject.

1. Вы поступили очень неосторожно, сказав ему об этом. 2. Справедливости ради надо сказать, что она заслуживает это продвижение по службе. 3. Будет совершенно справедливо, если ребенка передадут на попечение матери. 4. Это пятно вывести

невозможно. 5. Несправедливо обвинять его в этом. 6. Стоит более подробно изучить все улики. 7. Удивительно застать вас дома в такое время. 8. Бесполезно пытаться что-либо изменить. Сделанного не воротишь. 9. Было бы интересно посмотреть эти фотографии. 10. Смешно слышать это от вас. 11. Совершенно естественно, что теперь он пытается оправдать себя. 12. Это так похоже на него — пообещать и ничего не сделать. 13. Самое безопасное, помоему, — это путешествовать поездом. 14. Скучно слышать ее рассказы о своих болезнях. 15. Ей было нелегко заставить себя примириться с этим. 16. Я думаю, ей будет приятно получить эти духи в качестве подарка на день рождения. 17. Мне удобнее ездить домой на автобусе, чем на трамвае. 18. Разве это не преступление — лишить людей последних средств к существованию? 19. Было бы ошибкой доверять ему эту работу. Он еще молод и неопытен. 20. Вы поступили опрометчиво, не предупредив ее заранее. 21. Он правильно сделал, что передумал. 22. Она умно поступила, что вовремя вложила деньги в новое предприятие. 23. Я ужаснулся, увидев, в каких руинах лежал город во время войны. 24. Меня в жар бросило, когда я понял, какая опасность мне угрожала. 25. Ее бесила мысль о том, что у подруги есть новая шуба. 26. Требуется обладать огромным мужеством, чтобы принять этот вызов. 27. Потребовалось немало усилий и средств, чтобы восстановить экономику страны после войны. 28. Потребовалось немало уговоров, прежде чем она согласилась на этот брак. 29. Нам невыгодно враждовать с ними.

Exercise 6. Point out the infinitive and its structures in the function of the predicative or part of the predicative. Translate into Russian.

1. Perhaps the object of this campaign is to damage the firm. 2. It is not the part of Hamlet that is difficult to cast. 3. The effect was to make her look more than usually like a fruit ready for plucking. 4. The only thing to do is ignore the letters. 5. If there is anything I hate, it is for the boy to look upon me as a spoil-sport and a tyrant. 6. One of the three things he particularly advised me not to do was to gamble. 7. All he wanted was for me to get out of his way. 8. Her attitude to this was hard to explain. 9. One way of not experiencing the feelings was never to use the instrument. 10. I am straying from my purpose, which was to give some description of the man. 11. Words have weight, sound and appearance, it is only by considering these that you can write a sentence that is good to look at and good to listen to. 12. They were all doing their best to please the old lady, but she was not easy to please. 13. All he did was to print in pencil the letter M and then, after a space, the letters, U, S, E. 14. His first sign of returning strength, on the second day of my visit, was to ask for brandy.

Exercise 7. Translate into English, using the infinitive as predicative or part of the predicative.

1. Проблема заключалась в том, как ей все объяснить.
2. Меньше всего она хотела, чтобы дело было предано хоть какой-нибудь огласке. 3. Книгу было очень непросто напечатать. У автора не было средств на подготовку рукописи. 4. В этом районе небезопасно жить. 5. Музыку было очень приятно слушать. 6. С ней очень трудно разговаривать, когда она в таком настроении. 7. Мой дом удобно расположен, его всегда легко найти. 8. С этого удобно начинать. 9. Такой концерт неинтересно слушать в записи. Лучше сходить в концертный зал. 10. Словари часто полезно читать на досуге. 11. На нее смешно было смотреть. 12. Единственное, чего она боялась, — это чтобы ребенок не заблудился. 13. Ее первым желанием было проверить все самой. 14. Она считала, что ее основная обязанность как хозяйки — это развлекать гостей. 15. Его предложение заключалось в том, чтобы все попытались найти приемлемый компромисс. 16. Задача продавца — обслужить покупателя быстро и вежливо. 17. Самое лучшее, что мы можем для него сделать, — это сделать вид, что ничего не происходит.

Exercise 8. Point out the infinitive as object. Translate into Russian.

I. 1. She noticed with slight surprise that this failed to get its usual reaction. 2. I didn't know whether to draw in a sharp, shocked breath or giggle frankly. 3. They had heard the beginning of the row and were anxious to follow its progress. 4. "I didn't hesitate to beat you when I was unfortunate enough to be married to you." 5. The architect thought it merely cowardly to attempt a blend of ancient and modern. 6. "If you can make it convenient to pay a visit here in the next month, I shall be obliged." 7. I am delighted to make your acquaintance. 8. If you think I am happy to sit in a hotel room waiting for a telephone call, you are wrong. 9. The whole luncheon was designed to be photographed. 10. I didn't like to call Doctor Rush, though. 11. It was his mother's disapproval that prompted him to propose marriage. 12. They were determined to imbue their son with their own ideas. 13. My legs fail to respond to the orders of the mind. 14. She couldn't bring herself to ask whether what the letters said was true. 15. He did not bother to hide his scepticism. 16. The majority were prepared to believe that the plot dictated that Tosca's attempt on his life should fail. 17. He became quite an expert as soon as he learned not to put his hand over the lens. 18. I reckon those lawyers who manage their affairs find it convenient to give them all the cash they want. 19. There was trouble about the marriage settlement with which

Julia refused to interest herself. 20. I don't pretend to be a very devout man, nor much of a theologian, but I know it is a bad plan to have two religions in one house.

II. 1. I didn't know how else to express my feelings. 2. I and several friends in circumstances like my own came seriously to believe that our country was in danger. 3. One group, from Cambridge, had that afternoon signed on to run messages for Transport House. 4. "For God's sake," I said, "you don't mean to spend your life with Kurt, do you?" 5. I saw the branch manager of the bank and arranged for him to receive Sebastian's quarterly allowance and pay him a weekly sum of pocket money. 6. I had meant to return direct to Paris, but business required that I should go to London first. 7. At the end of each passage I paused, tense, afraid to start the next, fearing, like a gambler, that luck must turn and the pile be lost. 8. He was a good loser; and when he won, was more inclined to ascribe his success to his luck than to his skill. 9. His partner, not unwilling to get a little of his own back, pointed his error out. 10. I don't know why you thought it necessary to tell Nicky something I told you in confidence. 11. He was rather surprised when he saw the bill, but with all that money he had in his pocket he could afford not to care. 12. He didn't in the least want to see the photograph of her little boy, but he thought it only civil to pretend he did. 13. In the silence she could hardly fail to hear his regular breathing. 14. Very slowly she crept across the room taking care not to make the smallest noise. 15. He made up his mind to wait quietly until he was sure that deceitful woman was asleep. 16. It took him a good quarter of an hour, because he could afford to make no sound. 17. He felt a little guilty to be enjoying himself so much. 18. A few biographical details remained to be cleared up, though even they could have been done by letter. 19. He became one of the passable substitutes those who could not afford Riley herself tended to buy. 20. Breasley sat, and waved to David to sit beside him.

III. He grew curious to know what the truth was. 2. There was a little silence, as if one waited for Breasley to declare conversation open. 3. He felt teased, faintly conspired against: now it's our turn to shock you. 4. David asked to be shown the Braque. 5. The local dentist was unfashionably eager to extract teeth rather than fill them. 6. It was all extremely symbolic, but then, if you choose to think so, nothing in this world is not symbolical. 7. The financial slump of the period, which left many painters without employment, served to enhance my success. 8. I have made it my aim to reconcile the so-called Anarchists and the so-called Communists. 9. They did nothing except sit rather glumly in their armchairs and drink occasionally. 10. I have arranged with that sweet Foreign Office man at our table to get us off early with him. 11. It couldn't do anything but arouse Jack's suspicion. 12. The girl was apparently prepared to wait for eternity for the old man's rambling to finish. 13. That will teach you to stroke strange dogs. 14. You

ought to know better than to ask questions like that. 15. At last the government nerved itself to introduce the bill in Parliament. 16. They promised her huge profits, but she refused to be deceived.

Exercise 9. Translate into English, using the infinitive as object.

I. 1. Им не по карману снимать эту квартиру. 2. Если ты можешь позволить себе обратиться к хорошему специалисту, не задумываясь сделай это. 3. Они могли позволить себе ждать. 4. В подобной ситуации нельзя позволить себе быть легкомысленным. 5. Они организуют доставку мебели на дом. 6. Мы договорились с Майклом, что он встретит ее на вокзале. 7. Я договорился, что ты остановишься у моего брата. 8. Ты можешь договориться, чтобы мне переслали эти письма? 9. Он утверждает, что видел ее. 10. Он утверждал, что он шотландец, но у него был сильный акцент. 11. Они утверждали, что сбили 20 самолетов. 12. Мы считаем, что заслуживаем более вежливого обращения. 13. Она много тренировалась и заслуживает похвалы. 14. Он вполне заслуживает критики. 15. Они рассчитывали продать весь товар к сентябрю. 16. Я рассчитываю быть дома около пяти. 17. Я полагаю, что получу от них известие не позже понедельника. 18. Им не удалось приехать раньше. 19. Он не напомнил мне об этом. 20. Я не могу понять его мысль. 21. Это всегда раздражало ее. 22. Их оштрафовали на 5 фунтов за то, что они не заполнили декларацию. 23. Спрашивайте, не стесняйтесь. 24. Какое-то мгновение я сомневался, можно ли давать ее телефон. 25. Ничуть не смущаясь, она дала нам понять, что наше присутствие нежелательно. 26. Если у вас наблюдаются подобные симптомы, не раздумывая идите к врачу. 27. Вам удалось купить подарок? 28. Я не могу понять, как он умудрился найти нас. 29. Я хотел позвонить тебе, но, к сожалению, забыл. 30. Он не мог вспомнить ни слова из того, что хотел сказать.

II. 1. Извините, я не хотел обидеть вас. 2. Прежде чем я отвечу на этот вопрос, мне нужно проконсультироваться у специалиста. 3. Мне не надо было повторять дважды. 4. Он предложил показать нам Эрмитаж. 5. Ни одна из сторон не высказала готовности пойти на уступки. 6. Она притворилась, что спит. 7. Она сидела и делала вид, что читает книгу. 8. Он сделал вид, что ему это нравится. 9. Премьер-министр пригрозил, что подаст в отставку. 10. Ситуация грозила выйти из-под контроля. 11. Она не советовала мне покупать эту машину. 12. Куда бы вы посоветовали обратиться за помощью? 13. Она посоветовала, где можно поесть. 14. У кошек прекрасное зрение, что позволяет им видеть ночью. 15. Отец не позволял ей есть шоколадные конфеты. 16. Это устройство позволяет облегчить домашний труд. 17. Приведенные факты позволяют считать, что подобных животных не

существует. 18. Они пытались убедить Мэри изменить решение. 19. Она убедила меня купить эту книгу. 20. Врач порекомендовал ему больше двигаться. 21. Не приучай собаку клянчить у стола. 22. Ее успех побудил и меня заняться журналистикой. 23. Таким поведением ты только поощряешь его грубость. 24. Они говорили, что мне стоит купить новый телевизор. 25. Предполагается, что вы не будете задавать лишних вопросов. 26. Предполагается, что вы знаете все новейшие достижения в этой области. 27. Напомни мне поговорить об этом с Дэвисом. 28. Напомни мне, что нужно купить бензина. 29. Она отметила про себя, что ей нужно поблагодарить Мэри за подарок. 30. Я предупреждал тебя неходить туда.

III. 1. Предупреди их, чтобы были начеку. 2. Наполеонставил себе целью завоевание России. 3. Она просила дать ей последний шанс. 4. Я не хочу разговаривать с ним об этом. 5. Он требовал, чтобы его ознакомили со всеми фактами. 6. Суфражистки боролись за право принимать участие в выборах. 7. Постепенно ты поймешь, что имел в виду автор. 8. Она дожила до ста лет. 9. Она вовремя не обработала рану йодом, и палец распух. 10. Многие философы стремились найти смысл жизни. 11. Осмелюсь сказать, что подобный план противоречит здравому смыслу. 12. Он сам вызвался поговорить об этом с начальником. 13. Природа гор вдохновила композитора написать новую симфонию. 14. Мы платим вам за то, чтобы вы качественно выполняли свою работу. 15. Она пригласила меня принять участие в обсуждении. 16. Она сказала, что у меня это никогда не получится. 17. Он предложил наперегонки переплыть пруд. 18. Дети боялись сказать правду. 19. Он был доволен, что получил продвижение по службе. 20. Ей повезло, что ее не заметили. 21. Мэри очень сожалела, что голосовала за N. 22. Она была очень довольна, что на нее обращают так много внимания. 23. Помощь мисс Смит сделала возможной поимку опасного преступника. 24. Мне трудно поверить, что он лжец. 25. Она считала невозможным верить слухам. 26. Я не считаю разумным так баловать детей. 27. Она поставила себе за правило делать зарядку по утрам. 28. Сейчас он встает позже, чем в молодости. 29. Она меньше двигается, чем раньше. 30. Здесь раньше был дом. 31. Нам, бывало, нравилось ходить на прогулку в этот парк. 32. Ты можешь посоветовать, какой костюм выбрать? 33. Я не могу решить, говорить правду или нет. 34. После больших колебаний я наконец решился поднять этот вопрос опять.

Exercise 10. Translate into Russian, paying attention to the infinitive used after the causative verbs MAKE, HAVE and GET.

1. He made me search the house for old manuals about Billy Bunter.
2. I have to get my memory to work, and it is like an old clock, rusty.

3. Eldred made the words sound like a command. 4. "If you could try and get her to talk. Maybe this evening. We'll get Henry off to bed early. She needs someone from outside." 5. "You must be feeling tired and dusty after your journey down. I'll guide you to your room. Marjorie, will you get someone to take up his luggage?" 6. Rex hoped to have the whole of Julia's dowry in his hands, to make it work for him. 7. "What on earth made you tell your mother that?" I asked, when, years later, Julia described the scene to me. 8. The Marchioness has been a positive pest ever since I came to London, trying to make me get into touch with them. 9. "Kurt will get me to sign a cheque for the whole lot when I am tight and then he will go off and get into all kinds of trouble." 10. I worked on, oblivious of her, until the failing sun made me put up my brushes. 11. I've turned the old barn into a studio for you, so that you needn't be disturbed by the children or when we have people to stay. I got Emden to do it. Everyone thinks it a great success. 12. "It was really John who made him see reason about that girl; seriously, you know, he is frightfully sharp." 13. The great bronze doors of the lounge had torn away from their hooks and were swinging free with the roll of the ship. There was something forbidding in the sight of that great weight of uncontrolled metal, flapping to and fro, which might have made a timid man flinch or skip through quickly. 14. "The roses were a shock. They made me think we were starting the day on the wrong foot." 15. I'll have someone come round to look after the child while we are out.

Exercise 11. Point out the objective infinitive construction and analyse its parts. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. He knew himself to be more intelligent than his chief. 2. Did he expect the story to be believed, might it even be true? With Derek anything was possible. 3. I've heard people who have been on the tour say it isn't very well organized. 4. I saw Robin's long form sidle round the door. 5. I rely on the well-known Durling tact to steer us to a compromise. 6. I don't complain. I take it to be my destiny. 7. I don't want that boy to go to prison for putting out forgeries. 8. He made no resistance, but allowed himself to be shaken back and forwards. 9. In this thrilling moment of total blackness I suddenly felt her kiss me on the cheek. 10. He took his glass and watched her pour some wine for herself. 11. Now he heard someone come out of Breasley's bedroom, then light footsteps, the creak of a floorboard outside his room. 12. He had read the subject up cursorily before coming, but now he played a little ignorant, and discovered Breasley to be rather more learned and lettered than his briskly laconic manner at first sound suggested. 13. They had chatted a little about the lake, the temperature, the niceness of it, as they trod water some ten feet apart. He saw Freak go back on shore. 14. The old man hesitated, then reached and took a

sheet of paper from a drawer beside him. Standing at his shoulder, David watched him address himself to the paper as if to some formal document. 15. Presently on the last afternoon I heard a voice behind me say: "May I stay here and watch?" 16. I've seen a few divorces in my time, and I've never known one work out so happily for all concerned. Almost always, however matey people are at the start, bad blood crops up when they get down to detail. 17. I wanted him to come home with me, but he wouldn't. He's got a beard now, you know, and he's very religious. 18. I have known cases where it has had a wonderfully soothing effect on a patient; I've even known it act as a positive stimulant. 19. I can't bear you to be alone your first night home.

Exercise 12. Point out the subjective infinitive construction. Analyse its parts and their functions. Translate into Russian.

1. His great bulk seemed to dwarf the chair he sat on.
2. He was meant to be dead.
3. He appeared not to hear the sharply hysterical cries of the Director of the Flinwich Festival.
4. The plays offered at the local theatre are not likely to disturb the intellect or the emotions.
5. The Italian police seem to have given up hope of solving the problems surrounding them.
6. It appears to have been accepted that the death was accidental.
7. He was known to have a job in the Civil Service and was understood to be interested in literature.
8. N. is agreed by those who live in it to be a delightful small town.
9. The actual bait, however, turned out to be her secretary, played by Sandy.
10. Nobody seems to care for the idea of calling in the police.
11. The town mayor happened that year to be a Labour man and a train driver.
12. She says we live in different atmospheres. That's all right, but Julia happens to fancy my atmosphere.
13. Rex's age was greatly in his favour, for among Julia's friends there was a kind of gerontophilic snobbery; young men were held to be gauche and pimply.
14. He's found a companion he happens to like and a place where he happens to like living.
15. "I never see you now," she said. "I never seem to see anyone I like. I don't know why."
16. Time is found to have built its own defensive lines, camouflaged vulnerable points, and laid a field of mines across all but a few well-trodden paths, so that, more often than not, we can only signal to one another from either side of the tangle of wires.
17. I happen to have a personal interest in the artist if that word has any meaning for you.
18. "Oh, my darling, why is it that love makes me hate the world? It is supposed to have quite the opposite effect."
19. "Would you very much mind not doing that? I don't happen to enjoy it."
20. All that he was known with certainty to have done was to form a collection of match-boxes. Other than this he was not known to have any interests.
21. "How do I know I shan't suddenly turn out to be somebody else?

It's an easy way to chuck." 22. As I don't happen to drink, I am more employable. 23. At last a date in January was chosen which proved to be the correct one. 24. It was of course a mere jotting, never meant to be printed; but which Johnson's literary executors pitched into the book with all the rest of the available posthumous materials. 25. Her father was one of those Victorian gentlemen who appear to have lived comfortably on doing nothing. 26. David was glad he had chanced to arrive when the dog was off the premises. 27. Then Henry suddenly asked if we'd like to stay to lunch. But we felt it was just a nice gesture — one was meant to refuse. 28. A father is generally supposed to like his daughters best.

Exercise 13. Translate into English, using either the subjective or the objective infinitive constructions.

1. Она, похоже, уже потеряла всякое терпение. 2. Кажется, ей здесь нравится. 3. Кажется, он совершенно ничего не делает, чтобы подготовиться к экзамену. 4. Похоже, результаты были фальсифицированы. 5. Кажется, ты забыл, что у нас на завтра билеты в театр. 6. Похоже, министр пользовался устаревшими сведениями. 7. Оказалось, что она ошибалась. 8. Картина, которая, как считали, принадлежала кисти Рубенса, оказалась подделкой. 9. Оказалось, что перевод был неточным. 10. Статья оказалась довольно интересной. 11. Обидно сознавать, что все предпринятые нами усилия оказались бесполезными. 12. Вряд ли это произойдет в ближайшем будущем. 13. Маловероятно, что поезд придет по расписанию. 14. Весьма вероятно, что запись этого концерта будут транслировать на следующей неделе. 15. По всей вероятности, вылет самолета будет задержан из-за плохой погоды. 16. Вероятно, ей уже обо всем рассказали. 17. Маловероятно, что он что-нибудь заподозрит. 18. В эту минуту она случайно оказалась неподалеку и слышала их разговор. 19. Я случайно встретился с ней по дороге в институт. 20. Если вы случайно увидите эту книгу, купите ее для меня, пожалуйста. 21. Послушайте, это место, между прочим, занято. 22. Мне, между прочим, нравится эта певица, так что, пожалуйста, не нужно так говорить о ней в моем присутствии. 23. Утверждают, что он передал секретную информацию конкурирующей фирме. 24. Считается, что эта трава помогает от 100 болезней. 25. Считается, что проблемы, связанные с монархией, отвлекают людей от действительно насущных проблем. 26. Алхимию не считают настоящей наукой. 27. Ожидается, что президент сделает важное заявление сегодня вечером. 28. Ожидается, что цены снова вырастут. 29. Никто не ожидал, что эта акция будет популярной. 30. Предполагается, что переговоры продлятся 3 дня. 31. Вы обязаны приходить на работу в 8 часов. 32. Предполагается, что вы не будете зада-

вать лишних вопросов. 33. Начальник считал, что она должна ставить работу превыше личной жизни. 34. Обнаружилось, что он скрывается в Южной Америке. 35. По оценкам экспертов, данный политический курс должен привести к экономическому подъему. 36. Известно, что во время второй мировой войны он был в Испании. 37. Согласно прогнозам, консерваторы должны были получить большинство в парламенте. 38. Сообщается, что этот режиссер снимает сейчас новую картину. 39. Я не могу до нее дозвониться. Говорят, она уехала за границу. 40. Ходят слухи, что он женился. 41. Его считали очень сведущим в вопросах истории. 42. Полагали, что они тайно обвенчались еще месяц назад. 43. Было видно, как она кивнула в знак согласия. 44. Слышали, как она сказала, что уезжает в командировку. 45. Видели, как машина свернула за угол и остановилась у банка. 46. Спроси Джека. Он наверняка знает. 47. Внезапно она услышала, что дверь открылась. 48. Он проследил за тем, как она вышла из комнаты. 49. Я заметил, что к забору подбежала собака, и решил подождать, пока не выйдет ее хозяин. 50. Я видел, как кто-то подошел к окну и подал условный сигнал. 51. Она слушала, как за окном завывает ветер. 52. В темноте я почувствовал, как что-то мягкое коснулось моей руки, и невольно вздрогнул. 53. Я рассчитываю на то, что вы сдержите свое слово. 54. Ей не нравилось, когда ее родственники провожали ее. 55. Она хотела, чтобы они ей поверили. 56. Я хочу, чтобы вы показали мне все относящиеся к делу документы. 57. Начальник хочет, чтобы работа была завершена в понедельник.

Exercise 14. Point out infinitive structures in the function of attribute. Translate into Russian, paying special attention to a possible modal meaning expressed by the infinitive in this function.

1. He hasn't produced sufficient evidence to justify a perhaps lengthy and expensive investigation abroad.
2. Headfield is a prosperous town with pleasant country to be reached in ten minutes' drive.
3. She left shortly after dinner, saying that she had an article to write and a deadline to meet.
4. They thought it would be a good place to bring up the kids.
5. He complained about my failure to return this or that set of figures which were urgently required.
6. One condition was that Signor Morvelli should have an option to buy two hundred shares in the company, at a price to be agreed.
7. And I have the house to look after and your dinner parties to arrange.
8. There are no slums in Headfield of the kind to be seen in London and other big cities.
9. She had been frightened of him once, but now he was a piece of property to be wheeled about, helped in and out of bed, tucked up at night.
10. There was an ad in our local rug put in by a man with a

collection of cigarette cards to sell. 11. Norman had the audacity to say I could have bought them if I had gone in the morning. 12. He felt that Colin would lack the nerve to do anything original. 13. In spite of Robin's desire to promote European dramatists, the next play to be produced by the Headfield players was *Murder Most Informal*. 14. Brenda pointed out the undesirable publicity likely to follow any police enquiry. 15. When we stood waiting for the motor boats to take us to our hotel, it was raining. 16. There was only ten days of term to go; I got through them somehow and returned to London. 17. They are not animals in a zoo to be goggled at. They are artists, very great artists, to be revered. 18. Still there may be time for him to see her. 19. Goodness knows there is nowhere to go in the old town. 20. There is nothing for a student to do here now. 21. Once he stayed out all night and there was no one to make my coffee when I woke up. 22. My work had nothing to recommend it except my growing technical skill, enthusiasm for my subject, and independence of popular notions. 23. The time has now come to rebuild on broader foundations. 24. It was no time for the sweet of luxury. Now on the rough water there was a formality to be observed, no more. 25. Really I think it is a thing for Lord Brideshead to decide. 26. He had no strength for any other war than his own solitary struggle to keep alive. 27. The man, who, in his time, had had ample chance to tire of undergraduate fantasy, was plainly captivated. 28. I felt at heart that this was not all which Oxford had to offer. 29. She made a vague gesture for him to follow her, and turned to the stairs. 30. Henry had still another decade to wait before any sort of serious recognition at home. 31. He very rarely indeed found nothing at all to praise in an artist or an exhibition. 32. It must have been something to do with the sun, the water and their low voices. 33. It gave us an opportunity to meet many different people.

Exercise 15. Translate into English, using the infinitive as attribute.

1. Это не та вещь, которую можно дарить на день рождения.
2. Он не из тех, кого нужно бояться.
3. Она не тот человек, над которым можно смеяться.
4. Нам далеко идти.
5. Ей не к кому обратиться.
6. Винить некого.
7. Она первой произнесла это слово.
8. Ее приняли последней.
9. У него хватило наглости прийти сюда.
10. Было много людей, нуждающихся в операции.
11. У нас нет никого, кто мог бы присматривать за ребенком.
12. Вот лекарство, которое нужно принять немедленно.
13. Ему надо было написать несколько писем.
14. У меня не было возможности съездить туда.
15. Нам предстояло решить сразу несколько проблем.
16. У меня есть несколько книг по искусству, которые ты можешь пролистать.
17. Боюсь, нам придется со многим смириться.
18. У девочки не было брата, с которым она могла бы играть.

19. Мне нечего вам предложить. 20. Мальчик первым услышал звонок. 21. Вот образец, который тебе нужно переписать. 22. Она получила письмо, в котором говорилось, что ее приняли на работу. 23. Вагон был так переполнен, что я не мог найти свободного места. 24. Эту книгу трудно читать в поезде. Ее нужно читать дома со словарем. 25. Этот фильм интересно смотреть. 26. Он не такой человек, которому можно доверять. 27. Я не мог противостоять соблазну купить такую хорошую вещь за такую низкую цену. 28. Вы упустили возможность загладить свою вину. 29. Она сделала огромное усилие, чтобы не потерять самообладание. 30. Это удобный способ дать ей понять, что она ошибается. 31. У меня нет никакого желания рассказывать вам что-либо. 32. У вас нет никакого права вмешиваться. 33. Писатель получил разрешение пользоваться военными архивами. 34. Она посмотрела на меня таким взглядом, который говорил, что мне лучше молчать.

Exercise 16. Point out the infinitive as adverbial modifier and identify its type. Translate into Russian.

1. She crossed to the desk so as to look for the safe-conduct. 2. The first possibility is that the letter was written to damage the firm. 3. You didn't search me out to talk about Colin. So what is up? 4. He had been given that straight eye-to-eye look by Derek too often not to know that it was a warning. 5. I was no fool; I was old enough to know that an attempt had been made to suborn me and young enough to have found the experience agreeable. 6. He drew the curtains and the sound of it woke me, to find him there fully dressed. 7. I felt too ill for the speculation to take root in my mind at the time. 8. As if to justify him a sable cloud blotted out the sun, large drops of rain fell on bare heads and shoulders. 9. I said I was willing to pay infinitely more to have a compartment to myself. 10. Sandy drifted away to talk to the Persons, who had recently arrived. 11. Jason dressed with care in a shirt with a gray stripe in it so faint as to be almost invisible. 12. Her teeth were too white to be real. 13. She had only to stroke the magic ring with her fingertips and whisper the charmed word, for the earth to open at her feet and belch forth her titanic servant who would bring her whatever she asked. 14. He sat on a number of charitable committees in order to be near her. 15. We drove at great speed and arrived to find a steel hawser stretched between lamp posts, an overturned truck and a policeman. 16. He answered softly in English fluent enough to suggest that it was now habitual to him. 17. I am here to cure people, not to protect them from vicious habits, or teach them self-control. 18. The voices seemed so distant as to be meaningless. 19. She had married me six years ago at the time of my first exhibition, and had done much since then to push our interests. 20. There

was an article on it in *Country Life*; I bought it for you to see. 21. You'd think, to hear them talk to each other, they were the same age. 22. Most passengers had fads; he was paid to fortify their self-esteem. 23. Then he looked round furtively to see if he had been observed, caught my eye, and giggled nervously. 24. I telephoned for a barber to come and shave me. 25. She had not come to see the pictures but to get a "human story" of the dangers of my journey. 26. The soft breeze gently stirred the blossom in the limes and carried its fragrance, fresh from the late rains, to merge with the sweet breath of box and the drying stone. 27. He spoke as though it were a mere trick of fate that he was none of these things, and he might awake any morning to find the matter adjusted. 28. I, of course, was host, though to hear Beryl press my son with food, you might have thought otherwise. 29. There was a pause in which Julia sighed and John drew breath as though to start further subdividing the propositions. 30. It was a charming room, oddly shaped to conform with the curve of the dome. 31. I haven't sent him to Cambridge just to play tennis. 32. Nicky was not such a fool as to be unaware that women often liked him. 33. But as if to confirm that the thing was not to be taken lightly, he saw that the gate was padlocked on the inner side. 34. The old man began to confess he was a fool to have spent so much of his life in a city. 35. She reached a hand skyward as if to push the memory away. 36. Some time later he had stood to go, but the old man stopped him before he could move away. 37. The girl tilted an angle lamp to light the place she had chosen. 38. It had causes too small, too manifold to have been detected in the past or to be analysed now. 39. He broke off and coughed, so as to hide the fact that he had uttered. 40. Her smile faded quickly: "You were crazy to come."

Exercise 17. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of the infinitive as adverbial modifier. More than one variant may be possible.

1. Вода сегодня слишком холодная, чтобы мы могли купаться.
2. Она была так слаба, что не могла встать с постели без посторонней помощи.
3. Она была так напугана, что не могла сдвинуться с места.
4. Зал недостаточно велик, чтобы вместить такое количество зрителей.
5. Она была слишком доверчивым человеком, чтобы понять, что ее обманывают.
6. Лектор говорил так быстро, что студенты не успевали за ним записывать.
7. Текст настолько сложный, что я не могу перевести его.
8. Она слишком известная певица, чтобы согласиться петь за такую цену.
9. Она такая ханжа, что вряд ли одобрят это.
10. Звук был слишком слабым, чтобы кто-нибудь обратил внимание.
11. Ветер был слишком сильным, чтобы судно могло выйти в море.
12. Она была достаточно тактична, чтобы не подать виду.
13. Если сло-

жить этот надувной матрас, он станет достаточно компактным, чтобы поместиться в сумке. 14. Эта кастрюля недостаточно большая, чтобы варить в ней суп. 15. Давай купим крупы по дороге домой, чтобы завтра не ходить в магазин. 16. Они выехали раньше, чтобы не попасть в пробку. 17. Надо включить телевизор сейчас, чтобы не пропустить начало фильма. 18. Когда Майкл пришел домой, он узнал, что его дочь отвезли в больницу. 19. Она обернулась — и увидела, как за нею идет какой-то человек. 20. Я нашел указанную гостиницу, но мне там сказали, что номер для меня не забронирован. 21. Джек сказал, что хранит пистолет в ящике письменного стола. Они открыли ящик, но пистолета там не было. 22. Она думала, что он придет, чтобы все рассказать. 23. Она лезла из кожи вон, чтобы стать его женой. 24. Она провела рукой по волосам, словно хотела поправить прическу. 25. Я пришел сюда не для того, чтобы развлекать вас. 26. Чтобы ничего не объяснять, она повесила трубку. 27. Он повернулся к окну, словно хотел сказать, что разговор закончен.

Exercise 18. Use the infinitive in brackets in the appropriate form.
State the function of the infinitive. Translate into Russian.

1. He couldn't (*bear*) (*look*) at her more than was necessary. 2. How often he had heard her (*tell*) the story. 3. She made you (*feel*) ashamed for the whole human race. 4. (*Make*) these silent and spectral appearance was one of Janet's peculiar talents. 5. Her eyes were large and dark with the largeness and darkness that seemed (*invite*) sties and an occasional bloodshot suffusion. 6. She hopes (*be*) well enough (*see*) you at luncheon tomorrow. 7. Reality does not always (*come*) up to the ideal. But that doesn't make me (*believe*) any the less in the ideal. 8. It was the first time he had done such a thing; the action seemed not (*resent*). 9. Once out of sight of the house he let his high pace (*decline*) to a trot, and finally to a walk. 10. I could (*lock*) myself up and force myself not (*come*) to you. 11. She had half a mile in which (*invent*) the necessary lies. 12. "I'd rather (*leave*) in peace (*die*) here," she was crying in earnest now. 13. (*Make*) amends for his show of exasperation he went up to his wife's room and offered (*read*) to her. 14. She leaned forward, aimed, so (*speak*), like a gun, and fired her words. 15. He wasn't romantic enough (*imagine*) that every face masked an interior physiognomy of beauty and strangeness. 16. I'll drink it after my medicine (*take*) the taste away. 17. He was happy (*be*) alone. 18. It was tiresome (*catch*) out in a lie. 19. He slept for seven and a half hours, and woke (*find*) the sun high in the sky. 20. I didn't mean (*write*) to you; I meant (*wait*) until you were out of mourning and could (*come*) and (*see*) me again. 21. I can't (*understand*) how you ever came (*pay*) any attention to me, I am so dull and

stupid. 22. It was imbecile, idiotic: there was no other way (*describe*) it. 23. There is no interest or pleasure (*derive*) from these wretched affairs. 24. Mr Hutton found it very difficult (*distinguish*) what she was saying. 25. A wicked man had been moved by an illicit passion (*kill*) his wife. For months he had lived in sin and fancied security — only (*dash*) at last more horribly into the pit he had prepared for himself. Murder will out, and here was a case of it. The readers of the newspapers were in a position (*follow*) every movement of the hand of God. 26. It was all too fantastic (*take*) seriously. 27. He had seen it (*fall*), he had heard it (*strike*) the pavement. 28. She seemed (*drink*) about half the bottle. 29. "I'll commission him (*paint*) frescoes round this room. It is just what I've always vainly longed for — a real nineteenth-century artist (*decorate*) this place for me." 30. He took it into his head, somewhere about the sixties, (*go*) to Palestine (*get*) local colour for his religious pictures. 31. "Get someone (*put*) all these things back in their places," Lord Badgery commanded. 32. One of the first things I shall do when my fortunes are restored will be (*buy*) a hedgehog. 33. The two girls seemed (*disappear*). In the corridor above he stopped (*look*) at two paintings he had noticed when she first showed him up and failed (*put*) a name to. 34. A chance meeting led to an invitation (*do*) some reviewing; and a year later still that had become lucrative enough for him (*drop*) the lecturing. 35. Then suddenly, as if (*solve*) the enigma, the living painter himself appeared from the garden door. 36. Between bites at his pear David asked why it had taken so long (*find*) that out. 37. All his life he must have had this craving for a place (*hide*); a profound shyness, a timidity; and forced himself (*behave*) in an exactly contrary fashion. 38. Presently, (*ease*) the tension, one of the others mentioned a subject upon which Henry was glad (*speak*). 39. He saw in fancy his son (*leap*) over the net (*shake*) hands with the American champion whom he had just defeated. 40. It was not unusual for dinner parties (*end*) in that way. 41. The last architect (*work*) at Brideshead had added a colonnade and flanking pavilions. 42. I expected you (*make*) mistakes your first year. 43. I know it must be embarrassing for you, but I happen (*like*) this bad set. 44. Then they began (*blaspheme*) in a very shocking manner, and suddenly I, too, began (*annoy*). 45. He thought it would make me (*grow*) out of what he calls my "English habits". 46. I never heard anyone (*speak*) an ill word of Stefanie. 47. Antoine claims (*have*) an affair with her. 48. Take yesterday. He seemed (*do*) very well. He learned large bits of the catechism by heart, and the Lord's Prayer, and the Hail Mary. 49. Do you expect a grown man (*believe*) about walking to heaven? 50. I mean I was much too deep with Rex (*be able*) (*say*) "The marriage arranged will not now take place," and leave it at that. I wanted (*make*) an honest woman. I've been wanting it ever since — come (*think*) of it. 51. Father Mowbray hit on the truth about Rex at once, that it took me a year of marriage (*see*). 52. She tele-

phoned (say) her mother was anxious (*see*) me. 53. We went across the hall to the small drawing-room where luncheon parties used (*assemble*), and sat on either side of the fireplace. 54. It seems a shame (*pull*) it down, but Julia says she'd sooner do that than (*have*) someone else (*live*) there. 55. Whenever he comes, the first thing he does is (*drive*) straight to the Old Rectory. 56. The secretary had failed (*remind*) them of our departure in time. 57. I felt it was all right for me (*dislike*) her. 58. I saw her to bed, the blue lids fell over her eyes; her pale lips moved on the pillow, but whether (*wish*) me good night or (*murmur*) a prayer — I did not know. 59. I've never known a divorce (*do*) any good.

Exercise 19. Analyse the function of the infinitive used in newspaper articles. Translate into Russian. Point out the peculiarities of the use of the infinitive in newspaper language.

1. He survived to tell his story, but finds that in a country paranoid about violent crime very few want to listen.
2. He had to watch his five children grow up without him.
3. The trip to the Derby and many other events are captured by this two-hour documentary, to be broadcast close to the anniversary date of February, 6th.
4. Mr Major's political judgement turns out to be faulty.
5. The Tories are certain to win every future election, since economic conditions could hardly be less favourable than in 1992.
6. Economics is likely to be less important than the influence of non-economic factors.
7. During the past three election campaigns, most of the media, which tend to back the Tories, have joined in. Economic optimism was bound to increase as a result.
8. The Sunday Times has discovered that one of the most influential textbooks fails to recommend a commonly used technique to save lives.
9. He is known to be concerned that a hard core of persistent juvenile offenders have been able to escape prosecution because of their age.
10. Mr Howard has pressed ahead with secure detention centres for persistent young offenders and is anxious for the courts to have adequate powers to deal with them.
11. It is unlikely that decisions could be reached in time for changes to the law to be included.
12. It is almost an affront to common sense to presume that a boy of 12 or 13 who steals a motor car is unaware he is doing wrong.
13. The princess spoke of the "grief and guilt" felt by mothers who will not see their children grow up, and the problems of finding someone to confide in.
14. His teachers know about her illness and are understanding, but she is reluctant to let other parents know.
15. They said that Silcock would not have injured the officer if he had been made to accept treatment earlier.
16. He has resisted attempts to merge the internal security organisation with the armed forces.
17. In the past Prince Sultan has made no secret of his ambition to be king.
18. Prince

Sultan is said to be preferred by the United States. 19. By contrast, Prince Abdullah is thought to have been unhappy about the large and unprecedented US presence in the kingdom during the campaign to liberate Kuwait. 20. He favours good ties with Britain and France to balance over-dependence on Washington. 21. He is likely to maintain a cautious policy on the two key issues. 22. Yesterday's announcement appears to confirm Prince Abdullah's position. 23. In 1865-1867 Walter Bagehot, the finest and most influential writer ever to have been editor of the *Economist*, defined the constitutional role of the modern British monarchy. 24. To put monarchy to a vote is by definition to destroy its very essence. 25. In this age both of television and democracy the royal family has sought to make itself more accessible. 26. If Prince Charles is deemed widely to be an unsuitable king, then to allow him to succeed without a referendum would itself harm the institution of the monarchy. 27. The government gave campaigners one last chance yesterday to save the world's most expensive sculpture, Canova's *The Three Graces*. 28. Victoria and Albert museum has spearheaded attempts to raise 7.6 million pounds to match the Getty Museum's Offer. 29. There are real hopes that this deferral might just be enough for the fund-raising campaign to be successful. 30. It took Monet, Duchamp and Pollock to realize the true meaning of art. 31. Certainly, the British public takes time to appreciate its home-grown talent. 32. Education department figures, to be released next month, will reveal a fourfold increase in the number of children excluded from school. 33. I was also supposed to be working towards my A-levels. 34. It seems strange that the dons, in their faddish determination to prove themselves even more democratic, profess to be doing this to favour the likes of me. 35. One possible advance would be for groups of universities offering the same subject to band together to set common papers. 36. In a move to boost the flagging momentum of the policy to encourage schools to opt out of local authority control, proposals will be published for consultation next week. 37. Mr Portillo appeared to accept that a straight win would be enough to keep him in office. 38. Raymond Eden, who left his radio on to foil burglars when he went on holiday, returned to find it had been turned off by noise control officers. 39. Another young voter says he is depending on Labour to bring government back to Scotland.

10.2. The Gerund

Exercise 1. Use the gerund in brackets in the appropriate form.

1. I told him the words Sandy had murmured and then denied (speak). 2. He was afraid of (take) for another person. 3. Under po-

lice questioning he admitted (*invent*) the story. 4. It does not bear (*think about*). 5. In due course he began talking to him of Nicky and what chance the boy had of (*choose*) to play for the university during the following season. 6. It is idiotic to leave Monte Carlo without (*try*) your luck. 7. Always rather fond of (*like*), he developed a manner carefully blended of honesty and tact. 8. I distinctly remember last Christmas (*see*) you together and (*think*) how happy you looked. 9. He was ashamed of me when he found I didn't cut the kind of figure he wanted, ashamed of himself for (*take in*). 10. Her modern jewellery gave the impression of mass (*produce*). 11. In two years he seemed (*to have attained*) his simple ambition of (*know*) and (*like*) in such places. 12. Rex seemed a rough, healthy, prosperous fellow whose name was already familiar to him from (*read*) the political reports. 13. Police believe that Celine's body had been in the fields less than 24 hours before (*find*) by a motorist. 14. She mentioned (*see*) me on television the previous night. 15. I know that he dislikes (*wake up*) early in the morning, but the matter is very urgent. 16. Jack recalled (*see*) the car in front of the theatre. 17. I remember (*read*) about it in one of the historical novels. 18. I got out my jacket, which had the appearance of (*put*) away for a long time.

Exercise 2. Point out the gerund in the functions of subject or part of a predicate. Determine whether the gerund is used singly, in a phrase, or in a construction. Analyse the elements of the construction. Translate into Russian.

1. He is extravagant. Living beyond his means is a matter of principle to him. 2. Standing still merely means running backwards. 3. Sitting in a train for 24 hours isn't my idea of bliss. Sunbathing in the garden is more my line. 4. Venice is a city where walking is not merely desirable but inevitable. 5. It is no good my saying one swallow doesn't make a summer; he doesn't see that it is just a fluke. 6. It is so banal saying you haven't read the book of the moment, if you haven't. 7. Then he kept coming two or three times a week, always drunk, until the Superior gave orders that the porter was to keep him out. 8. I've gone too far; there is no turning back now. 9. It was odd, wanting to give something one had lost oneself. 10. Isn't it heaven saying good-bye and knowing we shall meet again in half an hour? 11. It occurred to her that, with my interest in architecture, my true métier was designing scenery for the films. 12. What a treat seeing your name in the list! 13. It isn't so good being alone when you're sick. 14. It hadn't been worth leaving Paris. 15. He answered, "Delighted", and that settled the matter as far as mammy stopping us legally went. 16. It was no good her telling herself that in charity she must assume his good faith; it brought back memories of another courtship and conversion. 17. I make money work for me. It's pure waste tying up capital at

three and a half. 18. The only disadvantage was having to put up with my company, and we soon solved that for him. 19. And the teachers still go on trying to make them paint like Delacroix. 20. I thought perhaps it was rather a waste of time going back to Oxford. 21. "Oh, dear, it's no good trying to explain. Protestants always think Catholic priests are spies." 22. We should miss you so much if you ever stopped coming to stay with us. 23. He could have explained all this if he liked. But in the present case it wasn't worth taking the trouble. 24. However, it's no use speculating what the picture may have been going to look like. 25. Sometimes I think I ought to stop loving you. 26. She altered the position of one card, took back another, and went on playing. Her patiences always came out. 27. It was a bother having to lie like this. 28. For a long time she did not answer, and he went on stroking her hair mechanically, almost unconsciously. 29. The new painting is remarkable. I don't know how he keeps on pulling them out. 30. He did not seem drunk, there was no fumbling after his glass. 31. There was no mistaking the sound. 32. Since you don't know, it's no use my telling you.

Exercise 3. Translate into English, paying attention to the use of the gerund as subject or part of a predicate.

1. Ваш приезд может усложнить дело. 2. Остаться дома — это лучшее, что можно сделать в подобных обстоятельствах. 3. Не удивляйтесь. Ложь для него — дело привычное. 4. Лесть вам не поможет. 5. Чтение газет позволяет быть в курсе событий в мире. 6. Любить — значит прощать и верить. 7. Сидя допоздна, вы вредите своему здоровью. 8. Читая в постели, вы портите зрение. 9. Ее выигрыш в турнире был сюрпризом для всех. 10. Его участие в этом деле не принесет нам пользы. 11. Их ранний отъезд был вызван чрезвычайными обстоятельствами. 12. Мне очень приятно плавать утром в чистом море! 13. По правде говоря, не было ничего приятного в том, что я прождал два часа. 14. Никто не мог сказать, как она воспримет эту новость. 15. Неизвестно, сколько бы еще времени она говорила, если бы кто-то из гостей не отвлек ее внимания. 16. Эту машину уже не отремонтировать. 17. Совершенно ясно, что означают его слова. 18. Теперь его уже не остановить. 19. Никто не станет отрицать, что она заслужила награду. 20. Невозможно объяснить ее странное поведение в доме мисс Смит. 21. Нет смысла спорить с ним. Он считает, что всегда прав. 22. Пожалуй, нет смысла звонить ей. Ее все равно нет дома. 23. Сделанного не воротишь (*пословица*). 24. Нет смысла смотреть фильм до конца. Он такой примитивный, что и так все понятно. 25. Ждать не было никакого смысла, и я пошел домой. 26. Нет смысла пытаться убедить ее в обратном. 27. Нет смысла больше волноваться. 28. Стоит еще раз просмотр-

реть отчет. Там могут быть ошибки. 29. Я думаю, не стоит так убиваться на работе. Всех денег не заработкаешь. 30. Стоит отвлечься на минуту и подумать о чем-нибудь другом. 31. Мне кажется, стоит поспать минут десять, и вы восстановите силы. 32. Стоит прислушаться к ее словам. Еще не было случая, чтобы она давала плохой совет. 33. Это означало, что придется провести бессонную ночь. 34. Она понимала, что промолчать в такой ситуации — значит потерять лучшую подругу. 35. Вам не кажется, что это будет фактически означать разрыв дипломатических отношений? 36. Моим делом было обучать их вождению. 37. Самым важным было сдать экзамены. 38. Единственной проблемой было то, что надо было убедить родителей дать свое согласие. 39. Вы постоянно делаете одну и ту же ошибку. 40. С тех пор как я увидел этот фильм, я не перестаю думать о нем, такое сильное впечатление он на меня произвел. 41. Простите, что я все время чихаю. У меня весной аллергия. 42. Она без конца повторяла одно и тоже. 43. Неужели я должен постоянно твердить вам одно и то же! Как можно быть таким несобранным? 44. Она продолжала бежать, как будто за ней кто-то гнался. 45. Она хотела продолжить чтение, но ребенок без конца задавал вопросы. 46. Шутка показалась ей такой смешной, что она продолжала смеяться даже после того, как все уже не смеялись. 47. Все пытались ее утешить, но девочка продолжала плакать. 48. Внезапно она прервала еду и встала из-за стола. 49. В тот вечер дождь так и не прекратился. 50. Она перестала писать и посмотрела на часы. 51. Это не шутка — переплыть такое широкое озеро.

Exercise 4. Point out the gerund and gerundial construction in the function of object. Pay attention to the verbs and prepositions the gerund is used after. Translate into Russian.

I. 1. The outrageously beautiful Clarissa no longer prevented him from directing his full batteries against Jean. 2. Instead of climbing the short flight of iron stairs he turned abruptly and hurried off. 3. He contented himself with saying alternatively at intervals, "Yes, yes he will go," and "Calm yourself, think of your voice!" 4. Clarissa looked visibly doubtful about whether there was now any point in throwing herself to death. 5. He said something incoherent and ridiculous about being in Elba and meeting somebody there. 6. For a wild moment she contemplated coming back one evening and ringing every bell. 7. That did not stop Uncle Jack from reproaching him. 8. Jason talked Derek into withdrawing from the deal. 9. There are other events I think worth noting, although most of the day is like the ten thousand others. 10. "Hallo, stranger, fancy meeting you!" The inane words were accompanied by his inane laugh. 11. His varied career had never been

connected with buying or selling machines. 12. I said that I shouldn't think of mentioning it. 13. Perhaps I was mistaken in thinking of Chuck as an American. 14. Derek cannot help acting, so that it would not be quite right to say he looked serious. 15. There was a fuss about his handling the bar accounts. 16. Caroline had a flair for knowing when a finesse should be attempted. 17. She was an expert typist and never found difficulty in getting jobs. 18. The principal suspect, an autocratic lady who had good reasons for murdering everybody else on the stage, was played by Brenda Wilson. 19. They gathered the suspects together and took turns in switching suspicion from one to another. 20. The amateur dramatists might be worth watching. 21. He was giving me occasional glances as if he suspected me of watching him. 22. Of course the odds were against the door being opened by Lucy. 23. Can you imagine an unpleasantness like that happening to Mike? 24. When you came up, I remember advising you to dress as you would in a country house. 25. No one minds a man getting tight once or twice a term. 26. We shouldn't dream of being so offensive as to suggest that you never met us before. 27. "As his medical man I must protest against anything being done to disturb him". 28. I thought he made a pretty poor show when it came to explaining. 29. I was wrong in thinking that the religious controversy was quashed; it flamed up again after dinner. 30. She decided to move, too, and was talking of setting up alone in London.

II. 1. He told me he'd practically given up drinking at one time. 2. I imagine she had been used to bossing things rather in naval circles. 3. I wasn't thinking of dedicating the book to anyone. 4. He'll have his job cut out to stop this little deal going through. 5. There is nothing like a bit of rough weather for bringing people together. 6. I've never been at sea before except coming to New York and, of course, crossing the Channel. 7. People said she had "made" me, but she herself took credit only for supplying me with a congenial background. 8. I remembered that there had been talk of this before, as an additional reason for her staying behind. 9. The affair ended with their giving each other tall glasses of lager beer. 10. No one can ever resist going to see her own present. 11. She had looked forward so much to being my bridesmaid. 12. If there was anything to say, I'd suggest our discussing it in the morning. 13. He wanted to make her dowry work for him, but the lawyers insisted on tying it up. 14. I tried to think only of the salad. I succeeded for a time in thinking only of the soufflé. Then came the cognac and the proper hour for confidences. 15. He talked of Julia and I heard his voice, unintelligible at a great distance, like a dog's barking miles away on a still night. 16. He was a delightful companion. I can't think how I missed knowing him. 17. He was jealous about my getting into the College. 18. Again she was wanted to talk and was on her guard against revealing too much. 19. He'd never have agreed to your doing the book if you hadn't been reason-

ably near the truth. 20. The old man had difficulty in getting the glass to his month, then tried to gulp down the wine in one brave swallow. 21. The old man opened his hands, as if in agreement, and seemed amiably not interested in pursuing the matter of David's own work. 22. He decided to try his luck at living by his own painting alone. 23. David was not to let himself be duped into thinking that the subject of the book didn't care a fig for home opinion. 24. She hadn't forgotten his coming completely. 25. He knew that no objection would be made to his leaving before the end of the term. 26. My father wasn't any too keen on my coming at all. 27. I can't help thinking there was something wrong about the advice you gave me. 28. He was, of course, occupied in giving splendour to his book. 29. All the other commercial enterprises of the street aimed at purveying the barest necessities to the busy squalor of the quarter. 30. His wife was sitting up in her deck chair, engaged in opening her white parasol. 31. He couldn't refrain from laughing. "You have a macabre passion for specialists." 32. The newspapers were right in making of the case the staple intellectual food of a whole season. 33. He was successful in bullying and cajoling the manager into giving fifty persons dinner at twelve shillings a head. 34. He was always full of apologies for being so slow in recognizing who was there. 35. He said something about there being more faith in honest doubt.

Exercise 5. Use either the infinitive or the gerund of the verb in brackets.

1. You should forbid the children (*play*) with matches. It's very dangerous. 2. The driver struggled (*pull*) the lorry out of the mud. 3. She can't help (*worry*) about her children. 4. He keeps (*promise*) (*repay*) the dept, but I don't think he will, in the near future. 5. I avoided (*meet*) them. 6. She claims (*be*) a descendant of Lord Nelson. 7. We discussed (*leave*) our jobs and (*start*) our own business. 8. The soldiers were ordered (*stand*) at attention. 9. She advised me (*travel* — negative) to this country. 10. The mother urged the girl (*continue*) her education. 11. The windows need (*clean*). 12. I enjoyed (*listen*) to them. 13. Fancy (*meet*) you here of all places. 14. I don't mind (*wait*) a bit. So don't hurry. 15. She warned me (*switch* — negative) it on. 16. The boy's hair wants (*cut*). 17. Many people prefer (*watch*) video at home to (*go*) to the cinema. 18. She resented (*be dismissed*). 19. I didn't feel like (*work*) in the garden. 20. He suggested (*go*) to the woods to pick mushrooms. 21. Mike offered (*bring*) some food to the party. 22. I don't have to remind her (*switch*) off the light. She always does it. 23. I can't stand (*talk*) to them. 24. She never keeps a secret. She can't resist (*tell*) everyone. 25. I do appreciate your (*take*) all that trouble (*help*) us. 26. I can't afford (*buy*) a new refrigerator. 27. He finally admitted (*steal*) the book. 28. I don't recall (*see*) them (*enter*) the house. 29. We

plan (*redecorate*) our flat in April. 30. She considered (*buy*) a house in the country. 31. I refused (*stay*) and (*wait*) till they returned. 32. She mentioned (*read*) about it in a history book. 33. The teachers encouraged the boy (*be*) frank. 34. The teacher practised (*pronounce*) the French "r" sound. 35. She finally agreed (*cooperate*). 36. Nobody denied (*wish*) (*get*) rid of the man. 37. She swore (*do* — negative) it again. 38. I don't want to risk (*lose*) all money. 39. She is so quarrelsome that I am sure she will miss (*have*) to quarrel with somebody. 40. I adore (*read*) science fiction. 41. When we saw him, we burst out (*laugh*). 42. I wonder how he managed (*get*) away with it. 43. I never contemplated (*sell*) my share in the company. 44. She prepared (*face*) the worst.

Exercise 6. Complete the sentences, supplying the necessary prepositions and using the gerund of the verbs in brackets.

1. She reproached him ... (*come*). 2. I thanked him ... (*call*). 3. Nobody felt ... (*go out*). 4. Mike insisted ... (*go by underground*). 5. She will never approve ... (*marry*). 6. You can hardly blame ... (*fail*). 7. She accused us (*ruin*). 8. The boy came up and apologized ... (*be late*). 9. Can I depend (*keep one's promise*)? 10. Do you think she will agree his ... (*join*)? 11. He was suspected ... (*murder*). 12. She complained ... (*treat*). 13. People here persist ... (*think*). 14. The child was excited ... (*go*). 15. I am not accustomed ... (*live*). 16. You have a good reason ... (*want*). 17. It's very late. I am worried ... (*miss*). 18. I think she will be interested ... (*research*). 19. Who is responsible ... (*clean*)? 20. I am thinking ... (*leave*). 21. His angry frown stopped me ... (*tell*). 22. Nobody will object ... (*drive*). 23. I am not used ... (*wear*). 24. The girl was looking forward ... (*go*). 25. In addition ... (*study*) grammar, he 26. He succeeded only ... (*change*). 27. He was fined ... (*exceed*). 28. I caught a cold ... (*sit*). 29. There is no point ... (*stay*). 30. We should do something to prevent boys ... (*climb*). 31. We know that he was capable ... (*lie*). 32. She wasn't surprised ... (*see*). 33. Everybody was sure ... her (*win*). 34. Jack was indignant ... (*insult*). 35. They thought him guilty ... (*kill*). 36. What's the use ... (*send*) it? 37. I am fed up ... (*get up*)! 38. She contented herself ... (*smile*). 39. I am afraid I was mistaken ... (*believe*). 40. I would never dream ... (*allow*). 41. Everybody was relieved ... (*escape*). 42. The story ended ... (*marry*). 43. She knew that the people around were jealous ... (*prosper*). 44. He meant to try his luck ... (*gamble*). 45. Nobody was particularly keen ... her (*leave*). 46. Mother was occupied ... (*cook*). 47. The manager aimed ... (*raise*). 48. I could hardly refrain ... (*tell*). 49. He was very skilful ... (*dodge*). 50. She seemed upset ... (*lose*). 51. She is set ... (*get off*). 52. He was never good ... (*play*). 53. The girl was usually very careful ... (*reply*). 54. Unfortunately he was slow ... (*realize*).

Exercise 7. Use either the infinitive or the gerund of the verb in brackets.

1. I always remember (*turn*) off all the lights before I leave my house.
2. I can remember (*feel*) very proud when I graduated. 3. I regret (*inform*) you that you haven't been admitted. 4. I regret (*listen* — negative) to my mother's advice. She was right. 5. When he asked a question she always tried (*explain*) everything. 6. He did everything to stop the baby (*cry*). He tried (*feed*) him, he tried (*burp*) him, he tried (*change*) his diapers. Yet nothing worked. 7. She didn't like (*refuse*), although she wasn't very happy about (*go*) to this party. 8. I didn't like (*eat*) the fruit as I wasn't sure whether it was fresh. 9. I like (*listen*) to pop music. 10. The car began (*make*) a very strange noise so I stopped (*see*) what was wrong. 11. I entirely forget (*say*) anything of the kind. 12. He forgot (*tell*) me his telephone number, though I remember (*ask*) him about it. 13. I hate her (*criticize*) me the way she does. But I'd hate her (*think*) that her criticism hurts me, so I just keep quiet. 14. Although I usually prefer (*be*) frank to (*be*) secretive, yesterday I preferred (*keep*) my opinion of Jane to myself. 15. I know he loves (*skate*) and would love nothing so much as (*turn*) professional. 16. I dread (*think*) what she will do when she learns all about it. 17. I dread (*go*) by plane. I dread (*think*) that there may be a crash. 18. I regret (*turn*) to him for advice, I regret (*tell*) you that he has proved to be a very unreliable man. 19. She was panic-stricken and was afraid even (*turn*) her head. 20. The old lady was afraid (*sit*) in a draught. 21. Children are usually afraid of (*stay*) alone at home. 22. Their family problems have long ceased (*interest*) me. 23. She ceased (*try*) (*reason*) with him. 24. It never ceased (*rain*) that week. 25. Once people retire, they automatically cease (*be*) union members. 26. My brother started (*smoke*) last year. 27. Her condition began (*grow*) worse. 28. It was getting dark and storm clouds were beginning (*form*), but they continued (*walk*). 29. After talking about his work he went on (*tell*) us about his trip to France, which was a great relief for if he had gone on (*talk*) about his work, we would have been bored. 30. The author gives an unfavourable description of the queen's character. Yet then he goes on (*say*) that she was loved by most of her subjects. 31. The girls went on (*giggle*) and everybody was beginning (*be*) annoyed. 32. Do you mean (*say*) that my father is a liar? 33. I understood that it would mean (*tell*) the whole truth. 34. I think you should stop (*come*) late. 35. I don't think Mary ever stopped (*think*) what people might think about her behaviour. 36. We seldom stop (*consider*) how few true friends we really have.

Exercise 8. Translate into English, using the gerund as object where possible.

I. 1. Терпеть не могу ждать. 2. Эту проблему не стоит обсуждать. 3. Эта такая маленькая деталь, что ее едва ли стоит упо-

минать. 4. Это дело стоит того, чтобы за него пострадать. 5. С этого памятника стоит начать экскурсию. 6. Она избегала высказывать свое мнение. 7. Я не мог не улыбнуться. 8. Старушка не привыкла поздно ложиться спать. 9. Наконец мне удалось решить задачу. 10. Он настаивал на том, чтобы показать мне, как это делается. 11. Мы извинились за опоздание. 12. Когда мы пришли, она была занята тем, что мыла посуду. 13. Вы подозреваете меня в том, что я лгу? 14. Его обвинили в краже автомобиля. 15. Она возражала против того, чтобы выходить замуж по расчету. 16. Сэр Джон был рад, что его предложение отвергли. 17. Мистер Браун не привык к тому, чтобы его племянницы не повиновались ему. 18. Мистер Смит поздравил Брауна с тем, что Мэри приняла его предложение. 19. Майк хотел избежать того, чтобы его отправили в Новую Зеландию. 20. Он рискнул вложить деньги в совместное предприятие. 21. Джек мечтал жениться на Джуллии. 22. Она извинилась перед стариком за то, что обманула его. 23. Миссис Блэк одобряла то, что племянник женился на Сьюзан. 24. Его обвинили в том, что он самозванец. 25. Все пытались удержать ее от слепого следования моде, но она упорно носила то, что ей не шло. 26. Отец не одобрял того, что Фрэнк встречается с Люси. 27. Они шантажом заставили его согласиться. 28. Хозяйка была против того, чтобы гости рано уходили. Она настаивала на том, чтобы устроить танцы. 29. Не надо жаловаться на то, что они много шумят. Дети есть дети. 30. Мы ничего не знали о том, что она строит новый дом.

II. 1. Он не упомянул о том, что никогда не встречался с ней. 2. Я не помню, чтобы ты спрашивал у меня эту книгу раньше. 3. Я не помню, чтобы он приходил сюда в прошлую пятницу. 4. Я не помню, чтобы он возвращал мне деньги. 5. Не забудь вернуть ему деньги. 6. Я не помню, чтобы комитет принял какое-нибудь решение. 7. Прости ее за то, что она истратила все деньги на пустяки. Она такая легкомысленная! 8. Прости меня за то, что я прервал твой телефонный разговор. Дело очень срочное. 9. К сожалению, мне не удалось произвести то впечатление, которое хотелось бы произвести. 10. Их деятельность имеет мало общего с лечением людей. Они просто шарлатаны. 11. Миссия министра иностранных дел имела мало общего с прекращением военных действий. 12. Она настаивала на том, чтобы ей показали все. 13. У него никогда не было проблем с тем, чтобы найти работу. 14. Она поблагодарила меня за то, что я был с ней откровенен. 15. Если он будет продолжать распускать такие слухи, придется подать на него в суд за клевету. 16. Я пытался разъяснить ей все, но она упорно не понимала меня. 17. Несмотря на все достижения науки, люди упорно продолжают верить суевериям. 18. Ей понравилось носить брюки. 19. Мальчик пристрастился ко лжи. Это плохой признак. 20. Он работает над тем, что-

бы наши мечты воплотились в жизнь. 21. Я с нетерпением жду выхода в свет этой книги. 22. Дети с нетерпением ждали, когда они пойдут в цирк. 23. Я подумываю о том, чтобы съездить в Швейцарию. 24. Мне удалось уговорить ее не пользоваться услугами этой фирмы. 25. Я положил бумаги под книгу, чтобы они не улетели. 26. Критики обвиняли его в том, что он пишет на потребу публики. 27. Я начал подозревать, что она смеется надо мною. 28. Нам было нетрудно наладить дружеские отношения. 29. Он столкнулся с трудностями, переводя этот текст. 30. Ей было нелегко найти свободный номер в гостинице в разгар сезона.

III. 1. Ничто и никто не помешает ему сделать все так, как он хочет. 2. Нужно помешать ему привести свой замысел в исполнение. 3. Нужно положить конец тому, что он шантажирует людей. 4. У дверей стоял полицейский, который не давал людям войти. 5. Чтобы пирог не пригорел, надо печь его на слабом огне. 6. Чтобы тесто не прилипало к рукам, посыпьте больше муки. 7. Нашлись люди, которые пытались помешать ему опубликовать статью. 8. Как мне остановить кровь из носа? 9. Мне надоело говорить вам одно и то же. 10. Ему надоело, что с ним обращаются как с ребенком. 11. Мне порядком надоело выслушивать все эти оправдания! 12. Она быстро сообразила, чего от нее хотят. 13. Он не сразу понял, к чему клонится разговор. 14. Вы ошибаетесь, если думаете, что ей это понравится. 15. Девочка призналась, что потеряла деньги. 16. Закончив свой рассказ, она разрыдалась. 17. Он все оттягивал с принятием решения. 18. Он отрицал, что подслушал наш разговор. 19. Чтобы лучше себя чувствовать, вам нужно бросить пить. 20. Он говорил так нелогично, что она отчаялась понять его. 21. Она упомянула, что дважды была в Италии. 22. Ничем нельзя оправдать искажение фактов. 23. Вы не возражаете, если я возьму с собой собаку? 24. Надо же встретить вас на этом концерте! Я и не думал, что вам нравится этот певец. 25. Представь себе, он все-таки вспомнил это слово. 26. Представь себе, он обманул нас! 27. Иметь годовалого ребенка означает менять пеленки по многу раз в день. 28. Переход на другую работу повлечет за собой изменение образа жизни. 29. Сэм предложил прокатиться за город. 30. Куртку нужно стирать. 31. Пальто следует отдать в химчистку. 32. Брюки нужно укоротить. 33. Ему нужно постричься. 34. Нет смысла оправдываться. 35. Нет смысла пытаться объяснить ему. Он не понимает шуток. 36. Какой смысл предаваться отчаянью? 37. Какой смысл верить ему? Он опять вас обманет. 38. Если у тебя икота, попробуй на несколько секунд задержать дыхание. 39. Не могу понять, как люди могут это покупать. 40. Подумать только, что такое произошло именно со мной!

Exercise 9. Point out the gerund and its structures in the function of attribute. Pay attention to the nouns after which the gerund is used in this function, as well as to the prepositions preceding it. Translate into Russian.

1. He had a gift for discovering potential disaster in most situations. 2. He turned down the idea of opening a London office. 3. This is the surest way of losing money I've ever seen. 4. I make a point of coming out at least once a year so that I know just what the journey is like. 5. I might well have spent three or four years in the University and never have met him, but for the chance of his getting drunk one evening in my college. 6. I said that the shock of seeing a priest might well kill him. 7. I am frankly appalled at the prospect of Beryl taking what was once my mother's place in this house. 8. At first he was bashful about the notoriety which the newspaper caused, but later greatly pleased, for he found it the means of his getting into touch with other collectors in all parts of the world. 9. The talk of his going into the army and into parliament and into a monastery had all come to nothing. 10. There was no real risk in passing the swinging doors, except of slipping and being caught by that swift and final blow. 11. She was not sure he was not in danger of falling into the hands of an unscrupulous foreign adventuress. 12. It was essentially the opportunity of meeting a man one had spent time on and whose work one admired. 13. They learnt what war was about, of the bitter folly of giving the benefit of the doubt to international fascism. 14. It was not quite a case of a young unknown visiting an old master. 15. Her father had an irritating way of taking it for granted that she knew everything. 16. Lykeham burst forth with the triumphant pleasure of one who has at last found an opportunity of disburdening himself of an oppressive secret. 17. He saw a vision of himself descending from one circle of the inferno to the next. 18. He had an alarming habit of changing the subject of any conversation that had lasted for more than two minutes. 19. Badgery then told a good story about parrots. Spode was on the point of capping it with a better story, when his host began to talk about Beethoven. 20. She did not give up the idea of somehow confirming the truth. 21. Derek had the gift of talking as if no other person was in the room.

Exercise 10. Say whether the following nouns are used with the infinitive, the gerund or with both of them. Use them in sentences of your own.

attempt	gift	necessity	problem	risk
chance	hope	opportunity	process	satisfaction
danger	idea	order	prospect	task
desire	impression	permission	reason	temptation

effort	intention	possibility	refusal	thought
fear	joy	precaution	right	way

Exercise 11. Translate into English using the gerund as attribute.

1. У нее была привычка вставать утром рано и всех будить.
2. У них вошло в привычку обедать вместе.
3. У нее было заведено раз в неделю водить детей в музей или в театр.
4. Туристы ждали у Букингемского дворца в надежде увидеть королеву.
5. Когда плывешь по морю, всегда есть опасность попасть в шторм.
6. Существует много способов приготовления мяса.
7. Мне не нравится его манера вмешиваться в чужой разговор.
8. Рискуя потерять свою репутацию, она приняла этого человека.
9. У меня была мысль совсем не отвечать на письмо.
10. Ее опасения потерять работу были напрасны.
11. Радость от того, что у нее будет ребенок, была такой сильной, что ее уже больше не волновало, кто родится — мальчик или девочка.
12. У нее есть на это более веская причина, заключающаяся в том, что она, наконец, обретет свободу.
13. Существовала возможность того, что война закончится к концу года.
14. Я рад, что мне представилась возможность поговорить с вами.
15. Мне не представилось возможности передать ей твое письмо.
16. Была еще одна проблема, заключавшаяся в том, что все переговоры велись на немецком языке и им требовался переводчик.
17. Перспектива провести лето на берегу моря привела всех в восторг.
18. У него мало шансов победить на выборах.
19. Существовала слабая перспектива того, что стороны договорятся.
20. Комитет находится в стадии формирования.
21. У него был великолепный дар убеждать людей.
22. У нее сложилось впечатление, что кто-то хочет ее обмануть.
23. Не могло быть и речи о том, чтобы он получил доступ к документам.
24. Это был как раз тот случай, когда коса нашла на камень.

Exercise 12. Point out the gerund as adverbial modifier. State its type. Translate into Russian.

1. Without turning round he asked which route she wanted to take.
2. No journalist on earth would praise anything you did in the opera house without getting money for it.
3. He began every rehearsal by saying that nobody should worry too much and ended by shouting at those who forgot their lines.
4. My whole life has been spent in looking for that One Friend whose existence may be regarded as either corporeal or symbolic.
5. There were also half a dozen revolvers that he used for target shooting.
6. Jason obliged by telling her of his elaborate negotiations with a book seller about buying some letters.
7. But before saying anything about that prospect I must recount

the ardours and endurances of the past 24 hours. 8. We went early to our baths and, on coming down, dressed for dinner. 9. Throughout luncheon they talked, without stopping, of Mrs Simpson, but they all, or nearly all, came back with us to the gallery. 10. Our guests began to go, and each on leaving informed me of something my wife had promised to bring me to in the near future. 11. He had lived till then by getting into difficulties and then telegraphing for odd sums to his lawyers. 12. Finally, grudgingly, he agreed to insure his life, after explaining at length to the lawyers that this was merely a device for putting part of his legitimate profits into other people's pockets. 13. I don't want to marry without doing the thing properly. 14. He can only explain what he thinks by insulting people. 15. He felt rattled, in spite of being forewarned. 16. His friend was right, it did seem silly to leave Monte without playing roulette just once. 17. After winning twenty thousand francs he thought it wouldn't be a bad idea to have a little fun.

Exercise 13. Use either the gerund (with a preposition where necessary) or the infinitive of the verb in brackets. Use two variants where possible. State the function of the gerund or the infinitive.

1. He didn't so much mind (*lose*) a big rubber himself, but he was sore that his inattention should have made his partner (*lose*), too.
2. I don't fancy the idea (*send*) a kid like that to Monte Carlo without anyone (*look*) after him.
3. Fancy his (*think*) Nicky is as good as that. He told me he had seen him (*play*) and his style was fine. He only wants more practice (*get*) into the first flight.
4. There is his work (*consider*), don't forget that. And besides, he is much too young (*go*) by himself.
5. He was on the point (*speak*) when something in the way she was behaving stopped him. She was walking very cautiously, as though she were afraid (*wake*) him.
6. He had some difficulty (*tie*) his tie without a looking glass, but he very wisely reflected that it didn't really matter if it wasn't tied very well.
7. I must (*say*) my thoughts wandered, but I kept (*turn*) the pages and (*watch*) the light (*fade*), which in Peckwater, my dear, is quite an experience — as darkness falls, the stone seems positively (*decay*) under one's eyes.
8. I didn't want them (*start*) (*get*) rough, so I said, pacifically, "You must know that nothing could (*give*) me keener pleasure than (*send*) there at once".
9. It wasn't until just before dinner that my father appeared (*greet*) me. He was then in his late fifties, but it was his idiosyncrasy (*seem*) much older than his years; (*see*) him one might have put him at seventy, (*hear*) him (*speak*) at nearly eighty.
10. I had no comfort for him that morning; he needed it, but I had none (*give*). "Really," I said, "if you are going (*embark*) on a solitary bout (*drink*) every time you see a member of your family, it is perfectly

hopeless"... But my pride was stung because I had been made (*look*) a liar and I couldn't (*respond*) to his need. "Well, what do you propose (*do*)?" "I shan't do anything. They will do it all." And I let him (*go*) without comfort. 11. "Papa won't let them (*force*) me into this priest's house." "But if they make it a condition of your (*come up*)."
"I shan't come up. Can you imagine me (*serve*) mass twice a week, (*help*) at tea parties, (*drink*) a glass of port when we have guests, with Mr Bell's eye on me (*see*) I don't get too much?" 12. "I am with you, particularly as they tend (*compromise*) the comfort of our own little visit. I have seen Lady Marchmain this morning. I think we may hope for some relaxation tonight. Yesterday wasn't an evening that any of us would wish (*repeat*). I earned less gratitude than I deserved for my efforts (*distract*) you." It was repugnant to me (*talk*) about Sebastian to Mr Samgrass, but I was compelled (*say*): "I am not sure that tonight would be the best time (*start*) the relaxation." 13. "I gather the old man is likely (*agree*) to anything that will upset her. He is at Monte Carlo at the moment. I'd planned (*go*) there after (*drop*) Sebastian off at Zurich, that's why it is such a bloody bore (*lose*) him." 14. "Maybe you can stop us (*marry*) in your cathedral. But then we'll be married in a Protestant Church!" 15. I remember distinctly your (*tell*) me that the daffodils in the orchard were a dream, but frankly I don't remember (*hear*) that your new baby was called Caroline. 16. Can you tell me, dear madam — if I am correct (*think*) that is how I heard my wife (*speak*) of you — why it is that at this moment, while I talk to you, I am thinking all the time only of when Julia will come? 17. The purser made a sensation, as sailors like (*do*), by (*predict*) a storm. 18. Though it meant (*rise*) at dawn (*pack*), everyone was determined (*enjoy*) the luxury the storm had denied him. 19. You'd better (*change*) your shirt before (*go*) down; it's all tears and lipstick. 20. He always looked clean though, he'd not been near water all day, while Brideshead there was no (*do*) anything with, scrub as you might. 21. I am at a loss (*understand*) why Emberlin wishes (*stamp*) out all trace of it. 22. (*Count*) was the one thing worth (*do*), because it was the one thing you could be sure (*do*) right. 23. He knows now how many paces it is from any one point in London to any other. I have given up (*go*) for walks with him. 24. At present I have no time (*write*) a complete account of that decisive period in my history. I must content myself therefore (*describe*) a single incident of my undergraduate days. 25. Mr Hutton felt ashamed. How much was it his own lack of sympathy that prevented him (*feel*) well every day? But he comforted himself (*reflect*) that it was only a case (*feel*), not (*be*) better. 26. He was about (*say*) something about his happiness when Mrs Spence went on (*speak*). 27. Poor Janet! She had tried (*be*) malicious, she had only succeeded (*be*) stupid. 28. He was too intelligent (*be*) a snob, but all the same he couldn't help (*feel*) very well pleased at the thought that he was dining with Lord Badgery.

29. You were right (*detect*) Haydon. It's by his pupil. I wish I could get hold of more of his pictures. But nobody seems (*know*) anything about him. And he seems (*do*) so little. 30. Let's talk about something else. He ceases (*interest*) me. 31. But if the Mouse was successful (*Maintain*) an innocuous conversation, she was less so (*keep*) the wine from him. She drank very little herself, and David gave up (*try*) (*keep*) pace with his host. 32. It wasn't worth (*Pretend*) one did not know what that "it" meant. David met the old man's stare. The old man seemed (*turn*) the idea over in his mind. 33. It wasn't clear whether he meant, I didn't mean (*insult*) you personally; or, I've forgotten what it was. David murmured, "Yes, I realize." The old man's stare came back to him. He had difficulty (*focus*). His (*stare*) at David now had a desperate concentration, almost a clinging. 34. It began (*get*) a bit much for me. No one (*talk*) to. I knew Anne wasn't very happy (*do*) her course. So as soon as she finished that, I came for one week. 35. The young man was ambitious and had no intention (*continue*) indefinitely (*be*) private secretary to anybody. But he was also reasonable; and he knew that the best way (*cease*) (*be*) a secretary was (*be*) a good secretary. 36. He seemed then (*abandon*) all idea (*catch*) the other man up. 37. The man was one of a long list of people he had some hope (*see*) during his American visit; but he had never expected (*hear*) of him so soon. 38. For all that, I was beginning (*find*) certain details (*live*) in the town a bit too sordid (*be*) funny. 39. We all burst out (*laugh*). It was one of those remarks which aren't funny in black and white but irresistibly funny in actuality; our shared laughter had the effect (*draw*) me into their circle. 40. I didn't bother (*read*) my paper, and I stopped myself at the point (*light*) a cigarette. There wasn't any need to fill the moment with trivialities — it was already filled to capacity. It was sufficient (*sit*) there, (*breathe*), simply (*exist*). 41. I have long learned (*accept*) that the fiction that professionally always pleased me least persists (*attract*) a majority of my readers most. 42. My strongest memory is... constantly (*have*) (*abandon*) drafts because of an inability (*describe*) what I wanted. 43. The foregoing will, I hope, excuse me (*say*) what the story "means". Novels are not like crossword puzzles, with one unique set of correct answers behind the clues — an analogy I sometimes despair... ever (*extirpate*) from the contemporary student mind. 44. Gradually, though I was offended (*teach*) a lesson in the art of (*condescend* — negative), she made me (*talk*) about myself. She did it (*ask*) blunt questions and (*brush*) aside empty answers. I began (*talk*) about (*be*) a brigadier's son, about loneliness, and for once mostly (*glamourize* — negative) myself but simply (*explain*). 45. "What do you suggest my (*do*)?" "Well, I'm the worst person (*come*) to for advice". 46. After my mother's death my aunt came (*live*) with my father and me, no doubt, as he said, with the idea (*make*) her home with us. That was for a year. The first change was that she reopened her house in Surrey which she had meant (*sell*).

Exercise 14. Use either the gerund (with a preposition where necessary) or the infinitive of the verb in brackets. Define the function of the gerund or the infinitive. Note the uses of the gerund peculiar to newspaper language.

1. The idea (*tell*) us (*stand*) and (*deliver*) patriotism is, however, rather distasteful — like (*tell*), as a child, (*do*) your party piece for the relations on Boxing Day. 2. There was never any (*doubt*) the dogged love of the country. It was epitomized for me by my father's unshakable, off-hand determination (*defeat* — negative). 3. He has little sentiment when it comes (*deal*) with the Left. 4. Western politicians have a long history (*think*) the answer to their problems lies abroad. In the 1930s, for instance, the Left in Britain longed (*imitate*) the managed economy of the Soviet Union. 5. No future Labour Prime Minister can risk (*view*) with apprehension by those who control the global purse strings. 6. As propaganda, this argument is unmatched, and is all the more effective (*contain*) more than a grain of truth. 7. There are no simple lessons (*learn*) in the Pacific Rim. 8. Labour is expected (*seek*) other ways (*help*) the poorest pensioners after it has taken office. 9. She claims that teaching methods are more important than class size (*determine*) standards. 10. It is extremely difficult, particularly in primary schools, (*ensure*) that we continue (*improve*) the quality of our education if we are going (*continue*) with the trend (*make*) classes bigger. 11. They were increasingly pessimistic that Sinn Fein will be in a position (*join*) talks next Monday because the IRA is unlikely (*end*) its ceasefire by that date. 12. There had been hopes that the IRA would be willing (*soften*) its stance (*decommission*) weapons in the interests (*get*) substantive talks under way. 13. The Irish, desperate (*meet*) the presumed terms for an IRA ceasefire, the precondition for Sinn Fein's inclusion in the talks, pressed for him (*give*) a role (*chair*) overall talks. 14. For Chicago, a city that doesn't boast too loudly... its (*twin*) with Birmingham, the visit was a chance (*avenge*) its (*overshadow*) by New York and Los Angeles. 15. The Foreign Secretary welcomed an undertaking from the Italian government (*liaise*) with the Commission and other member states in an attempt (*save*) the Florence summit (*wreck*) by the beef row. 16. Mr Rifkind aimed (*explain*) Britain's case. 17. It prompted Mr Saufer (*go*) on the diplomatic offensive with a thinly-veiled threat (*take*) Mr Major to the European Court for an alleged breach of Article 5, which requires member states (*jeopardize* — negative) the treaty's goals. 18. British ministers recognized there could be no (*turn*) back. "John Major is in too deep now he can't afford (*turn*) back." 19. Two recent reports criticized the company's management (*fail*) (*anticipate*) demand and (*check*) leaks. 20. She said that instead (*force*) her family (*recycle*) its bath water, the company ought (*recycle*) its profits into (*improve*) supplies. 21. The company was committed (*reduce*) water

loss through leakage from 29% in 1994–95 to 24%. 22. The spokesman said the toll would result ... drivers (*continue*) (*divert*) to less suitable routes. 23. Tony Blair yesterday reopened the political controversy over parental discipline (*admit*) that he had smacked his three children when they were very young. Despite (*confess*) in an interview that he had “always regretted (*do*) it”, his comments were seized upon by the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. 24. Four years ago Baroness David called for parents (*ban*) (*smack*) their children. 25. There are lots of ways (*discipline*) a child and I don’t believe that (*belt*) them is the best way. There is a clear dividing line between (*administer*) discipline on the one hand and violence on the other. 26. I find (*be*) a dad a lot harder than (*be*) a politician. 27. His evidence amounted to a public challenge to Mr Howard (*come up*) with the funds (*foot*) the bill for his “prison works” policy. 28. Victorian wings in five prisons need (*refurbish*) at a cost of 15 million (*provide*) 1,500 of the places. 29. Euro 96 appears (*have*) a positive effect on supporters’ feelings about Europe. Two out of three who had an opinion favoured (*remain*) in the European Union. And 18 per cent of fans thought that (*host*) the finals would make the British (*feel*) more European. 30. It makes us (*have*) (*be*) more vigilant (*manage*) and (*monitor*) situations. 31. Foreign hooligan spotters will also be based there, at ports, and at matches, (*assist*) British police (*identify*) likely troublemakers. 32. He was distraught (*learn*) that he had only drunk enough (*fill*) half a carriage.

Exercise 15. Paraphrase the following sentences, using the words and expressions suggested.

1. I am sure the prices won’t stop rising (*continue*). 2. It’s a pity that I am no longer able to use it (*miss*). 3. I have the impression that she has lost something (*seem*). 4. We shouldn’t interfere (*it’s right*). 5. Mike says we could go to the park (*suggests*). 6. He shouldn’t get away with it now (*deserves*). 7. You may be arrested if you do this (*risk*). 8. I don’t think it gives him the right to steal (*justify*). 9. Do women have to take off their hat when they enter a church? (*necessary*). 10. It won’t help him if he says that he didn’t realize what he was doing (*no use*). 11. She was able to finish it in time (*manage*). 12. I don’t particularly want to lend money to him (*grudge*). 13. I don’t think he will have any problems (*he is unlikely*). 14. Some students found the text difficult to understand (*difficulty*). 15. She decided not to answer till Friday (*put off*). 16. Somebody must make her stay longer (*be made*). 17. It so happened that he was on the same train (*he happened*). 18. The girls wouldn’t stop giggling (*kept*). 19. Swimming in this lake is fun (*I enjoy*). 20. The cake was so delicious that she could hardly refuse to take another piece (*resist*). 21. She often arrives last in the office (*the last*). 22. He saw land first (*the first*). 23. She said

she had seen them in the theatre (*mentioned*). 24. I don't like it when I am unfairly paid (*resent*). 25. His relations will try to persuade him to marry Helen (*encourage*). 26. He lost patience because of the child's bad behaviour (*caused*). 27. There is no point in going to see the play (*worth*). 28. Don't do anything that will make him not want to cooperate (*put him off*). 29. Owing to this we can verify his statement (*this allows*). 30. I told him not to speak to her (*forbade*). 31. The boy says he didn't break the cup (*denies*). 32. I can't work without a computer (*impossible*). 33. You always forget everything I say (*make a point*). 34. I try not to sit in the draught (*avoid*). 35. I no longer use this technique (*given up*). 36. As I knew Japanese, I was able to understand the document (*enables*). 37. I am sure he will need our help (*he is sure*). 38. It would be very bad if I quarrelled with them (*can't afford*). 39. We were trying to persuade her not to borrow money (*talk her out of*). 40. You will be picked up at the station (*I have arranged*). 41. If I leave on the tenth, I'll miss her birthday party (*involve*). 42. You can be sure that he will come late (*rely on*). 43. The girl stayed home alone so often that she is no longer afraid of it (*she has got used*). 44. I won't have you treat me like a slave (*won't stand*). 45. She didn't stop telling lies (*persisted*). 46. He said he could help Mary (*ventured*). 47. See to it that he invites Susan (*remind*). 48. He said we must tell him the truth (*demanded*). 49. She will gradually appreciate it (*will grow*).

10.3. The Participle

Exercise 1. Use the correct form of participle I or participle II.

1. He found the shop without difficulty, (*buy*) a map of the city.
2. There was a pause, Mary sat (*think*), and John stood at the door, (*look*) at her.
3. The company faces (*shrink*) profits for still another year.
4. She absented her mind from the account of calls (*make*) and clients (*see*) or not (*see*).
5. He fell heavily from wheelchair to terrace, (*knock*) over the tea things.
6. Can the process be (*speed*) up?
7. Just before the show the square filled up with (*drink*) youngsters.
8. (*Turn*) slowly, (*hold*) on the wall, he dragged his way back into his room.
9. (*Try*) various topics of conversation, I became convinced that she wasn't interested in anything.
10. People gossiped that he had (*hang*) himself in his garden.
11. The walls were (*hang*) with wonderful watercolours.
12. Tourists wandered meaninglessly, (*lead*) by guides (*bear*) banners that proclaimed their allegiance to various travel firms.
13. At the end of an hour, (*experience*) such thrills as he had never known in his life, he found himself with so many chips that they would hardly go in his pockets.
14. He came alone, and (*stand*) silently for some minutes beside his father, who sat silently (*look*) at him, he left the room and, (*join*) the rest of us said, "Papa must see a

priest". 15. It can't be true, you must have (*dream*) it. 16. He was (*show*) into a brightly (*light*) room. 17. On other days the house was (*hush*) as he sat high in bed, (*prop*) by his pillows, with (*labour*) breath. 18. When you met me last night, did you think, "Poor thing, such an (*engage*) child, (*grow up*) a plain and pious spinster?" 19. All the men in the band had (*shave*) heads. 20. He said he hadn't (*shave*) since Monday. 21. All next day Julia and I spent together without interruption; (*talk*), scarcely (*move*), (*hold*) in our chairs by the smell of the sea. 22. Panic-*(strike)*, she rushed out of the room. 23. We saw an (*overturn*) truck and a policeman, alone on the pavement, (*kick*) by half a dozen youths. 24. She didn't go with us, (*ask*) to look after a sick relative. 25. I heard of a play (*stage*) at the local theatre. 26. Some of the grass is (*tread*) down where people have been playing football. 27. It's no use crying over (*spill*) milk.

Exercise 2. Analyse participle I and participle II as an attribute. Observe how they are used (syntactic position, singly or in a phrase, which article the modified noun takes, kind of verb used in the participial form). Point out any regularities you can find.

1. She found a narrow slip of paper inserted among the pages.
2. He thought about it in the same way as all other right-thinking folk.
3. There is nothing surprising about that.
4. I know you detest all games involving physical effort.
5. Uncle Jack, now confined to his wheelchair, had telephoned Jason.
6. She told me the history of a collapsing civilization.
7. In the middle of the night she woke with a thumping heart.
8. They went up the uncarpeted stairs.
9. It is identical in style with the letter shown me by Uncle Jack.
10. Porson, tightly buttoned into a dark blue suit, pushed the papers across the desk at his partner.
11. Her manner was that of a cat given an unexpected saucer of cream.
12. She was confronted by a pixie-like figure wearing a red and green striped jersey.
13. A fleeting smile crossed the wizened face.
14. Eldred was tall, with dark eyes, and an air of command conspicuously lacking in her husband.
15. They returned together, appearing through a gap in the hedge dividing the pool from the house.
16. I must have been poor company, sitting in the railway compartment with head back and eyes closed.
17. She came into the room and stared at the big uncurtained windows.
18. She always played to well-filled houses.
19. Those were the impressions of the first half hour sharpened by the contrast with Julia's white skin and with my memories of her as a child.
20. It sounded to my ears like the grunt of an animal returning to its basket.
21. She is a woman of strict Catholic principle fortified by the prejudices of the middle class.
22. He went to public dinners held in the Catholic interest.
23. There was something forbidding in the sight of that great weight of uncontrolled metal,

flapping to and fro. 24. My wife, perched on the back of the sofa in a litter of cellophane and silk ribbons, continued telephoning. 25. Now, under the stars, in the walled city, whose streets were gentle..., where the dust lay thick among the smooth paving stones and figures passed silently, robed in white; where the air was scented with cloves and incense and wood smoke — now I knew what had drawn Sebastian here. 26. Mr Petherton sat at the head of the board, flanked by his brother Roger and Jacobsen. 27. Two fire engines drove up as we left and a host of helmeted figures joined the throng upstairs. 28. This was a small room opening on the colonnade; it had once been used for estate business, but was now derelict, holding only some garden games and a tub of dead aloes. 29. I saw a few passengers strolling unhurried beside their porters. 30. The sight would have soothed a mind less agitated than mine. 31. Beyond the dome lay receding steps of water and round it, guarding and hiding it, stood the soft hills. 32. A pair of boldly arched, heavily pencilled black eyebrows lent a surprising air of power to the upper portion of the face. 33. He sat back in the low seat, a cherishing warmth enveloped him. 34. Ravished, he looked down sideways at the round, babyish face. 35. He laid his cheek against her hair and so, interlaced, they sat in silence, while the car, swaying and pitching a little, hastened along the white road. 36. He was being dragged back from the memory of the sunlit down and the quick laughing girl, back to this unhealthy, overheated room and its complaining occupant. 37. He returned, filled with a profound and ineradicable disgust. 38. The spectacle of Janet Spence evoked in him an unfailing curiosity. 39. The picture which arrested Spode's attention was a medium-sized canvas representing Troilus riding into Troy among the flowers and plaudits of an admiring crowd. 40. Most of his interiors came from this period; the long-buried humanist had begun to surface. 41. Surrounded by privilege and patronage, the crown even has a certain bias against capitalism. 42. Ditching Major later this year will be a temptation, but the exercise would be the final self-inflicted disaster, based on a premise only fantasists believe in. 43. By that time the ministers concerned would have been out of power. 44. A disintegrating government has been in power too long. 45. A leaked report revealed that the government had no such plans. 46. The uncovered mahogany table was like a pool of brown unruffled water within whose depths flowers and the glinting shapes of glass and silver hung dimly reflected.

Exercise 3. Paraphrase these sentences changing the attributive clauses into participial phrases in post-position where possible.

1. "Bravo," said a man who was sitting nearby. 2. The picture that fascinated her turned out to be an 18th century masterpiece. 3. He

looked down at the dog that was lying at his feet. 4. He could hardly recognize the woman who was standing before him. 5. The children who came to the farm every Sunday helped her about the house. 6. The tourists came to a path that led to a lake. 7. I happen to know the man who is talking to the hostess now. 8. The woman who saw the murderer decided to go to the police. 9. Mary was looking at the moon that was coming up over the hills. 10. She picked up a large book that was lying on the table and began to read. 11. I don't think he ever lived in a house that had a bathroom till he was fifty. 12. The girl who knew how to do it was out. 13. Something in the car that was going by seemed strange to him. 14. He thought there was something strange in the car that had just passed him. 15. The lady, who was sitting next to him, dropped her fan. 16. The lady who sat down next to him asked him if he had a programme. 17. She walked quietly out of the room trying not to wake the children who slept peacefully in their bed. 18. People who go to the theatre know this actor. 19. The women who believed him lost a lot of money. 20. Leaving home she met the woman who lived on the floor above her. 21. He received a message that asked him to call Mr Brown. 22. When he entered the room, the girl who was typing by the window turned round.

Exercise 4. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use participle II in the function of attribute.

1. She was exhausted. She sank into the armchair. 2. A tree was uprooted by the gale. It fell across the road. 3. She was wakened by a loud sound. She jumped out of bed. 4. We were soaked to the skin. We finally found a shelter. 5. His hat was blown off by a sudden gust of wind. It started rolling along the street. 6. Mrs Smith lived in a house that was painted green. 7. As I was occupied by other thoughts, I stopped thinking about Jack's affairs. 8. As he was satisfied with what he had done, he decided he could take a holiday. 9. The girl was confused and didn't know what to answer. 10. I've never heard about the novel that Mary mentioned. 11. He described a very unpleasant experience he had had. I wouldn't like to have the same experience. 12. After that there was silence in the room. It was broken only by the drumming of the rain on the windows. 13. Fortunately, the murder they attempted wasn't successful. 14. A lot of seats were not sold. 15. The people she met were very helpful. 16. She was requested to submit the report to a committee that had been specially set up to investigate the matter. 17. She walked out of the theatre. She was depressed by the play. 18. The criminal gripped her bag. There were gloves on his hands. 19. He just watched the snake. He was stunned and unable to move. 20. All the questions that were asked seemed easy to her. 21. The thing you've bought isn't worth the money you spent. 22. They say that the prisoner who escaped has been caught

again. 23. The only man who was injured was quickly taken to hospital. 24. The film they released is a typical thriller. 25. The breaches that he hinted at in his speech should be investigated. 26. They proposed to sell the picture. It scandalized many art lovers. 27. They estimated the cost of the campaign. It amounted to 1 million pounds.

Exercise 5. Translate into English, using participle I or participle II as attribute where possible.

1. После бури на дороге лежало много вырванных с корнем деревьев. 2. Вытоптанная трава снова начала зеленеть. 3. Он повел нас к ожидавшей нас лодке. 4. В комнате было зеркало в золотой рамке. 5. Он рассказывал нам о непризнанных достоинствах этого поэта. 6. Вы задаете мне вопросы, которые меня смущают. 7. Некоторые из картин художника, сохраненных его друзьями, были показаны на недавней выставке в Москве. 8. У него были редкие волосы, гладко зачесанные назад. 9. Джуллия вошла в комнату в сопровождении пожилого человека. 10. Они молча шли по опустевшей улице. 11. Девушка села на упавший ствол дерева и начала читать книгу. 12. Она получила короткое письмо, написанное уверенным размашистым почерком. 13. Вот устройство, специально предназначеннное для этой цели. 14. В приемной сидела женщина, читавшая газету. 15. Женщина, читавшая газету, поднялась и направилась в кабинет врача. 16. В спешке он налетел на старика, выходившего из автобуса. 17. Один из четырех человек, игравших в бридж, попросил чашку чая. 18. Дрожащими руками она вынула письмо из конверта. 19. Некоторые пассажиры быстро мчавшегося поезда дремали, другие читали газету. 20. Лицо человека, промелькнувшее в окне проходившего мимо поезда, показалось ему знакомым. 21. Мать перенесла спящего ребенка в его кровать. 22. Шум проезжавшей машины разбудил спящего ребенка. 23. Человек, дремавший у окна, вдруг проснулся и спросил, какая это станция. 24. Всходившее солнце освещало своими лучами комнату. 25. Люди, занимающиеся спортом, всегда находятся в хорошей форме. 26. Увядшие цветы все еще стояли в вазе. 27. На земле много исчезнувших видов животных и растений. 28. Эксперимент было трудно провести из-за большого количества людей, участвующих в нем. 29. Она не понимает всех связанных с этим проблем. 30. Выяснилось, что найденная скульптура античного происхождения. 31. Вся накопившаяся горечь и обида вылились наружу. 32. Среди гостей был отставной майор, седой человек лет шестидесяти. 33. Сбежавший преступник был пойман через две недели. 34. Некоторые из опрошенных людей дали отрицательный ответ на этот вопрос. 35. Попланная бандероль потерялась где-то в пути. 36. Она ждала при-

хода дочери с растущим чувством тревоги. 37. Все возрастающая популярность этого певца — результат успешной работы его импресарио на протяжении предшествующих пяти лет.

Exercise 6. Point out participle I and participle II used as adverbial modifiers. Define the type of the adverbial modifier.

1. The sudden realization of what she could do went flooding through and over her.
2. With the steady roar of applause Don Francisco came striding on to the stage.
3. She was busy complaining about the incident to Mr Rush.
4. He looked intently at the empty grate, as if expecting to read a message on it.
5. He negotiated many deals while playing golf or tennis.
6. Looking his friend straight in the eye, he said that was his only interest in the riding school.
7. She reappeared carrying red and white checked tablecloths.
8. Gerda seemed immoderately amused by Derek's story, while still making the right responses to Gladys.
9. Carter rubbed his little hands together as though washing them.
10. When opened, the boxes revealed a meal, with everything wrapped in plastic.
11. He would arrive after the wedding, having seen Lord and Lady Brideshead on their way through Paris.
12. An hour ago she sat turning her ring in the water and counting the days of happiness.
13. Turning it over in my mind I recalled the courtships of the past ten years.
14. We drank our wine and soon our new friend came lurching towards us.
15. I've never been given massage before, except once when I hurt my shoulder hunting.
16. "What was your route?" I asked, wishing to be agreeable.
17. Our young friend, as you may know, spends most of his day drinking.
18. While professing a mild agnosticism himself, he had a liking for the shows of religion.
19. The other half simply want to earn their living doing advertisements for Vogue and decorating night clubs.
20. Only the Hungarian cousins who, mistaking the status of tutor, took him for an unusually privileged upper servant, were unaffected by his presence.
21. The others were not long after him, having been fetched by car at the end of the day.
22. Seeping through the squalid air of the police station came the sweet, rich smoke of a Havana cigar.
23. She made straight for the fire and crouched over it shivering.
24. That day, too, I had come not knowing my destination.
25. I followed him by the noise he made crashing through the undergrowth and cursing when he hurt himself.
26. He used to waste a great deal of time sitting at the bedside of his patients and talking in a sad, low voice about nothing in particular.
27. When pressed to stay to dinner, Mr. Hutton did not refuse.
28. Mr Hutton splashed along, not caring if he got wet.
29. In midlawn there was a tree pruned into a huge green mushroom; in its shade sat, as if posed, conversing, a garden table and three chairs.
30. Once signed, the contract can't be cancelled.
31. If disturbed, the bird may abandon the nest, leaving the chicks to die.
32. Though badly pronounced, the sound could still be

identified. 33. His partner, not unwilling to get a little of his own back, pointed out his mistake. 34. Turn it on to maximum temperature as shown in picture 3.

Exercise 7. Translate into English using participle I and participle II as adverbial modifiers.

1. Пролистав журнал мод, я поняла, что все мои платья вышли из моды. 2. Накормив кошку, она стала готовить себе ужин. 3. Думая, что мы заблудились, он вызвался показать нам, как выйти из леса. 4. Зная, что у нее нет денег, я предложил заплатить за нее. 5. Побелив потолок, мы стали оклеивать обоями стены. 6. Обнаружив, что дом пуст, она вышла на улицу. 7. Понимая, что она все равно не успеет на поезд, она решила не спешить. 8. Истратив все деньги, он начал занимать у друзей. 9. Поскольку я уже видел этот фильм, я решил переключить на другую программу. 10. Выйдя из автобуса, она направилась к булочной. 11. Включив свет, я увидел, что в комнате кто-то был. 12. Поскольку я сидел в первом ряду, я прекрасно видел все, что происходило на сцене. 13. Не зная, что делать, она решила, что попытается выиграть время. 14. Полагая, что может ему доверять, она подписала документ. 15. Обнаружив, что дверь не заперта, и видя, что в коридоре никого нет, вор вошел в комнату и украл сумку. 16. Как бы листая страницу старой детской книги, она рассказывала мне о своем детстве. 17. Они были заняты тем, что упаковывали вещи. 18. Весь второй год в университете он провел, избавляясь от друзей, которых он приобрел в первый год. 19. Пересядя на итальянский, она рассказала нам всю историю более подробно. 20. Он потратил почти целый вечер, пытаясь настроить меня против вас. 21. Мы хорошо провели время, играя в баскетбол. 22. Она проводит большую часть своего времени за учебой. 23. Она истратила много денег на покупку мебели для новой квартиры. 24. Я получил большое удовольствие от разговора с этим писателем. 25. С минуту я просто стоял, размышляя, что мне делать дальше. 26. Мама была занята приготовлением ужина. 27. Шаркая, он вышел из комнаты. 28. После завтрака мы пошли кататься на лодке по озеру. 29. Мальчик прибежал и взволнованным голосом начал рассказывать, что произошло. 30. На свист из кустов приползла змея. 31. Он прилетел на собственном вертолете. 32. Все произошло так, как и было предсказано.

Exercise 8. Point out participial constructions; analyse and classify them. Translate into Russian.

1. I don't want him made unhappy. 2. Then I went away — left her in the chapel praying. 3. Madame de Grenet had a priest hidden out-

side the door. 4. She tried to have her patient moved upstairs, where there was running water. 5. Hearing him spoken of by Cordelia as someone she had seen a month ago I was greatly surprised. 6. I heard it said that his dealings were badly looked on by orthodox Conservatives. 7. He had had more copies of his portrait printed than he knew what to do with. 8. Even on this convivial evening I could feel my host emanating little magnetic waves of social uneasiness. 9. I feel the past and the future pressing so hard on either side that there's no room for the present at all. 10. As I stood on the platform I saw my luggage and Julia's go past, with Julia's sour-faced maid strutting beside the porter. 11. I must get the pictures unpacked and see how they've travelled. 12. We stood thus embraced, in the open, cheek against cheek, her hair blowing across my eyes. 13. I looked in at my wife, found her sleeping and closed the door. 14. When we got to the place we found it almost deserted. 15. I heard Julia across the table trying to trace the marriage connexions of her Hungarian and Italian cousins. 16. My wife first impressed the impressionable with her chic and my celebrity and, superiority firmly established, changed quickly to a pose of almost flirtatious affability. 17. Lord Flyte found him starving in Tangier. 18. I spoke loudly to make myself heard above the dance music. 19. We crossed together, expecting to find unfolding before us at Dover the history from all parts of Europe. 20. You have to sleep with your feet pointing East because that's the direction of Heaven. 21. We all began talking at once, so that for a moment Mr Samgrass found himself talking to no one. 22. I am not going to have you painting in the gallery. 23. Everything was left unsaid. It was only dimly and at rare moments that I suspected what was afoot. 24. When we have guests, I see him thinking, "Will they speak of me to my wife?" 25. They watched the grave crowds crossing and recrossing the square. 26. All the catalogue of threats to civilized life rose and haunted me; I even pictured a homicidal maniac mouthing in the shadows. 27. He paused, his duty discharged. 28. People could often be heard talking about the virtues of clean air. 29. The Dixons had guests coming at the weekend. 30. Jean was standing still on the exact spot where he had launched his curse, his enormous sides shaking with laughter. 31. If they want to wreck the performance by having the police tramping round the whole time, this is the way to do it. 32. Now, it being a melodrama, there was of course in the third act a murder and burglary scene. 33. Doris was left standing by the sign-post at the cross-roads. 34. Mr Hutton, legs outstretched and chair tilted, had pushed the panama back from his forehead. 35. Half a mile on he found his way barred by yet another gate. 36. In theory she didn't much care; let the dead bury their dead. But here, at the grave-side, she found herself actually sobbing. 37. She went to a cupboard across the room and came back with four canvases. "I have to keep them hidden from Henry."

Exercise 9. Translate into English, using participial constructions.

1. Она сидела и наблюдала, как люди спешат на работу. 2. Я видел, как он сидел у окна и читал газету. 3. Они слышали, как кто-то ходит в соседней комнате. 4. Я случайно подслушал, как они говорили о тебе. 5. Она заметила, как кошка пытается стащить рыбу со стола, и прогнала ее. 6. Войдя в комнату, я обнаружил, что она гладит белье. 7. Мы оставили их играть в шахматы. 8. Когда я уходил, они беседовали о только что вышедшем фильме. 9. Она пошла домой, оставив своих друзей танцевать и развлекаться. 10. Его застали за курением в общественном месте и оштрафовали. 11. Я вдруг поймал себя на том, что опять думаю об этом происшествии. 12. Услышав это, он невольно начал смеяться. 13. Невольно я стал задавать себе вопрос, где же я мог ее видеть. 14. Очень скоро фильм растрогал ее до слез. 15. Вот увидишь, у Джека телевизор заработает через 5 минут. 16. Он делал стрижку и укладывал волосы один раз в месяц. 17. Она остановилась у заправочной станции, чтобы заправить бензобак. 18. Я бы хотел вывести эти ржавые пятна. 19. Я видел, как их машину остановил полицейский. 20. Я считаю проблему решенной. 21. Он хотел, чтобы машину подали немедленно. 22. Им было нужно, чтобы дело было уложено как можно быстрее. 23. Видели, как он пытался открыть дверь. 24. Слышали, как она рассказывала о предстоящей поездке. 25. Если позволит погода, мы поедем кататься на лыжах. 26. Если принять во внимание все обстоятельства, мне кажется, мы не можем удовлетворить вашу просьбу.

Exercise 10. Analyse the participles used in the function of predicative. Translate into Russian.

1. Her whisper was penetrating. 2. The idea itself seemed disturbing. 3. In any event, one emerges from this exhibition delighted and inspired. 4. Clarisse came on escorted by Scarpia's minions. 5. Then he got sent to prison; I couldn't quite make out why. 6. He said that if I didn't mend my ways I would get sent down. 7. The rooms were shuttered against the afternoon sun. 8. The smell of garlic was overwhelming in the hot carriage. 9. The order of glasses got confused, and we fell out over which was which. 10. She woke bewildered, almost frightened. 11. The sound of his own voice in the darkness was appalling.

Exercise 11. Rewrite these sentences correcting misrelated participles.

1. Walking along the street, his hat was blown off by the wind.
2. Waiting for the train, my bag was stolen. 3. When using this device,

it must be remembered that it can break. 4. While reading, the book shouldn't be held too close to the eyes. 5. Having missed the train, it seemed wise to go back home. 6. When speaking to the old woman, it seemed to her that they had met before. 7. Driving along the road, a hare rushed right in front of our car. 8. While playing with the cat, it scratched him. 9. When changing a pipe, the water should be turned off. 10. Walking in the park, a dog attacked her. 11. When speaking to her, it is difficult to understand what she wants to say. 12. Realizing that it could have happened to her, her hand began to tremble. 13. Having spoken to him, it seemed to me that he wouldn't do that again. 14. Knowing her friend to be reliable, it was difficult to believe that she had failed her. 15. Standing by the window, a noise attracted her attention. 16. Entering the room it felt as if she had been there before. 17. Reading the book a second time, the message became clear to her.

Exercise 12. Use a non-finite form of the verb in brackets and analyse it.

I. 1. I've known it (*happen*) that way again and again. 2. Anything you care (*give*) is useful in a parish like mine. 3. When (*drink*), he developed an obsession of (*mock*) Mr. Samgrass. 4. It isn't my business (*argue*) whether people are better alive or dead, or what happens to them after death. 5. What could be worse for a man who fears death than (*have*) a priest (*bring*) to him. 6. There was a pause in which Julia sighed and Brideshead drew breath as though (*start*) further (*subdivide*) the propositions. 7. At this stage the doctors had nothing (*recommend*) except (*keep*) him comfortable and (*administer*) certain drugs when his attacks came on. 8. She wasn't a woman of high ambition, but (*have*) her expectations so much (*raise*), she was disconcerted (*bring*) so low so suddenly. 9. They thought very ill of his family for (*leave*) him like that. 10. And next day, (*walk*) through the wind- (*sweep*) park, she told me all about it. 11. It hurt (*think*) of Cordelia (*grow*) up quite plain; (*think*) of all that (*burn*) love (*spend*) itself on injections and de-lousing powder. When she arrived, tired from her journey, (*move*) in the manner of one who has no interest in (*please*), I thought her an ugly woman. 12. I don't mind (*say*) there have been times in the last two years when I thought you were treating Celia a bit rough. 13. The rooms began (*fill*) and I was soon busy (*be*) civil. My wife was everywhere, (*greet*) and (*introduce*) people. I saw her (*lead*) friends forward one after another to the subscription list; I heard her (*say*): "No, darling. I am not at all surprised, but you wouldn't expect me (*be*), would you? You see Charles lives for one thing — Beauty. I think he got bored with (*find*) it ready-made in England. He wanted new worlds (*conquer*).". 14. After luncheon the last passengers went (*rest*) and we were alone, as though fate on a

titanic scale had sent everyone (*tiptoe*) out (*leave*) us to one another. 15. (*Knot*) my tie before (*set*) out, (*put*) the gardenia in my button-hole, I would plan my evening. 16. Julia was sitting in a cube of blotting paper, her hands (*fold*) in her lap, so still that I had passed by without (*notice*) her. 17. I don't remember (*hear*) that your new baby was called Caroline. 18. It's no good (*have*) flu. 19. It's rather a pleasant change when all your life you've had people (*look*) after you, (*have*) someone (*look*) after yourself, only of course it has to be someone pretty hopeless to need (*look*) after by me. 20. Mummy has kept (*ask*) for you, but I don't know if she'll be able to see you now, after all.

II. 1. Jean had a pot of ferns (*drop*) on his head by an elderly widow in Camden Town. 2. Near us, as we disembarked, a second policeman was sitting on the pavement, (*daze*), with his head in his hands and blood (*run*) through his fingers. 3. She came (*burst*) in before I was up. 4. I'll see about (*have*) you (*instruct*). 5. It would be wicked (*take*) a step like this without (*believe*) sincerely. 6. I gave him a book (*take*) away. 7. Rex, (*fail*) her in that matter, went on to Monte Carlo. 8. He did enough (*make*) Lady Rosscommon (*write*) to Lady Marchmain. 9. He was perfectly agreeable to (*have*) his children (*bring*) up Catholic. 10. He was making excuses, as though (*rehearse*) his story for (*retell*) elsewhere. 11. It must have been about a week after (*receive*) this letter that I returned to my rooms one afternoon (*find*) Rex (*wait*) for me. 12. It's no good either of us (*try*) (*believe*) him. 13. That was the cant phrase of the time, (*derive*) from heaven knows what misconception of popular science. 14. (*Enter*); one seemed (*be*) in another house. 15. It used (*worry*) me, and I thought it wrong (*have*) so many beautiful things when others had nothing. Now I understand that it is possible for the rich (*sin*) by (*covet*) the privileges of the poor. 16. Let's telephone Julia and get her (*meet*) us somewhere. 17. She wore a green hat (*pull*) down to her eyes with a diamond arrow in it. 18. The important thing is (*keep*) out all mention of it. 19. He wasn't used to (*drink*), had too much, and lost the way (*drive*) home. 20. It's no use (*discuss*) things tonight.

III. 1. I awoke with the (*startle*) and (*puzzle*) sense of (*be*) in a strange room. 2. On (*see*) me (*move*) he went to the wash-hand stand. 3. We had some difficulty (*get*) in touch with him. 4. When we were made (*empty*) our pockets, he accused his gaolers of (*steal*). 5. The lady insisted on my (*stop*) for her (*get*) out. 6. "You boys had better (*go*) on to Rex. It's heavenly of you (*come*).” 7. We were slightly surprised a week later (*get*) a telegram from him (*ask*) us to dinner. 8. She found Sebastian (*subdue*), with all his host of friends (*reduce*) to one, myself. 9. Mr Samgrass now began (*play*) an increasingly large part in our lives. Lady Marchmain was engaged in (*make*) a book about her brother, the eldest of three legendary heroes (*kill*) in the war; he had left many papers; (*edit*) them, even for a restricted circle, needed tact and countless decisions in which the judgement of an (*adore*)

sister was liable (*err*). (*Acknowledge*) this, she had sought outside advice, and Mr Samgrass had been found (*help*) her. 10. In my own rooms I designed elaborate little pastiches, some of which, (*preserve*) by friends of the period, come to light occasionally (*embarrass*) me. 11. Thus, soberly (*dress*) and happily (*employ*), I became a fairly respectable member of my college. 12. Even now they come back again (*snub*) and (*laugh*) at. 13. She seemed not (*expect*) me, but continued (*stitch*), (*pause*) sometimes (*match*) the silk from a work-bag at her side. 14. Once you go to the Lido, there is no (*escape*). 15. I was fascinated (*hear*) him (*speak*) about his mistress so simply and casually. 16. He won't bring them. I heard him (*make*) plans not to. He is very sour today. He didn't want me (*have*) dinner with you, but I fixed that. Come on. I'll be in the nursery when you are fit (*see*). 17. It was a modest two-day show (*serve*) the neighbouring parishes. 18. Usually we managed (*hide*) from him. 19. A lot of the old wine wants (*drink*) up. 20. Thus, (*look*) through strong lenses, one may watch a man (*approach*) from afar, study every detail of his face and clothes, believe one has only (*put out*) a hand (*touch*) him. 21. It's a great bore to him, (*put*) out all his plans. 22. I haven't much money (*spare*) for theatre-going. 23. You must not let money (*become*) your master in this way.

IV. 1. Now and then he emerged and I would hear him (*call*) over the banisters. 2. You must ask Anthony. He claims (*have*) an affair with her. 3. I sat in front where he couldn't help (*see*) me. 4. I hear you are constantly (*see*) (*drink*) in the middle of the afternoon. 5. He was alone when I came, (*peel*) a plover's egg (*take*) from the large nest of moss in the centre of his table. 6. The gallery (*do*), they passed into a little room (*lead*) out of it. 7. (*Doze*) in his chair, he woke up, stiff and cold, (*find*) himself (*drain*) of every emotion. 8. (*Fascinate*), he watched it (*grow*) like some monstrous tropical plant. 9. (*Absorb*) in his childish plotting, he had ceased (*pay*) any attention to her words. 10. He left her still (*crouch*) on the floor beside the crib. 11. (*Take*) all things together, he had probably been more bored than amused. Once upon a time he had believed himself (*be*) a hedonist. But (*be*) a hedonist implies (*reason*), a deliberate choice of (*know*) pleasures, a rejection of (*know*) pains. 12. "Oh, you gave me such a surprise," said Mr Hutton (*recover*) his smile and (*advance*) with (*stretch out*) hand (*meet*) her. 13. He couldn't bear (*look*) at her more than was necessary. 14. He was covered with confusion on (*see*) a gardener (*pop*) up, (*surprise*) from behind a bank of rose-bushes. 15. (*Look up*), the two strollers saw George (*run*) across the green turf with a huge dog (*bound*) along at his side. 16. The days went (*slip*) by, hot days that passed like a flash almost without one's (*notice*) them, cold grey days, (*seem*) interminable and without number, and about which one spoke with a sense of (*justify*) grievance, for the season was supposed (*be*) summer. 17. He always made a point, in whatever part of Christendom he happened (*be*), of (*attend*) divine service.

Exercise 13. Translate into English using non-finite forms of the verb.

I. 1. Вы случайно не знаете, как зовут этого человека? 2. Кажется, вы были очень заняты на прошлой неделе? 3. Мы зашли слишком далеко. Обратного пути уже нет. 4. Он молчал, как будто колебался, какое решение принять. 5. Я предпочел бы не обсуждать это сейчас, если вы не возражаете. 6. Она провела весь вечер, слушая музыку. 7. Говорят, он написал еще две пьесы. 8. Ему нечего здесь делать. 9. Нет смысла спрашивать его, он все равно не отвечает. 10. Я потерял два часа, ожидая вас на станции. 11. Она без конца поднимала одну и ту же тему. 12. Вероятно, она займет первое место на соревнованиях. 13. Вбежав в прихожую, она начала рассказывать, что с ней произошло. 14. Вам бы лучше не вмешиваться. Пусть они решают свои проблемы сами. 15. После перерыва они продолжали обсуждение нового законопроекта. 16. Она почувствовала, что вся заливается краской. 17. Почему бы не позвонить ему сейчас? 18. Тебе повезло, что ты не застал его дома. 19. Она была в шоке и не знала, что ответить. 20. Он не тот человек, с которым можно пойти на компромисс. 21. Услышав это, он повернулся и вышел, хлопнув дверью. 22. Вместо того чтобы ответить, он стал сам задавать вопросы. 23. Ей ничего не оставалось делать, кроме как ответить тем же. 24. Он вряд ли поймет наше молчание. 25. Видя, что девочка расстроена, она спросила, что случилось. 26. Едва ли стоит так рисковать. 27. Я слышал, как она разговаривала с кем-то в другой комнате. 28. Она первой улыбнулась и протянула руку в знак примирения. 29. Десять минут назад мы видели, как она шла по направлению к парку. 30. Эта книга слишком трудна, чтобы я мог ее прочесть сейчас. 31. Мы уговорили его воздержаться от сделки. 32. Я подождал, пока она закончит свои дела. 33. Зачем говорить о невозможном? 34. Это не помешало ему обмануть нас. 35. Я никогда не слышал, чтобы эту песню так хорошо пели. 36. Он почувствовал, как кто-то схватил его за руку. 37. Я думаю, что происшедшее заставит их задуматься о своем поведении. 38. Услышав крик, она невольно вздрогнула. 39. Она прекрасный специалист, и у нее никогда не было трудностей с тем, чтобы найти работу. 40. Фильм оказался очень посредственным.

II. 1. Чтобы быть в хорошей форме, нет ничего лучше физических упражнений. 2. Я хочу, чтобы он сделал выводы из этого случая. 3. У нее были причины не желать его возвращения. 4. Она оказалась последней, кто видел убитого живым. 5. Она привыкла вставать рано. 6. Они утверждают, что видели, как он пытался украсть картину. 7. Вы не возражаете, если мы останемся здесь на ночь? 8. Я слышал, как кто-то упомянул мое имя.

9. Она практически бросила курить. 10. Он вряд ли сознается. Нет смысла разговаривать с ним. 11. Вся история закончилась тем, что она выиграла дело. 12. Дети с нетерпением ждали того дня, когда пойдут в цирк. 13. Вернувшись через год, он обнаружил, что она изменилась. 14. Джек предложил, чтобы мы обсудили этот вопрос за обедом. 15. Он лежал на диване с закрытыми глазами. 16. В этот момент мы случайно оказались рядом и слышали, как они спорили. 17. Она настаивала на том, чтобы позвонить в полицию. 18. Разбитую чашку было уже не склеить. 19. У нее было особое умение добиваться того, чего она хочет. 20. Это самый верный способ потерять все деньги. 21. Вчера я проявил все пленки в фотоателье за углом. 22. Она была слишком ненаблюдательным человеком, чтобы заметить, что что-то произошло. 23. Он поставил себе за правило никогда не браться за новое дело, не окончив старого. 24. Собака повадилась клянчить за столом. 25. Он упустил хорошую возможность решить все проблемы одним махом. 26. Не поворачивая головы, он спросил, куда им дальше идти. 27. Она не стала бы так расхваливать эти товары, если бы не получала за это деньги. 28. Спустившись к обеду, он обнаружил, что дверь в столовую заперта. 29. Она провела полчаса в поисках очков. 30. Прежде чем рассказать об этих удивительных событиях, я хотел бы описать их участников. 31. Помыв посуду, она начала стирать белье. 32. Как можно уехать из Лондона, не побывав в Национальной галерее! 33. Мы заставили его согласиться, лишь прибегнув к угрозам.

11. ADJECTIVES

Exercise 1. Use the correct suffixes to form adjectives from the following verbs:

admire	differ	persuade
confuse	flirt	signify
demand	forget	talk

Exercise 2. Use the correct suffixes to form adjectives from the following nouns:

danger	mountain	puritan
doubt	nausea	question
ecstasy	noise	remorse
fear	nostalgia	revenge
glamour	occasion	scholar

luxury	opinion	sentiment
marvel	pig	skill
meaning	power	storm
misery	prophet	sympathy

Exercise 3. Use negative prefixes to form negative adjectives

accurate	legal	responsible
active	profitable	sincere

Exercise 4. Use the correct combination of suffixes and negative prefixes to form adjectives from the following verbs and nouns

believe	fatigue	satisfy
define	resist	skill
differ	satiety	tolerate

Exercise 5. Fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions after adjectives

1. He is good ... drawing. 2. I am concerned ... the future. 3. The students are excited ... their trip to Britain. 4. A.D.Sakharov is famous ... his fight for human rights in Russia. 5. These two scientists are different ... their research methods. 6. This house is not suitable ... living. 7. The new roads are safe ... driving at night. 8. You are not free ... your commitment to finish the project on time. 9. My new job is different ... what I have been doing for years. 10. The local government is guilty ... deceiving the people. 11. We are proud ... our teachers. 12. John is keen ... getting a tenured position at his university. 13. It was evident ... everyone that his paper was poorly written. 14. The students were happy ... their results at the examination. 15. He never changes his mind. He is true ... to his ideas. 16. For a long time the economy of this country was dependent ... foreign investment.

Exercise 6. Translate the following sentences into English. Pay attention to the use of prepositions after adjectives.

1. Этот человек способен на все, когда речь идет о его интересах. 2. Политики довольны результатами опроса общественного мнения. 3. Макс Планк знаменит своими открытиями в области ядерной физики. 4. Билл завидует успехам своих коллег. 5. Мне очень хочется поехать в Англию. 6. Результаты нашей работы несомненно стоили затраченного времени и усилий. 7. Эти люди виновны в чудовищных преступлениях. 8. Нам очень надоело их постоянное вмешательство в наши дела. 9. Питер

благодарен своим коллегам за помощь при проведении исследований. 10. В своих решениях они были совершенно независимы от начальства. 11. Студенты очень недовольны своим расписанием. 12. Она сознает, что попала в ловушку.

Exercise 7. From among the adjectives given, choose those that can be used with the imperative. Use them in imperative sentences of your own (either affirmative or negative), providing a broader context.

ambitious	good	serious
brave	greedy	short
careful	green	shy
careless	hasty	silken
clever	helpful	slow
cruel	impatient	stubborn
disagreeable	irritable	stupid
enthusiastic	jealous	suspicious
extravagant	kind	tactful
faithful	loyal	talented
fat	mean	thin
foolish	naughty	timid
forgetful	nice	thoughtful
friendly	noisy	troublesome
funny	old	vicious
generous	pale	vulgar

Exercise 8. Provide the comparatives and the superlatives of the following adjectives:

awesome	easy	small
awful	empty	stingy
big	filthy	strange
brave	important	stubborn
clever	remote	stupid
creamy	sad	shallow

Exercise 9. Fill in the blanks using the adjectives given below.

best	farther	more
boring	further	sophisticated
enjoyable	less	the least useful
expensive	long	worse

1. For ... information, consult your academic adviser. 2. Of all the dictionaries available, this one is by far the best. 3. Life in this country

is becoming more and more 4. This is the most ... experience I have ever had. 5. Things went from bad to 6. We cannot work any ... without rest. 7. The hotel is located much ... from the downtown than we thought. 8. The local administration wants people to do ... work for ... money. 9. His new method is much more ... than the old one. 10. His presentation at the conference was as ... as it was 11. This is the ... of the four books.

Exercise 10. Fill in the blanks with the required article before adjectives or noun groups where necessary.

1. Professor Smith's presentation at the conference was ... best of all. 2. Professor Smith's presentation was ... most interesting. 3. Professor Smith gave ... most interesting presentation at the recent conference. 4. Peter is one of ... brightest students in this class. 5. Dostoyevsky was perhaps ... greatest novelist of all times. 6. She told us ... most improbable story. 7. What is ... most probable result of your research? 8. The experience of dealing with those people was ... most unpleasant. 9. Which is ... longest river in Southeast Asia? 10. In a multiple choice test, the candidates are expected to choose ... most suitable answer.

Exercise 11. Translate the following sentences into English, paying attention to the use of adjectives:

1. Джейн рассказала нам очень интересную историю. 2. Этот фильм несомненно самый интересный из всех, что я видел в этом году. 3. Маленькие гостиницы гораздо уютнее больших отелей. 4. Джим гораздо меньше ростом, чем Билл. 5. Мэри значительно способнее меня. 6. Джули совсем не постарела: она такая же красивая, как и в молодости. 7. Новый проект гораздо сложнее, чем старый. 8. Этот роман получил в высшей степени благоприятные отзывы. 9. Я считаю, что путешествовать по железной дороге приятнее, чем на автомобиле. 10. Это упражнение почти такое же трудное, как предыдущее.

12. ADVERBS

Exercise 1. Write down the adverbs related to the following adjectives and use them in sentences of your own:

acute	easy	freelance	shy
blissful	eerie	gentle	sly

comic	extraordinary	primary	straight
dry	fabulous	satisfactory	wry
	fortnightly	shamefaced	

Exercise 2. Paraphrase the following sentences, using the adverb *TOO*:

1. My dictionaries are very expensive, so I don't lend them to students. 2. It's a complicated matter, and we can't go into it now. 3. The minister said that no one was so old that they couldn't work. 4. Our MP is an intelligent politician and wouldn't have made a remark like that. 5. The refreshments Kathy served at her party were rather exotic. I can't say I liked them. 6. The river was so shallow you couldn't swim in it. 7. Those are very valuable objects and no one should finger them. 8. Professor White spoke so fast we couldn't take any notes. 9. Do you mean this jewellery is so valuable it can't be worn? 10. If a knife is blunt and you can't carve meat with it, it has to be sharpened. 11. As a designer, Andrew is such a perfectionist he couldn't possibly be responsible for the error on the plan. 12. It's rather an urgent matter; don't leave it to anyone but him. 13. There's a lot of difference in their family backgrounds, so I'm wondering whether their marriage will be a success (*Begin I'm wondering...*). 14. The bedside lamp was so dim I couldn't read by it. 15. The boys were standing rather a long way away and we couldn't see who they were (*Use far away*). 16. They looked quite small, so they could hardly have been schoolchildren. 17. Tina's very outspoken, and most people don't like that. 18. It's a good opportunity; Virginia shouldn't miss it. 19. She's a smart businesswoman and wouldn't miss a chance like that. 20. Jane's an absolute prude and doesn't like risky jokes.

Exercise 3. Paraphrase the following sentences, using the adverb *ENOUGH*:

1. Mandy was very reckless and went and quit her job. 2. George wasn't much of a man; he didn't speak up in his wife's defence. 3. He didn't have much sense and didn't even realize what his advantages were. 4. She was honest, and did not try to conceal her past failures. 5. She was also wealthy, and had the services of a very good lawyer. 6. Don't you think my daughter acted very well? Couldn't she have become a professional? 7. His wife was undoubtedly a good violinist and could have become a professional. 8. I was such an idiot that I neglected an opportunity of taking up journalism. 9. Her escort was quite old and could have been her father. 10. I had no patience and would not even consider continuing my education for the extra study required. 11. I haven't much time so won't be able to make any inquiries before I leave. 12. Would you

be so kind as make hotel reservations for us? 13. There are not many prominent politicians left, so the President will not be able to form an effective Cabinet. 14. George has a lot of artistic talent and could make a very good interior decorator if he was well-trained. 15. Caroline didn't have much money of her own, so she couldn't start a business by herself. 16. Alice did quite well in Paper One, and so made up for a rather poor score on Paper Two. 17. The country has considerable mineral wealth, so could be practically self-sufficient in the event of a crisis. 18. The rebels are so fanatical in their cause that they would stop at nothing to gain their ends. 19. There's not much of the blue paint left; we won't be able to finish the fence with it. 20. The factory isn't very far from where I live, and so I don't qualify for the travel allowance.

Exercise 4. Paraphrase the following sentences using the adverb **NEVERTHELESS**:

1. Georgina wasn't tired, but she left early anyway. 2. She wasn't on a diet but she refused the dessert anyway. 3. Even though Maggie had a bad cold, she went to fitness class. 4. I still trust my partners, even though they let me down a couple of times. 5. Sally didn't feel very well, but she smiled and pretended to be having a good time. 6. The children did not panic even though they were alone and lost in the woods. 7. Even though chemistry has always been easy for him, he understands that it is not easy for everyone. As a result, he is a good teacher. 8. Dr Yokoshima is not a citizen of the US, but she has to pay income taxes anyway. 9. Even though he is an experienced politician I would never vote for him because I do not approve of his positions on immigration policy. 10. The death rate continued to rise even though the local health department had implemented several new heart disease prevention programs.

Exercise 5. Translate the following sentences into English, using adverbs or adjectives:

I. 1. Ты легко справишься с этой задачей. 2. Как ни странно, они хорошо уживаются друг с другом. 3. Как поживаете? — Спасибо, прекрасно! 4. По иронии судьбы, его обвинили в том, в чем он обвинял других. 5. Она достаточно хорошо говорит по-испански, чтобы вести переговоры самостоятельно. 6. Он поет громче всего тогда, когда остается один. 7. Быстрее! В саду что-то горит! 8. Ты звонила в Германию через оператора? — Нет, прямым набором. 9. Как же это ему удалось опубликовать незавершенное произведение?

II. 1. Я больше не коллекционирую марки. 2. Далее, необходимо рассмотреть такие грамматические категории, как число

и род. 3. Ты печатаешь слепым методом (to touch-type)? — Я нет, а моя сестра — да. Она печатает быстрее всех в нашей семье. 4. Ситуация становилась все менее и менее объяснимой. 5. Мне было не очень-то приятно, когда мне поручили подавать директору кофе. 6. Не успела я вернуться, как поступил новый вызов. 7. С нами разговаривали по-дружески, однако не предложили остаться подольше. 8. Постарайтесь прийти пораньше, а то лучшие места будут заняты, и вы не сможете рассмотреть лучшие модели. 9. Не могли бы вы ехать помедленнее? Боюсь, мы пропустим нужную улицу. 10. Теперь не разрешается ставить палатки, где тебе заблагорассудится. 11. Девушка посмотрела на меня с надеждой. 12. Мы внимательно следим за вашими успехами в области школьного образования. 13. В экономическом отношении эти меры будут способствовать развитию торговли. 14. Смотри на вещи реалистично: разве можно выполнить такой сложный перевод в столь сжатые сроки?

Exercise 6. Use adverbs related to the words given. Consult a dictionary if necessary.

1. Many important issues have been overlooked by the authors, (*note*) the problem of grammatical acceptability. 2. Life expectancy has increased (*notice*) in recent decades. 3. The bedroom is (*delight*) decorated in pastel colours. 4. He rubbed his hands (*delight*). 5. This story is (*doubt*) true. 6. She looked at the letters (*doubt*), wondering if they were not faked. 7. You've got to be (*double*) careful when handling these precious vases. 8. Ms Evans and Ms Fitzpatrick represented Wales and Northern Ireland, (*respect*). 9. Paddington raised his hat (*respect*) on seeing Mr Gruber. 10. (*Regret*), the cancellation of this order will lead to further redundancies. 11. She smiled (*regret*) and picked up her coat. 12. Such disinterested commitment to the interests of the underprivileged is (*regret*) rare.

Exercise 7. Insert suitable adverbs or adjectives.

1. I can't give you an answer 2. He agreed to help us when he was treated in a ... spirit. 3. ...-minded people ... read a lot of newspapers. 4. ... speaking, this suggestion is not as ... as it might seem. 5. We only just met the day before 6. Did you go ... to Leeds? 7. She looked at us ... ; we felt ... under her gaze. 8. If you look ... , you will discern a tiny human figure in the upper right-hand corner of the picture. 9. ... speaking, these methods are not innovative at all; they've been used for a very ... time. 10. He fell ... on the stomach. 11. This will be ... difficult. 12. My father feels very ... about mini-skirts. 13. You can ... score 20 on the test. 14. Take it ... ! We've got lots of time. 15 ... come, ... go (*a proverb*).

Exercise 8. Make up sentences of your own opening with the viewpoint adverbs given.

1. Miraculously,
2. Fortunately for all of us,
3. Strangely enough,
4. Characteristically,
5. Rightly or wrongly,
6. Historically speaking,
7. Linguistically,
8. Officially,
9. Mysterious,
10. Naturally,
11. Geographically,
12. Funnily enough,

Exercise 9. Fill in the gaps with appropriate adverbs of manner.

1. They ... offered to lend us a hand. 2. Jack ... declined the job offer. 3. A few industrialists ... donated large sums of money to our fund. 4. Don't you think she behaved rather ... ? 5. He ... persisted in using old-fashioned idioms. 6. These facts have been ... proven. 7. She sang ... that night; indeed, she was at her best. 8. The policeman acted ... in the face of mortal danger. 9. Could you write more ...? I barely managed to make out your latest message. 10. Some phrasal verbs can only be used 11. The papers were ... hidden in an inconspicuous place. 12. He ... tied the packages with a string.

13. PREPOSITIONS

Exercise 1. Fill in the blanks with the given prepositions.

in	on	inside
into	onto	outside
out of	off	at

1. Rio de Janeiro is ... the south-east coast of Brazil. 2. Does this train stop ... Brighton? 3. Fred fell ... the ladder when he was changing the electric bulb. 4. Andrew usually goes to school ... bus. 5. When I was ... my hotel room, I started to take my clothes ... my suitcase. 6. Sarah came ... the house, got ... her bike and rode away. 7. My car broke down this morning so I went to work ... a taxi. 8. Jane came ... the telephone box and lifted the receiver. 9. The cat jumped ... the roof of the cottage but landed safely ... her paws.

Exercise 2. Insert the prepositional phrases *IN TIME* or *ON TIME*.

1. I didn't arrive ... time to see her before she left. 2. The bus service is terrible; the buses are never 3. I hope my car will be repaired ... at the weekend. 4. Laura is very punctual; she always arrives ... 5. She didn't arrive ... to say goodbye to him. 6. I don't think

I'll be at home ... to see my favourite quiz show on TV this evening. 7. Did you turn in your paper ... ? 8. We'll have to hurry to get to the club 9. ... things will improve. 10. Just wait, my dear. All ... good 11. I'll retire ... due 12. I'll be there ... no 13. I didn't go to Florida. I didn't get to the airport

Exercise 3. Insert prepositions where necessary.

1. Their son is extremely intelligent ... his age. 2. She was shouting ... the top ... her voice. 3. The trees were black ... the morning sky. 4. Before leaving ... Europe ... Africa you need to have an injection ... yellow fever and malaria. 5. This seems to be the best known remedy 6. We can only arrive on Friday ... best. 7. Switzerland lies ... France, Italy, Austria and Germany. 8. He surrendered ... despair, fell ... one ... his melancholies. 9. The perpendicular is a line ... a right angle ... another line or surface. 10. Mary was ... work ... the time ... the accident, so she is ... suspicion. 12. Mark is not accustomed ... paying ... a visit without bringing a gift. 13. The children aren't used ... getting up early. 14. He travelled a lot and acquired a taste ... foreign food. 15. When I returned the lost kitten to Mrs. Brown, she thanked me ... the bottom ... her heart. 16. I only saw the accident ... the corner ... my eye; I don't know who is ... fault. 17. ... times, I wish I had never come here. 18. The week began ... a memorable episode. 19. Paul is a very sensitive man ... a great fear ... looking ridiculous. 20. I picked up the phone: the connection was very poor and I could hardly hear what was said ... the other end ... the line. ... the end I had to ring off.

Exercise 4. Fill in the blanks, paying choosing appropriate prepositions.

James Bond was spending his last week (*away/in/with*) the Barbeary House, and (*after/when/by*) calling there to pick up their bags, they drove out (*onto/to/by*) the end (*away from/of/on*) Long Pier and left the car (*in/under/across*) the Customs shed. The gleaming white yacht lay half a mile (*down/out/off*) in the roadstead. They took a pirogue (*with/within/out of*) an outboard motor (*into/across/onward*) the glassy bay and (*across/throughout/through*) the opening (*by/into/in*) the reef. The Wavecrest seemed deserted, but as they came alongside two smart-looking sailors (*with/in/because of*) white shorts and singlets appeared and stood (*on/by/onto*) the ladder (*by/with/near*) boat-hooks ready to fend the shabby pirogue (*off/out of/beside*) the yacht's gleaming paint. They took the two bags and one (*after/following/of*) them slid back an aluminium hatch and gestured (*for/between/through*) them to go down and (*behind/in front of/into*) the lounge.

The lounge was empty. It was not a cabin. It was a room (*above / of / next to*) solid richness and comfort (*out of / with / without*) nothing to associate it (*to / with / between*) the interior (*by / by means of / of*) a ship. The windows (*at / beside / behind*) the half-closed venetian blinds were full size, as were the deep armchairs (*against / round / with*) the low central table. The walls were panelled (*in / of / out of*) a silvery wood. There was a desk (*of / with / with regard to*) the usual writing materials and a telephone. (*Over / Next to / But for*) the big gramophone was a sideboard laden (*out of / in / with*) drinks. (*Across / Above / Below*) the sideboard was what looked like an extremely good Renoir — the head and shoulders (*over / of / above*) a pretty dark-haired girl (*in / with / by*) a black and white striped blouse. The impression (*from / for / of*) a luxurious living-room (*in / into / with*) a town house was completed (*with / by / through*) a large bowl (*with / of / off*) hyacinths (*on / upon / onto*) the central table.

(After *The Hildebrand Reality* by I. Fleming)

Exercise 5. Insert prepositions.

High, high ... the North Pole, ... the first day ... 1969, two professors ... English Literature approached each other ... a combined velocity 1,200 miles per hour. They were protected ... thin, cold air ... pressurized cabins ... two Boeing 707s, and ... risk ... collision ... the prudent arrangement ... the international air corridors. Although they had never met, the two men were known ... each other ... name. The were, ... fact, ... the process ... exchanging posts ... the next six months.

The two men were ... airplanes, and one was bored and the other frightened ... looking the window.

One of them, Philip Swallow, has flown before; but so seldom, and ... such long intervals that ... each occasion he suffers the same trauma. While ... the ground, preparing ... his journey, he thinks ... flying ... exhilaration. His confidence begins to fade when he arrives ... the airport and winces ... the shrill screaming ... jet engines. ... the sky the planes look very small. ... the runway they look very big. He begins to think that he is entrusting his life ... a machine, fallible and subject ... decay.

Another, Morris Zapp, is a seasoned veteran ... domestic airways, having flown ... most ... the states ... the USA, bound ... conferences, lecture dates and assignations. He, however, seldom enters an aircraft ... wondering whether he is about to feature ... Air Disaster ... the Week ... the nation's TV networks. Normally such morbid thoughts visit him only ... the beginning and ... the end ... a flight.

(After *Changing Places* by D. Lodge)

Exercise 6. Insert prepositions; consult an idioms dictionary if necessary.

Talking ... the phone with Janet, I could picture her ... the other end ... the line. 2. His subject is Roman Law. He can talk ... hours ... end about it. 3. Our house is ... the end ... the road. 4. When Tom is home on the weekends, he is always ... loose ends. 5. John is a very poor planner. He can't see ... the end of his nose. 6. I was horribly ill for two months before I began to see the light ... the end ... the tunnel. 7. ... the end, she stood up and left the room. Her children followed her. 8. The project will have been completed ... the end ... next year. 9. This discussion lasted almost two hours. ... the end of it everyone began to feel exhausted. 10. I read the letter again ... beginning ... end.

Exercise 7. Insert prepositions; write your own letter of application based on this model.

A Letter of Application

I wish to make an application ... a lectureship ... the Department ... English ... this University.

I have a PhD ... English ... the University ... Guelph ... Ontario, Canada, where I studied ... such distinguished scholars as Professors K. R. Sisson and P. Hoggs.

I have taught ... a number ... American and Canadian educational institutions. Currently I am ... staff ... Riyadh University ... Saudi Arabia.

I have written about ten research articles ... the last ten years, all ... which have been published ... scholarly journals. I have also written two books, one ... Shakespeare and the other ... the teaching ... writing.

My specialty is Shakespeare and Renaissance drama ... general, but I am also qualified to teach a wide variety ... other courses.

I hope this letter of application will clarify some ... the information ... the enclosed CV, which outlines my qualifications, experience and research interests.

Exercise 8. Translate the sentences into English, paying attention to the use of prepositions.

1. Боюсь, мне придется извиниться перед коллегами за свои ошибки.
2. Наш сын помолвлен с очаровательной девушкой.
3. При чтении статьи можете делать пометки на полях.
4. Роберт женат на дочери известного поэта.
5. Никто не возражал против моего предложения.
6. Я хотела бы поменять эти картины на другие, более современные.
7. Реакция общественности на это

заявление оказалось неожиданной для политологов. 8. Каково, по-вашему, отношение молодежи к экологическому движению? 9. Почему ты повышаешь голос? Разве я в чем-то виноват? 10. Подсудимому будет предъявлено обвинение по меньшей мере в трех преступлениях. 11. Дай мне, пожалуйста, рецепт лимонного торта. 12. Не могу привыкнуть к этому грохоту под окном. 13. У Джорджа нет никаких оснований полагать, что он превосходит других специалистов. 14. Превосходство одного языка над другим — просто миф. 15. Я оплачу установку электронной почты из своего кармана. 16. Кто отвечает за сохранность лабораторного оборудования? 17. Непременно подай заявление на эту должность — у тебя есть все необходимые качества. 18. В начале романа главные герои отправляются в путешествие по Амазонке. 19. Вначале этот актер не произвел на меня никакого впечатления. 20. Я с самого начала предупреждал, что из твоей затеи ничего не выйдет! 21. Сначала нужно нарезать овощи, а затем смешать их с отварным рисом. 22. Кажется, Макс разошелся со своей женой, но еще официально не разведен с ней. 23. Магазин открыт с десяти до девятнадцати часов. 24. Уже половина одиннадцатого! Я жду твоего звонка с десяти часов. 25. Никто, кроме Веры, не смог ответить на последний вопрос. 26. Еще двое студентов, кроме Веры, смогли ответить на последний вопрос. 27. Каково ваше первое впечатление от этой выставки? 28. Я вел машину со скоростью восемьдесят миль в час. 29. Нефть продается на тонны или на баррели? 30. Художник изобразил сухое дерево на фоне ночного неба.

SYNTAX

14. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Exercise 1. Define the communicative type of the following simple sentences.

1. Facts are stubborn things. 2. Few of us can stand prosperity of other people. 3. What nonsense you talk! 4. What are you doing here? 5. Why haven't you done it yet? 6. I'm about to quit this job. — Oh, are you? 7. The exception proves the rule. 8. We live and learn, don't we? 9. He hardly ever goes to bed before midnight. 10. Shall I say yes or no? 11. Does a bookmaker produce books? 12. Don't let us talk about it any more. 13. Don't shout at me! 14. Don't you know that? 15. So, you've come? 16. Divide and rule. 17. Just lend me your car, will you? 18. Hurry up! 19. I never eat meat. 20. I've just won \$500! — Have you? 21. You are joking! 22. You don't say so! 23. Diseases are the tax on pleasures. 24. Do you play ↗badminton or ↘tennis? 25. Do you play ↗badminton or ↘tennis? 26. She is such a beauty! 27. Everybody stand up. 28. Did he surprise me! 29. Do heed my advice. 30. You really think so?

Exercise 2. Add a proper question tag.

1. I'm paying you, ... ? 2. Let's be a bit more serious about it, ... ? 3. There is no clear answer to this question, ... ? 4. I wouldn't like to be the president of this country, ... ? 5. Nobody likes to be laughed at, ... ? 6. Few people live to be one hundred, ... ? 7. Don't you ever do it again, ... ? 8. Nothing was spared to save him from pain, ... ? 9. This is very unusual, ... ? 10. There is hardly anything impossible in it, ... ? 11. I'm not envious of her life-style, ... ? 12. Anybody would know it, ... ? 13. Leave me alone, ... ? 14. That's none of your business, ... ? 15. Somebody is knocking at the door, ... ?

Exercise 3. Add a tag to each sentence. Use either falling or rising intonation according to the meaning indicated in brackets.

1. You don't like him much, ... ? (*a short answer is asked for*) 2. I'm a bit late, ... ? (*confirmation is expected*) 3. Oh, so they are getting married soon, ... ? (*more information is required*) 4. In fact, you couldn't help us, ... ? (*It is assumed that it was so*) 5. That's not so, ... ? (*the listener is expected to agree*) 6. And again I see that you left the gas on, ... ? (*disapproval*) 7. He says he's not guilty, ... ? (*a straightforward answer is needed*) 8. Then it's a deal, ... ? (*request for confirmation*) 9. Let's listen to some music, ... ? (*a suggestion*) 10. No one phoned for me, ... ? (*an answer is asked for*) 11. There's plenty of time, ... ? (*a question*) 12. Clean my shoes, ... ? (*a polite order*) 13. He is hardly ever late for appointments, (*a short answer is asked for*) 14. Switch on the light for me, ... ? (*a request*) 15. I'm right, ... ? (*confirmation is required*) 16. Somebody is missing, ... ? (*an answer is expected*) 17. The waiting time there is seldom less than two hours, ... ? (*disapproval*)

Exercise 4. Supply different echo tags in response to the following statements. Say the echo tags aloud with different intonation to match the meaning given in Russian.

1. We're finished.

а) — Да? Интересно. б) — Да, я знаю.

2. Tom's paying.

а) — Конечно. б) — Да? Откуда это у него деньги?

3. She's pulling his leg.

а) Это точно. б) — Да? Ну-ка расскажите.

4. It's all his fault.

а) — Да ну? б) — Да уж конечно так.

5. Mr Brown will see you later in the morning.

а) — Да? А в какое время? б) — Да? Но он же обещал принять меня сейчас!

Exercise 5. Translate the following sentences into English, paying particular attention to the responses to negative general questions and tag questions.

1. Разве у них нет детей? — Да, нет даже приемных. 2. Разве у вас нет семьи? — Да нет, есть муж и дочь. 3. Это ведь не ваши деньги, не так ли? — Нет, мои. 4. Это ведь не так, не правда ли? —

Нет, не так. 5. Неужели вы мне не верите? — Да, не верю. 6. Неужели ты меня больше не любишь? — Да нет, очень люблю. 7. Разве вы не знаете этого человека? — Да, я никогда не видела его. 8. Неужели вы не видите, что вы ошибаетесь? — Да, теперь вижу. 9. Вы ведь не откажетесь от своего слова (*go back on one's word*), не так ли? — Да, вы можете рассчитывать на меня. 10. Он ведь не очень счастлив со своей пятой женой, не правда ли? — Нет, они очень счастливы. 11. Разве я не прав? — Нет, вы совершенно правы. 12. Вы ведь никому об этом не скажете, не так ли? — Да, никому.

Exercise 6. Make the following sentences negative. More than one correct answer can often be given.

1. She has to wear glasses.
2. We often dine out.
3. They have a lot of money.
4. I've got a lot of friends.
5. Both of them are busy.
6. All of them are quite happy.
7. I usually have lunch in my office.
8. Let's have another drink.
9. Either way is good.
10. Always put off till tomorrow what can be done today.
11. They had a quarrel yesterday.
12. Somebody do it!
13. He was always fond of going to strange places.
14. I love doing grammar exercises. — So do I.

Exercise 7. Translate into English and state the communicative types of your sentences.

1. Да где вы это видели?
2. Почему бы нам не обсудить это в деталях?
3. Разве ее нет дома?
3. Кто там?
4. Вы хотите чаю или кофе? — Да, пожалуй. — Вы будете пить чай или кофе? — Чай, пожалуйста.
5. Мы все сделали. — Неужели?
6. Мне нравятся бриллианты, а вам?
7. Да когда же вы прекратите болтать?
8. Он выглядит сегодня усталым. — Это точно.
9. Какая своевременная идея!
10. Какая замечательная у нас сегодня погода!
11. Всем стоять смирно!
12. Пусть кто-нибудь откроет форточку (small window).

Exercise 8. Point out two-member sentences (complete or elliptical) and one-member sentences.

1. Am I my brother's keeper?
2. A majority of domestic chores are undeniably uncreative in themselves.
3. All the world's a stage. And all the men and women merely players.
4. Dorian engaged to be married! — To whom?
5. Thieves! Fire! Murder!
6. Never trust men with short legs. Brains too near their bottoms.
7. Monday. Breakfast tray about eleven. Didn't want it.
8. And have you found pleasure? — Often. Too often.
9. Living alone!
10. He told me a long story about his unhappy marriage.
11. The students took it down in their little books.

Straight from the horse's mouth. 12. English spring flowers! 13. Going out tonight? 14. To think of that! 15. "The noblest work of God? Man. Who found it out? Man." (*Mark Twain*)

Exercise 9. Point out the subject of the sentence and state what it is expressed by.

1. People are always rather bored with their parents. That's human nature. 2. "I have nothing to declare except my genius." (*O.Wilde at the New York Customs House*) 3. Which way has Golumn gone? 4. To do nothing is the way to be nothing. 5. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark. 6. The young in spirit enjoy life. 7. To be seventy years young is sometimes far more hopeful than to be forty years old. 8. Well begun is half done. 9. One should eat to live, not live to eat. 10. Two is company, but three is none. 11. What is the matter with him? 12. Here lies my wife: here let her lie. Now she's at rest, and so am I. (*epitaph intended for J.Dryden's wife*) 13. The grocer's was closed. 14. For us to be left by ourselves was a rare happening. 15. "Be" is a verb.

Exercise 10. State the nature of *it* and *THERE*.

1. *Algernon*: I find the thing isn't yours after all. — *Jack*: Of course it's mine. And it is a very ungentlemanly thing to read a private cigarette case. 2. It was getting late. 3. It was she who first told me about it 4. It is often easier to fight for principles than to live up to them. 5. It is raining cats and dogs. 6. It is very vulgar to talk like a dentist when one isn't a dentist. It produces a false impression. 7. It was a hobbit-hole, and that means comfort. It had a perfectly round door like a porthole, painted green. 8. Old men declare war. But it is the youth that must fight and die. 9. It is only about twenty miles from here to the airport. 10. Nine cannot be divided by two. It can be divided only by three. 11. Who is there? — It's me, John. 12. It's no good going there again. 13. *Marriage* is not a word. It is a sentence. 14. In the end of everything she married Joe. It angered all his relatives. 15. There are more dead people than living. And their numbers are increasing. The living are getting rarer. 16. There they stood, ranged along the hill-sides. 17. There are two classes of pedestrians. They are the quick and the dead. 18. Where is Mr Stalton? — Oh, there he is.

Exercise 11. Use the "emphatic *it*" so as to make the italicized parts of the sentence more salient.

1. He will be sorry for his words. 2. My brother was born on the 29th of February. 3. I did it yesterday. 4. We should discuss the first item of the agenda. 5. She is getting her language training in our college. 6. Mr. Brown is leaving for Paris tomorrow. 7. I will marry her/

him very soon. 8. I'm not much fond of my mother-in-law. 9. A dog bit him. 10. My mother threw an egg at the Minister of Education. 11. They want money.

Exercise 12. Answer the following questions, using the "emphatic *it*":

1. Why did you decide to professionally learn the English language?
2. When did Peter the Great found St.Petersburg?
3. Where did the Olympic Games begin?
4. Who was the first man to make a step on the Moon?
5. Where do all roads lead to?
6. When did you first fall in love?
7. Who once said: "I came, I saw, I conquered"?
8. What makes a good ending?
9. Who is going to take an examination on English this year?
10. Where was black powder invented?
11. What is stranger than fiction?
12. How long ago was Jesus Christ born?
13. Who usually spoils the broth?
14. What justifies the means?
15. Who is doing the last sentence of this exercise?

Exercise 13. Use formal subjects *THERE/IT* and a proper form of the verb *BE*.

... ... an unusually hot summer. not any rain for months and the earth was parched and bare. The sun kept on shining fiercely; invariably sauna-like hot even in the shade. hot a blade of green grass anywhere. evident that we were in for a forest fire.

Exercise 14. State the type of the simple predicate (simple verbal, simple phraseological, simple discrete).

1. Ah, you have lost the ticket, have you?
2. We've lost sight of moral values, haven't we?
3. I gave him a very interesting book to read.
4. The man gave him a violent push.
5. He took a shower and went to bed.
6. She took the menu from him.
7. Many pop-stars took part in the recording of the song "We Are the World" to raise money for Ethiopia.
8. He took a glass and swallowed the contents.
9. The government took drastic actions to defend the rouble.
10. He is always making fool of himself at the parties.
11. Are these shoes made of leather?
12. We have not made any decision about it yet.
13. We have no hesitation in accepting your most generous offer.
14. When planning anything, I always have one eye on the future.
15. I have nothing to say about it.

Exercise 15. State whether the predicate is simple, compound nominal or compound nominal double.

1. She felt awfully tired.
2. The doctor felt her pulse and grew worried.
3. She grew fine roses in her garden.
4. He looked pale.
5. We looked at him with surprise.
6. His video camera always sits ready near him to record incidents.
7. They sat in silence.
8. They were sit-

ting silent and gloomy. 9. The door was locked. 10. That night the door was safely locked by the door-keeper himself. 11. She idly turned the pages of a magazine. 12. My hair has turned completely grey. 13. The curtain rose slowly. 14. The sun rose bright. 15. The sun was shining brightly. 16. A glow of light appeared over the sea. 17. Your offer appears attractive. 18. America's biggest bank reported a 9 percent fall in the pre-tax profits. 19. One hundred and ten people were reported missing in the heavy battle between Teflonian and Oceanian troops. 20. God made man. 21. She will make a good teacher. 22. My wishes seldom come true. 23. He came back late at night. 24. After a long and almost sleepless night she got up exhausted. 25. Get lost! 26. Have you got your money? 27. How are you getting on? 28. He has fallen ill. 29. The snow was still falling. 30. This doctrine is thought unsound. 31. I don't think so. 32. They met friends and parted enemies. 33. He died a hero. 34. He died early in the morning.

Exercise 16. State the type of the predicate in the following sentences:

1. We are going home soon. 2. They are going to leave us soon. 3. I gave up thinking about it a long time ago. 4. She gave me a quick, shrewd glance. 5. Thank you. The message was given to me just in time. 6. There are two kinds of speeches: when the speaker has something to say and when the speaker has to say something. 7. We had a short talk about things of no importance. 8. We used to be good friends. 9. No violence was used. 10. You don't need a degree in mathematics to run a computer. 11. Need I do the washing up? 12. We are about to reach an agreement. 13. We started the project two years ago. 14. I've been trying to come into contact with him for ten days! 15. She tried on her new party dress. 16. We would often meet at the bus stop. 17. She said she would never do it. 18. I want 48 size black corduroy trousers, please. 19. I want to book my holiday early this year. 20. She is expecting her second baby. 21. They are expected to come soon. 22. I cannot forecast to you the action of Russia. It is a riddle wrapped in a mystery inside an enigma. (W. Churchill) 23. Am I my brother's keeper? 24. Fate keeps on happening. 25. I always keep my word. 26. Keep in touch! 27. You ought to stop doing nothing. 28. We are to become friends sooner or later. 29. She married young. 30. She seems to be quite happy about everything. 31. He took to calling on her every other day. 32. You seem to know my name. 33. You seem certain about it.

Exercise 17. Insert the required type of predicate: simple verbal (SV), compound nominal (CN), compound verbal aspect (CVA), compound modal nominal (CMN), compound modal aspect (CMA), compound aspect nominal (CAN).

nal (CAN), simple phraseological (SPh) or compound verbal modal (CVM).

1. Poplar trees (SV) fast.
2. The sun (CN) enormously hot.
3. The students (SV) exercises on the syntax of the simple sentence.
4. The students (CVA) exercises on the syntax of the simple sentence.
5. I (SV) home late yesterday.
6. I'm terribly sorry. I (CN) again.
7. You (CMN) never ... for your appointments.
8. You cannot see her at the moment. She (SPh).
9. You (CMA) nothing or you'll fail your examination.
10. I (CVA) in this house many years ago.
11. We (SV) no keys and we (CVM) the door.
12. It will do you a lot of good if you (CVA).
13. We (CAN) but then we had a bitter row and parted for good.

Exercise 18. Choose the correct form. More than one answer can sometimes be given.

I.

1. It (*is/are*) these figures that are utterly confusing.
2. We are not poor, but money (*is/are*) always scarce in our family.
3. All the goods in this shop (*is/are*) marked down.
4. The majority (*is/are*) against the proposal.
5. One means (*is/are*) still to be tried.
6. All means to rescue her from kidnappers (*was/were*) tried.
7. In Britain the majority (*is/are*) in favour of longer prison sentences.
8. His knowledge of maths (*is/are*) minimal.
9. My earnings (*is/are*) not high, but at least (*it/they*) (*is/are*) regular.
10. The government (*is/are*) hoping to have (*its/their*) budget approved.
11. My family (*is/are*) abroad now.
12. The police (*is/are*) looking for you!
13. Many a book (*was/were*) written about it.
14. You could argue that physics (*is/are*) more important than any other subject.
15. The media here (*is/are*) under the control of the government.
16. The staff of our office (*doesn't/don't*) speak Russian.
17. Six hundred pounds a year (*is/are*) not enough to live on in the UK.
18. Our company (*has/have*) just announced that (*it/they*) made a big loss last year.

II.

1. Neither of us (*is/are*) working today.
2. The manager rather than the members of the board (*is/are*) responsible for the loss.
3. Not only my parents but also my mother-in-law (*knows/know*) about this small sin of mine.
4. None of us (*is/are*) ready.
5. Nobody (*likes/like*) to admit their guilt.
6. Either my books or your memory (*has/have*) strangely erred.
7. Lincoln as well as Washington (*is/are*) respected as the father of his people.
8. Neither James nor you (*is/are*) to be counted as members of our club.
9. Neither of your attempts (*have/has*) been a success.
10. I'm sure you know that both she and I (*am/is/are*) good friends.
11. An English jury (*consists/consist*) of twelve people.
12. The jury (*is/are*) leaving the court to consider their verdict.
13. Advice (*is/are*) not always welcome.
14. It (*is/are*) we who can help you in all your hardships.
15. The mass media now (*plays/play*) an increasing role in shaping our opinions.
16. His charisma

rather than influential friends (*has / have*) always determined his political career.

Exercise 19. Translate these sentences into English paying attention to the subject — predicate agreement.

1. Правительство подало в отставку.
2. Наш дом находится на оживленном перекрестке.
3. Две недели слишком мало, чтобы выучить английский язык.
4. Вся пресса сейчас печатает статьи об этом событии.
5. Джинсы были впервые изготовлены Леви Страусом в Сан-Франциско в 1850 году.
6. Вследствие низкого уровня рождаемости население нашей страны быстро уменьшается.
7. Все мои пожитки в этом чемодане.
8. Именно мы готовы помочь вам.
9. Каждый из нас имеет свои обязанности.
10. Эта одежда вам мала.
11. Большинство — за это предложение.

Exercise 20. Analyse the type of object, stating by what part of speech it is expressed.

1. Where is the letter you brought me yesterday?
2. Hope to hear from you soon.
3. It never occurred to me that she was lying to us.
4. Everybody was proud of him.
5. She's given to you everything she had.
6. When we called on him we found him sitting in his old armchair, smoking a pipe and talking to his nephew.
7. She waited for him to come up closer.
8. The telegram was sent to them immediately after the departure.
9. He handed the passport to the man in the uniform and waited for the answer.
10. They promised us to write letters every day.
11. She has no idea how to behave properly.
12. You shouldn't envy her her luck.

Exercise 21. Change the place of the indirect or prepositional object where possible.

1. She will explain to you everything as soon as possible.
2. The teacher explained to his students a new grammar rule.
3. She is fond of giving instructions to everybody.
4. Leave a message for me when you come back, will you?
5. How much will it cost me, do you think?
6. He allowed each of us two minutes to make a decision.
7. Will you buy me the book you showed us last time?
8. Once they told you they were ready to help you, you must believe them.
9. He gave us his new address.
10. Promise me not to return too late.
11. They could offer us nothing new.
12. He read some of his new poetry to us.

Exercise 22. Translate the following sentences into English using the appropriate type of object.

1. Что подарил тебе брат на день рождения?
2. Книги, которые они нам отправили на прошлой неделе, мы получили только

вчера. 3. Он сказал мне, что меня все с нетерпением ждут. 4. Мне принесли документы, которые нам прислали из-за границы. 5. Я не смогу вам простить то, что вы солгали ему. 6. Детям преподавали итальянский как второй иностранный. 7. Они позвонили нам поздно вечером, чтобы сообщить о том, что опоздали на последнюю электричку и не смогут к нам приехать в назначенное время. 8. Хозяйка показала нам куда пройти. 9. Никто не хотел напоминать ему об этом. 10. Она сказала мне, что вернется из командировки только в субботу, и попросила позвонить ей в воскресенье. 11. Когда нас ему представили, он приветствовал нас лучезарной улыбкой и крепким рукопожатием. 12. Обещай мне не покидать их в беде. 13. Они дали слово не забывать нас и иногда нам звонить. 14. Вам придется поверить ему и отдать ему все имеющиеся у вас бумаги.

Exercise 23. Point out attributes and state by what part of speech they are expressed.

1. The first person we saw was Michael's brother. 2. They have never seen a more picturesque place. 3. What other books have you read lately? 4. I'll never be able to forget those lovely spring flowers he presented me with. 5. Her daughters were such bright intelligent girls that people usually enjoyed talking to them. 6. The dress you bought is too good for everyday wear. 7. Her laughing eyes kept my attention making it impossible to say anything at all. 8. He is a difficult person to deal with. 9. At last came a long expected answer. 10. Rainy English weather didn't annoy me any more. 11. Her arrogant "Don't touch me" manners became disgusting for the company. 12. He was the best-hated man on board the ship.

Exercise 24. Point out attributes, stating whether they are loose or close and by what part of speech they are expressed.

1. She had dark blue eyes and thin lips. 2. Among the newly arrived guests she was the most fabulous-looking one. 3. They are always the first to come and the last to leave. 4. There was something confidential and intimate about the way he treated her. 5. I've nobody else to talk to. 6. Is this outrageously behaving man your husband? 7. A single glimpse of her, weak and pale, lying in bed, told him more than any hospital doctor could tell. 8. At last we took notice of the young man with broad shoulders and dark hair looking the very image of our beloved poor friend Ken. 9. Her only reply was a deep sigh followed by a sad smile. 10. I was introduced to a middle-aged broad-shouldered man with bold head and piercing eyes.

Exercise 25. Paraphrase the following sentences using loose or close attributes:

1. He is usually the last to speak. 2. The house on the hill was small and shabby. 3. The person, who had come into the room, not long ago was appointed the president of the Company. 4. Letters congratulating them on their wedding were coming every minute. 5. She stood there, she was smiling to somebody coming into the garden. 6. The mother was very proud of her children who were now quite grown up. 7. She was an extremely attractive girl, happy with the life she lead and everything she did.

Exercise 26. Insert AS ... AS, NOT SO ... AS, SO ... AS, THAN, AS IF / AS THOUGH, LIKE, or AS to form adverbial modifiers of manner, degree, comparison, or result.

1. She sang ... an angel. 2. The sight of his eyes was ... heavy... lead. 3. His heart was trembling fast ... a leaf in the wind. 4. They were not ... good ... their rivals. 5. Her answer was ... low... to be almost inaudible among the noise of the street. 6. The girl looked at him ... about to run away. 7. The man stared at me in surprise ... unaware of what I was speaking about. 8. When we lived in the country, time flew fast, days passed ... hours and weeks ... days. 9. She understood more ... any of us. 10. They discarded the whole idea ... silly and unimportant. 11. She was walking very slowly ... ready to fall and never move again. 12. He spoke with more confidence ... ever before.

Exercise 27. Read the text, translate it into Russian, point out secondary parts of the sentence and state by what part of speech they are expressed.

She left the conservatory and made her way upstairs, intending to unpack, but instead allowed herself to be diverted by the sheer delight of being home again. And so she wandered about, opening doors, inspecting every bedroom, to gaze from each window, to touch furniture, to straighten a curtain. Nothing was out of place. In the kitchen she picked up her letters, and went through the dining room, and then into the sitting room. Here were her most precious possessions; her flowers, her pictures. Soon the fire was laid. She struck a match, and knelt to touch it to newspaper. The flame flickered, warm and gay. She piled on logs and the flames rose high in the chimney. The house, now was alive again, and with this pleasurable little task out of the way, there could be no further excuse for not ringing up one of her children and telling them what she had done.

15. THE MULTIPLE SENTENCE

15.1. The Compound Sentence

Exercise 1. Paraphrase these sentences without changing their meaning; begin with the imperative form of the verb. Practice using both copulative and disjunctive coordination.

Example:

If you don't reduce your fat intake, you'll soon put on weight.

⇒ *Reduce your fat intake and you won't put on weight.*

⇒ *Reduce your food intake, or/or else/otherwise you'll soon put on weight.*

1. If you give your wife a bunch of flowers, she'll forgive you.
2. If you practice the violin regularly, you'll have a good chance of winning the contest.
3. If you don't put on some make-up, you'll look pale.
4. If you don't tell me the whole truth, I won't be able to help you.
5. If you set your alarm clock, you won't oversleep.
6. If you are not careful, you will injure yourself.
7. If you lend me some money, I'll manage to hire help.
8. If you don't keep quiet you'll get into trouble.
9. If you plant the flowers now, they'll bloom in May.
10. If you don't insert another coin, you'll be disconnected.
11. If you give your son a little encouragement, he'll soon become a top player.
12. If you look down, you'll feel dizzy.

Exercise 2. Analyse these compound sentences, paying attention to the way the clauses are linked.

1. It's going to rain — we'd better go indoors.
2. You have to work hard to remain ahead of your competitors in business, otherwise you can easily lose your leading position.
3. The universities and colleges have been asked to reduce their spending to the least possible; therefore, they are employing no new teachers.
4. Either he paid out that hundred pounds some time after dinner last night, or else it has been stolen.
5. All happy families resemble one another; each unhappy family is unhappy in its own way.
6. Are we allowed to take the magazines home or do we have to read them in the library?
7. I'd gladly do it, only I won't be here tomorrow.
8. She didn't buy the novel, she received it from the author as a gift.
9. He didn't want to get involved; indeed, he only agreed on one condition.
10. Jonathan Swift never went up in a lift, nor did the author of Robinson Crusoe do so.
11. Before the invention of writing there were no written records and hence there was no history.
12. The sentences in Exercise 2 are relatively easy, while those in Exercise 3 seem to be more difficult.
13. He is a statesman and an essayist, plus he is a charming person.

Exercise 3. Analyse the following sentences, stating the type of coordination.

1. Stephen treated her generously, gave her an ample allowance, but he would under no circumstances permit credit, nor would he pay her allowance in advance. 2. Returning home late one night, I tried to wake up my wife by ringing the door-bell, but she was fast asleep, so I got a ladder from the shed in the garden, put it against the wall, and began climbing towards the bedroom window. 3. I'd like to come with you but that's not a promise, don't reckon on it. 4. The Art of Biography is different from Geography: Geography is about maps, but Biography is about chaps. 5. I was prepared to forgive one thoughtless remark, but she kept heaping insult on insult, so I asked her to leave my house. 6. I wasn't serious about the girl, I was only flirting with her; we both enjoyed it. 7. Ignorance is like a delicate exotic fruit; touch it, and the bloom is gone. 8. I always eat peas with honey, I've done it all my life, they do taste kind of funny, but it keeps them on the knife. 9. Mrs Darling loved to have everything just so, and Mr Darling had a passion for being exactly like his neighbours; so, of course, they had a nurse. 10. Life is a jest, and all things show it; I thought so once, but now I know it. 11. There are no clearly defined seasons in South Alabama; summer drifts into autumn, and autumn is sometimes never followed by winter.

Exercise 4. Combine each pair of sentences into a syndetic compound sentence without reversing their order. Don't overuse *AND* and *BUT*.

1. The review was long drawn out. The editor decided against publishing it. 2. Mr Evans was born in Wales. Mr McLeod comes from Scotland. 3. He doesn't know much about public relations. He is eager to learn. 4. The audience must have found the lecture dull. There were quite a few people yawning. 5. Don't put your prices too high. You'll frighten the customers off. 6. David is allergic to animals. His wife insists on keeping a Siamese cat. 7. Caroline is an excellent housewife. She is an efficient secretary to her husband. 8. We could use this money to redecorate the house. We could save it for a Mediterranean cruise. 9. I only had a couple of sandwiches. My fellow travellers ordered an enormous lunch. 10. Ted stayed for tea without being asked. He was the last to take his leave. 11. Stop making that dreadful din. I'll cut off electricity. 12. The woman seemed to be in despair. There were tears running down her cheeks. 13. I couldn't park near the entrance. I didn't find a car park anywhere around. 14. It was near midnight. The debate continued. 15. A group of stars contained in the Great Bear has the shape of a ladle. It is popularly known as the Big Dipper. 16. I'll fetch you in the car. We'll take a taxi. 17. I always asked

my roommate not to bang the door. He would do it just to spite me. 18. My research advisor pointed out a few misprints. She detected a serious error in the last paragraph. 19. Mark has become very short-sighted. He requires new lenses. 20. Behave yourself. You'll be asked to leave the classroom.

Exercise 5. Paraphrase these compound sentences so that one of the clauses has inverted word order. Use the clues suggested.

1. We consider this act illegal, and several MPs are of the same opinion. (*and so*) 2. I didn't feel like looking around the house; I didn't want to haggle with the owner (*much less*). 3. He never takes advantage of other people's ignorance; he never makes jokes at the expense of others (*and neither*). 4. The museum was reconstructed; a few valuable items were added to the collection (*not only*). 5. Her voluntary work was admirable and the way she managed the household was also praiseworthy (*and just as*). 6. They never boast about their title; they do not show off their wealth either (*still less*). 7. I never criticize my colleagues' ideas and I don't interfere in their projects (*nor*). 8. This translation deviates from the original; besides, it is twice as long (*not only*). 9. I've laid aside £100, and my brother has laid aside as much (*and so*). 10. The company's property was found to be in a sad state; its accounts were equally deplorable after the bookkeeper's escape (*and equally*).

Exercise 6. Supply the beginnings so as to make up compound sentences.

1. ... and our neighbours didn't either. 2. ... still less did I suspect him of forging my signature. 3. ... but they also restored some of the frescoes. 4. ... or else you will be asked to leave the classroom. 5. ... nevertheless, they elected her chairperson. 6. ... and neither is her sister. 7. ... hence he was nicknamed Brutus. 8. ... and equally objectionable was his concluding remark directed at his opponent. 9. ... only it was too small for me. 10. ... and just as readily did they agree to our proposal that the abstracts be published in two languages. 11. ... otherwise the shop wouldn't have agreed to exchange them. 12. ... or at least the ads say so. 13. ... nor do I care. 14. ..., for some of the well-known sources were not quoted in his article.

Exercise 7. Translate into English using compound sentences. Use inversion where possible.

1. Роман Булгакова «Мастер и Маргарита» необычайно популярен, ведь он переведен на все европейские языки. 2. Грегори не вернул мне деньги; он даже не попытался связаться со мной по

телефону. 3. Я не доверяю этим статистическим данным, и уж тем более не могу рекомендовать этот источник нашим клиентам. 4. Пусть он и компетентный юрист, но с ним трудно иметь дело. 5. Я не знаю этих людей, да и не хочу с ними встречаться. 6. Этот учебник не только содержит много ценной информации; он вдобавок и очень увлекательен. 7. Я не знаю ваших секретов, да и не хочу знать. 8. Старик не мог назвать свой адрес, как не мог сказать полицейским, кто он такой. 9. Я предпочитаю классическую литературу, тогда как моя сестра читает только детективы. 10. Анна промолчала. Она не могла солгать отцу, равно как и не могла сказать правду. 11. Пусть этот пылесос достаточно мощный, но он слишком велик для нашей квартиры. 12. Я не добивалась продвижения и уж тем более не хотела становиться руководителем проекта.

15.2. The Complex Sentence

Exercise 1. Combine each pair of sentences so as to use a complex sentence with a subject clause. Begin with the introductory *it*.

E x a m p l e:

How interesting! They named their baby after a famous rock star.

⇒ *It is interesting that they (should have) named their baby after a famous rock star.*

1. How splendid! Your daughter has opened her own gym! 2. That's outrageous! He proposed to Maria rather than Christine. 3. Emergency supplies must be delivered to the flood area quickly. This is vital. 4. You have to support your own family and also your sister's. It's crazy! 5. It's typical of Jason. He expects others to agree with him. 6. Read the instructions carefully before setting the alarm. This is essential. 7. Incredible! They have been living next door for six months now! 8. I left behind my address book. What a pity! 9. How odd! They always arrive together. 10. Study all the clauses of the contract before you sign it. This is important.

Exercise 2. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use object clauses after the verbs given in parentheses.

E x a m p l e:

His doctor wanted him to change to an outdoor job. (*advise*)
⇒ *His doctor advised that he (should) change to an outdoor job.*

1. The researcher wanted his assistants to install the equipment as soon as possible. (*urge*) 2. The merchant marine inspectors wanted

new safety regulations to be introduced (*recommend*). 3. Taxpayers wanted the minister to give more detailed information about public spendings (*demand*). 4. Parents want more summer camps to be set up (*advocate*). 5. The director wanted the actors to be word perfect after two rehearsals (*insist*). 6. The magistrate wanted the driver to be released on parole (*direct*). 7. The military police wanted the reporters to stay away from the hijackers (*order*). 8. The party leader wants his team to work out a new policy (*propose*). 9. The judge wanted the defendant to withdraw his remark (*rule*). 10. I wanted him to write a letter to the local newspaper (*suggest*).

Exercise 3. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use object clauses. Use the clues suggested.

1. I regret that my son isn't a tennis pro (*wish*). 2. Please hurry up! (*wish*). 3. It would be nice to know more about his family (*wish*). 4. Please keep it a secret for the time being (*rather*). 5. It's a pity that he married so young (*wish*). 6. Would you mind not smoking at table? (*rather*). 7. My parents would prefer us to live in the country (*rather*). 8. Please stop making faces! (*wish*). 9. I'd like you to change seats with me (*sooner*). 10. I'm sorry that everybody didn't arrive on time (*wish*). 11. Please put it together again (*wish*). 12. I don't want you to wear black tonight (*sooner*).

Exercise 4. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use nominal clauses. Use the clues suggested.

1. The person or persons who planned this visit went about it very curiously (*whoever*). 2. You may have left your gloves on the bus (*it ... that*). 3. I will accept any post that I am offered (*whatever*). 4. The men solemnly promised never to forget that tragic day (*that*). 5. Her courageous actions in the face of mortal danger were amazing (*it ... how*). 6. Gloria is trying to persuade her father to advertise for an assistant (*that ... should*). 7. I really hate bribery (*what*). 8. Her looks suggest that she watches her diet (*as if*). 9. His letter disturbed the whole household (*what*). 10. The reason for their sudden departure is still a mystery to me (*it ... why*). 11. I hate people criticising my habits behind my back (*it ... when*). 12. He sounds like someone who has access to state secrets (*as though*).

Exercise 5. Complete each of these sentences with a **WHAT-** clause.

1. ... is more important than what you say. 2. It is still unclear 3. No one could explain to me 4. He managed to sell his car for exactly 5. ... is why they declined such a tempting offer. 6. ... had

the effect of a bombshell. 7. Was his mother surprised at ... ? 8. Sorry I didn't hear 9. ... was a rough sketch rather than a drawing. 10. Can you imagine ... ? 11. This is just 12. ... came as a shock.

Exercise 6. Substitute **WHAT-clauses** for the word groups in italics.

E x a m p l e :

The thing you want me to do is extremely dangerous.

⇒ *What you want me to do* is extremely dangerous.

1. *His words* didn't sound convincing. 2. That's just *the thing that I feared!* 3. My legal advisor outlined *something that seemed to be the best course of action*. 4. *The thing I hate* is being ordered about. 5. The teacher wanted to make sure that we remembered *the material she had explained two weeks before*. 6. Would this be *the thing you were telling me about*? 7. Rita is *something that is known as a Nosey Parker* — she's always poking her nose into other people's business. 8. You ought to explain *the idea that you have in mind*. 9. The old man is at a loss to explain *his recent actions*, though he seems to remember quite clearly *the events that happened years ago*. 10. Mind *the things that you say in her presence*; she's very touchy about her appearance.

Exercise 7. Complete nominal clauses with appropriate verb forms. More than one variant may be possible.

1. It's only natural that we ... friends for years. 2. I insist that the forms ... right now. 3. It's a nuisance that I ... always ... the washing-up. 4. I propose that the charter of our student union 5. It looks as if the weather.... . 6. We are disappointed that the first prize... . 7. It's of vital importance that the polluted area 8. It's wrong that such an experienced worker ... by his employers. 9. I find it preposterous that some people ... in public. 10. Sylvia looks as if she ... from Bermuda. 11. I'm sorry that you ... upset about this incident. 12. I insist that I ... my money back after such inadequate therapy.

Exercise 8. Point out nominal clauses, define their types and comment on the way they are introduced.

1. What soberness conceals, drunkenness reveals. 2. Kate allowed it to be understood that she was indisposed. 3. How you manage on your income is a puzzle to me. 4. The mother was anxious that the baby should become ill. 5. Last Monday was when they moved in. 6. Where we could find an apartment was our problem. 7. We didn't know whether the visitors would leave or stay. 8. It is important that

you see your doctor at once. 9. I wish he would cut out that stupid behaviour. 10. Whoever wanted to take pictures of the exhibits had to pay a fee. 11. My first impression was that I had seen the man before. 12. Why did she take it into her head that I was to blame? 13. It's terrible, the way people are herded together in rush hour trains. 14. The point is, the electricity bills are long overdue. 15. That their house is for sale is a well-known fact. 16. I'd rather you told the boys to leave my dog alone. 17. Whatever will be, will be. 18. But that's just what I said! 19. It is interesting how these small animals find their food under the snow, digging it out with their paws. 20. I flatter myself that my IQ is well above average. 21. Climbing trees is what they do best. 22. Give the message to whoever is in the office. 23. One of the differences between an optimist and a pessimist is that a pessimist is better informed. 24. See if you can reason the members into agreeing with each other. 25. It remains to be seen whether a better opportunity will present itself in the near future.

Exercise 9. Analyse the following multiple sentences paying attention to the types of nominal clauses.

1. The truth is, one tries to believe that dreams are nonsense, and up to a certain extent one may succeed in believing. 2. Walking home last night, I reflected on who the men were and why they had behaved so strangely. 3. I realized that what he had to tell me was very hard to say. 4. What followed showed that Mrs Strickland was a woman of character. 5. Do you think she could ever have forgiven him for what he did to her? 6. A well-known car manufacturer often said that one secret of his success in business was that he always remained one step ahead of public demand. 7. Whether he will gain fame during his lifetime or whether he will remain in obscurity, only time can show. 8. I don't mind what sex the baby is, but I have to admit we're hoping for a girl. 9. I'm sure that whoever runs across you will be shocked at your appearance. 10. This is where you come in: we want you to conduct what might be called a public opinion poll. 11. I know this is what you came to find out. 12. He said he owed it to his wife that he had been able to finish that book. 13. What astonished me most was that he knew no nursery rhymes or fairy stories. 14. I must confess that what you say is quite a revelation to me. 15. Its central location is why we chose this hotel. 16. It was natural that good grammar schools should want him as a pupil, that he should later travel to foreign universities and enter the profession of his own choice. 17. What I like about Clive is that he is no longer alive. 18. It is an axiom for students of the language that some words lose their meaning altogether whereas others take on additional shades of meaning. 19. It is important that trainees should see just how their progress is evaluated by the instructor.

Exercise 10. Paraphrase these sentences with object clauses so as to use inversion in the main clause. Begin as shown.

Example:

He had no idea what a shock was in store for him. *Little*
⇒ *Little did he know what a shock was in store for him.*

1. She may say with good reason that the deal was unfair. *Well*
2. They didn't realize that it was their last encounter. *Little*
3. You have every reason to believe that your son has succeeded in business. *With good*
4. I well remember what happened on the day of their arrival. *Well*
5. He did not suspect that the landlady had ransacked every corner of his room. *Little*
6. We never thought that he was an artist of great renown. *Little*
7. You are justified in saying that the company is faced with financial difficulties. *With every*
8. They couldn't imagine that their holiday would be a disaster. *Little*
9. You may be right in asserting that your suppliers are unreliable. *Well*
10. He was unaware that they had paid him in forged money. *Little*

Exercise 11. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use nominal clauses. Begin as shown.

1. His chances of qualifying as a lawyer are small. *It is not*
2. You should own up to the embezzlement. *I'd rather*
3. I'm sorry that my arguments against his proposal sounded groundless. *I wish*
4. She enjoys buying smart clothes. *What*
5. He wants me to prepare the preliminary draft in duplicate. *His suggestion*
6. The things that lay on the table belonged to my brother Bill. *What*
7. Either of the two companies that takes over the factory will have to pay a large sum in taxes. *Whichever*
8. Dividing the prize money between the two winners was only fair. *It was*
9. He had no hope that the stolen painting would be returned to him. *Little*
10. Lodging a complaint against the tour leader was all they did. *What*
11. Any facts that you discover should be reported to the police immediately. *Whatever*
12. I advise him to make an appointment with his doctor. *My advice*

Exercise 12. Translate these sentences into English, using nominal clauses; use inversion where possible.

1. У тебя такой вид, словно ты только что получил повышение в должности.
2. Что обещано, то нужно выполнять.
3. У меня такое чувство, что меня обманули.
4. Мог ли он предположить, что его коллекция похищена!
5. Преподавание русского языка иностранным студентам — это то, что меня больше всего интересует.
6. Мы и не знали, что Максим выиграл первый приз.

7. Жаль, что домовладелец не оставил завещания. 8. Совершенно естественно, что наши велосипедисты победили в гонке. 9. Мне все равно (для меня не имеет значения), актер он или режиссер; он очень талантлив. 10. Отвратительно, что она бьет своего ребенка! 11. То, что выставлено в этом зале, изготовлено учащимися художественной школы. 12. Профсоюз настаивал на замене устаревшего оборудования. 13. Администрация считает нежелательным, чтобы служащие курили на работе. 14. Проследите, чтобы протокол был отпечатан в двух экземплярах. 15. Убедитесь, что все участники конференции получили приглашения на пленарное заседание. 16. Боюсь, как бы меня не уволили. 17. Не люблю, когда о людях судят по уровню их доходов. 18. Я готов сделать все, что бы ты ни попросила. 19. Ненавижу, когда люди проявляют жестокость к животным. 20. Я бы предпочла, чтобы вы сами объяснили эту ситуацию. 21. Они и не подозревали, что их сын бросил университет. 22. Жаль, что дневники поэта утрачены. 23. Отдай эту записку любому, кто обо мне спросит. 24. То, что произошло впоследствии, доказало, что мои предсказания оправдались. 25. Позаботьтесь, чтобы дети были тепло одеты. 26. Жаль, что я не ознакомился с этим отчетом заранее. 27. Жаль, что вы поверили этим слухам. 28. Я бы предпочла, чтобы лектор говорил помедленнее. 29. Просто ужасно, что эти люди не имеют крыши над головой.

Exercise 13. Combine each pair of sentences into a complex sentence with an attributive appositive clause.

E x a m p l e:

I insisted that taxes should be raised. They disputed my view.

⇒ *They disputed my view that taxes should be raised.*

1. Some people say that benefits will be curtailed. We tried to dispel this notion.
2. Art should express noble feelings. This idea is shared by many.
3. He believes that the earth is flat. Nothing can shake his belief.
4. Her family isn't wealthy. She just created this erroneous impression.
5. The attack is to be resumed. Headquarters issued an order.
6. Some officials are corrupt. The newspaper emphasized this fact.
7. Television is harmful to children. The principal expressed this firm conviction.
8. Her husband has been promoted to colonel. Have you heard this news?
9. They think that the case should be settled without litigation. They expressed this thought.
10. She wanted her estate to be divided evenly. She left instructions to her lawyer.
11. The poet has returned to this country. We have information about it.
12. He thinks that a compromise can be reached. He expressed this opinion.
13. We received an urgent message. It said that we were to

return at once. 14. I suspected that he was guilty. These events confirmed my strong suspicion.

Exercise 14. Combine each pair of sentences into a complex sentence with an attributive appositive clause, using *THE FACT* as antecedent.

E x a m p l e :

So many people have seen the new play. This just shows how popular it is.

⇒ *The fact that so many people have seen the new play just shows how popular it is.*

1. His academic achievement has improved. This is undeniable. 2. Every room was redecorated. The visitors were impressed. 3. Construction of the new street market went ahead. The residents of this area were opposed to it. 4. So many trains had been cancelled. That caused a great deal of confusion. 5. Jack did very well at college. This doesn't mean a thing. 6. Mary's proposal is quite sensible. You should recognize this. 7. The course proved too difficult. Some of the students were discouraged. 8. The new secretary was the center of attraction. The staff members were resentful. 9. She has excellent computer skills. This enabled her to find a well-paid job. 10. Robert is losing his hair. He doesn't worry.

Exercise 15. Complete each of these sentences by using a particularizing clause with the antecedent given in italics.

1. That was the worst *thing*. 2. The *excuse* was unacceptable. 3. The *woman* was his cousin. 4. The *sum of money* is negligible. 5. That's the third *reminder*. 6. I refuse to support the *plan*. 7. The *sort of fiction* cannot be described as good literature. 8. Is that all the *work*? 9. Would you like to see the *pictures*? 10. The *engraving* was purchased at Sotheby's only last year. 11. The *test* didn't seem to be very difficult. 12. This is the fastest *car*.

Exercise 16. Complete each of these sentences by using a classifying clause with the antecedent given in italics.

1. Women generally disapprove of *men*. 2. Students should be expelled from university. 3. *Nothing* is ever a success. 4. Is there *anyone* among the audience? 4. I refuse to support *ideas*. 5. Moira has an admiration for *those*. 6. I'd like to talk to *someone*. 7. I wouldn't marry *a man*. 8. I never wear *clothes*. 9. *Laws* should be repealed. 10. *Anyone* should be sent to prison. 11. *No one* ought to keep pets. 12. I've never seen *a cat*.

Exercise 17. Complete these sentences using contact clauses (particularizing and classifying).

Example:

... the music the band ...

⇒ *We just couldn't stand the music the band was playing the whole time.*

1. ... the check the customer 2. ... the prescription the doctor ... ? 3. ... the man my sister 4. The test the students 5. ... anyone he 6. The map the tourists 7. ... anything else you ... ? 8. The company I 9. ... the money the city council 10. ... the clothes she 11. ... the two CDs he 12. ... the poem this quotation ... ? 13. The perfume you 14. ... the draft project the committee

Exercise 18. Combine these pairs of sentences, using *WHICH*, *WHO*/ *WHOSE* / *WHOM* or *WHERE* to introduce descriptive clauses. Punctuate appropriately.

1. You should consult the Shorter Oxford Dictionary. It contains a wealth of information on the etymology of English words.
2. The Kirov Company's latest production of Don Quixote is a great success with the public. It has received highly favourable reviews.
3. The allegoric statue of Victory was commissioned by the city council. It is to be unveiled next week.
4. The Changing of the Guard always attracts crowds of tourists. It takes place in front of Buckingham Palace.
5. Single parent families are likely to repeal the new law. Their incomes are often below average.
6. That man aroused the suspicion of security officers. Nobody had seen him here before.
7. In 1876, Henry James settled in London. He lived for more than twenty years there.
8. Queen Victoria came to the throne in 1837. Her long reign was a period of unprecedented prosperity in Britain.
9. Mikhail Lermontov was believed to trace his descent from Thomas Learmont. The latter was also known as Thomas the Rhymer.
10. I gave the letter to George. He promised to post it for me.

Exercise 19. Combine these pairs of sentences, using *WHICH* to introduce continuative clauses. Punctuate appropriately.

1. He refused to continue his education. That was a great disappointment to his mother.
2. I sent her a check. This was all I could do in the circumstances.
3. My car needs servicing. This means that I'll have to take it to the garage tomorrow.
4. He had two novels published early in his career. After that he took a serious interest in archaeology.
5. Some people in the audience admired the singer's

talent. This was hardly the impression I got. 6. He wanted to translate that poem into English. This appeared to be too great a challenge even for such a gifted translator as he is. 7. She's had a bad accident. This explains why she avoids travelling by car. 8. The police fined him twenty dollars. At this, he became furious. 9. A cargo ship picked up their raft only a week later. By that time they had run out of food and fresh water. 10. The exhibition has hardly received any publicity. This is a pity because some of the items are unique.

Exercise 20. Point out attributive clauses, define their types and comment on the way they are introduced.

1. He had booked a passage on the *Saxonia*, which sailed at three-thirty. 2. You sound pretty sure of yourself for a man who has lost a fortune. 3. That which was bitter to endure may be sweet to remember. 4. My two aunts, neither of whom I have seen for years, are coming to stay for Christmas. 5. The announcement that our project had been given top priority was received with cheers. 6. He decided to annex another wing to his house, which annoyed his neighbours. 7. The newspaper reporters are all raving about the young singer's performance, which has given the whole city such pleasure. 8. Her premise that the results of the election were already decided proved to be true. 9. The arguments he put forward just didn't hold water. 10. We take care to correct such errors as we can trace. 11. Some people who claimed to have seen a UFO were mental patients. 12. The rumour that Ted had lost his job spread quickly. 13. Most English vowel sounds which are not given weight in speech become reduced to a rather formless central vowel. 14. The impression she gave her boss was quite favourable. 15. She created the impression that she was an efficient advertising manager. 16. We entertained the hope that the passengers and crew would survive. 17. All we can do is hope for the best. 18. It's about time he found himself a full-time job. 19. I'd prefer a hospital whose nursing staff is more efficient. 20. The garden, which is south-facing, extends to the river. 21. The question "How many types of clauses could there be?" boils down to the question "What sorts of structures do we describe as clauses?"

Exercise 21. Analyse the following multiple sentences with attributive clauses:

1. My parents believe in the old proverb that a man is known by the company he keeps. 2. She liked the fact that his hair, which had always been crinkly, was beginning to turn grey. 3. People who are different from the rest of society are often held up to ridicule by others who are afraid of them. 4. Arthur's car, which is only six months

old, broke down on the way to Leeds, where he was going to visit his grandmother. 5. It is impossible to move about any great city today without noticing the number of people who seem to have nothing to do that is particularly urgent. 6. Unfortunately Brewster, who looks after old Dr Denman, was away for the night, so there was no one who knew what to do. 7. The prisoner, who behaved in rather an arrogant manner, refused to accept the judge's decision that he was guilty. 8. The driver who exceeded the speed limit was asked to produce his license, at which he became very angry. 9. Angus, who had no ear for music, was forced by his parents to practice the piano daily, while his younger brother, whose talents were varied, seemed to be neglected. 10. General N., who agreed to contribute an article to a major newspaper, arrived at an unexpected and disturbing conclusion that armed conflicts were inevitable.

Exercise 22. Complete these sentences, using various types of attributive clauses:

1. They made no excuse, which
2. They accepted the excuse which
3. They accepted the excuse that
4. She screamed on seeing the stranger, who
5. She screamed on seeing the stranger, which
6. The new weekly refuses to cover sports events which
7. The new weekly refuses to cover sports events, which
8. I wouldn't trust a doctor who
9. I wouldn't trust that doctor, who
10. Some of this information may appear misleading, in which case
11. The information that ... may appear misleading.
12. The information which ... may appear misleading.
13. I have pleasure in introducing to you the man without whose
14. I have pleasure in introducing to you Ralph Collins, whom

Exercise 23. Translate the following sentences into English, using attributive clauses:

1. Андрей набрал двадцать баллов, что было лучшим результатом.
2. Хорошо помню нашу встречу, которая состоялась в канун Рождества.
3. Те, кто много обещают, обычно мало делают.
4. Требование, чтобы все школьники носили форму, представляется мне смехотворным.
5. Мне было указано на мои ошибки, что меня огорчило.
6. Создается впечатление, будто некоторые картины Магритта трехмерны.
7. Любой историк, который занимается проблемами Средневековья, знаком с этой монографией.
8. Эта монография, точное название которой я, к сожалению, сейчас не могу вспомнить, известна любому историку.
9. Этот ученый, чье имя известно только специалистам, внес существенный вклад в различные области биологии.
10. Студент, который не сдал экзамены в срок, может быть отчислен.

Exercise 24. Use appropriate verb forms in these sentences with adverbial clauses of time, all of which have a future time reference.

1. I (*be*) ready to join you the moment I (*water*) the plants.
2. You (*get*) used to our methods when you (*work*) here a bit longer.
3. After he (*give*) some formal instruction, his chances (*improve*).
4. The participants (*not find*) out their score until the results (*print*) out.
5. The builders (*start*) construction work as soon as the plans (*approve*).
6. I (*let*) you know my opinion as soon as I (*review*) the article.
7. Once he (*let*) out his feelings, he (*feel*) better.
8. (*Not announce*) your decision until you (*give*) the matter some thought.
9. As soon as we (*hash*) out the question of Mr Green's appointment, he (*be*) able to proceed.
10. He (*make*) an excellent squash player when he (*have*) a little more competitive experience.
11. (*Not start*) on Paper Two until you (*complete*) all the questions in Paper One.
12. He (*be*) unlikely to leave before he (*remind*) of the lateness of the hour.

Exercise 25. Complete these sentences with adverbial clauses of time.

1. The moment ... , my heart sank.
2. He hasn't touched alcohol since
3. Before ... she had been a kindergarten teacher.
4. Whenever ... , my husband gets annoyed.
5. The last time ... it was just a small village.
6. You may rely on us to inform you as soon as
7. While the teacher ..., she was making notes in her writing pad.
8. ... since they contacted our authorized dealer.
9. Once this order is fulfilled, the company
10. Each time I visit the Russian Museum
11. Just as ... , I began to have a lurking suspicion about his motives.
12. Her membership will be suspended until

Exercise 26. Combine each pair of sentences into a complex sentence using *NO SOONER... THAN OR HARDLY / SCARCELY / BARELY ... WHEN*. Practice both direct and inverted word order.

1. She came home. She turned on the television.
2. The company made the announcement. Share prices began to rise.
3. He got to the camp. He collapsed, dog tired, on the bed.
4. The athletes covered the first lap. The leading runner slipped and fell.
5. I got round the corner. A traffic policeman stopped my car.
6. She locked the door. A taxi pulled up at the gate.
7. The operator put me through. The line was disconnected.
8. The monument was restored. It was vandalized yet again.
9. He added up the figures. The mistake became apparent.
10. Winter set in. The Joneses left for London.
11. I sent the demo cassette to the studio. I became sick with apprehension.
12. They evacuated the building. The roof fell in.

Exercise 27. Translate these sentences into English, using adverbial clauses of time and place:

1. Не успели мы начать разговор, как нас разъединили.
2. Только когда эти анкеты будут заполнены, кандидатов допустят к собеседованию.
3. Не прошли мы и полумили, как разразилась гроза.
4. Только когда эти кустарники зацветут, мы сможем определить их сорт.
5. Нельзя вешать объявления, где тебе заблагорассудится.
6. В тот момент, когда начнется спектакль, вы заметите нечто необычное.
7. К тому времени, как будет завершено строительство фабрики, многие семьи уже уедут из этого города.
8. Только он свернул за угол, как вспомнил, что оставил документы дома.
9. Мне ничего не было видно с того места, где я стоял.
10. Владимир Высоцкий был необычайно популярен; зрители начинали аплодировать, стоило ему появиться на сцене.
11. Я как раз запирала двери, когда подошел — кто бы вы думали? (никто иной как) — наш бывший директор.
12. Как только я включила компьютер, зазвонил телефон.
13. Я не смогу оплатить эти счета, пока не получу гонорар за перевод.
14. Дизайнеры обсуждали оформление интерьера два дня, пока не нашли приемлемое решение.
15. В тот миг, когда прозвучал выстрел, служащие и клиенты банка легли на пол.
16. Мы дружим с тех пор, как наши родители начали вместе работать.
17. Только когда все замолчали, оратор начал свое выступление.
18. Стоило мне убрать со стола, как вернулся мой сын и попросил есть.
19. Мы встретились там, где играли еще детьми.

Exercise 28. Complete these conditional sentences with a main clause or a subordinate clause.

A. Type 1 conditionals.

1. What will happen if Mother ... ?
2. I'll let you use my car on the understanding that ...
3. I will accept your explanation only on condition that ...
4. If you continue to make steady progress, ...
5. Only if you allow him more freedom, ...
6. Don't consult the dictionary unless ...
7. If you will just take a look at these price lists, ...
8. Supposing the neighbours ... , what will you do?
9. OK, I ... if you will pay for the drinks.
10. I won't touch this new percolator — unless, of course ...
11. As long as you insist on keeping these pictures, ...
12. We'll just manage to meet the deadline if ...
13. You may go, provided ...
14. The company will not withhold your benefits unless ...
15. If you are really interested, ...
16. What if ... ?

B. Type 2 conditionals.

1. Assuming you had a long weekend, ... ?
2. Which books would you take with you ... ?
3. Were the Mayor to seek another term of office, ...
4. If I saw a house on fire, ...
5. If it were not for my family, ...
6. If we

should get lost in a forest, 7. If you would wish to order samples of our products, our sales representative 8. I wouldn't object if 9. If only she could 10. They wouldn't make allowances for your age even if 11. If you were to choose 12. Should the charges exceed fifty pounds, the trainee 13. If I was head of the English Department, I might

C. Type 3 conditionals.

1. If you had voted for Ms Roberts, she could 2. Had the company employed another public relations officer, last year's profits 3. Our rock group wouldn't have split up if... 4. If it hadn't been for the referee,.... 5. These manuscripts might have been put up for auction if 6. I wouldn't have married him even if 7. If only you had entered your name for the beauty contest 8. If the slide show had been accompanied by some kind of commentary ... 9. If I hadn't stepped back 10. My ancestors wouldn't have sold the estate if

D. Mixed type conditionals.

1. If the Beatles hadn't split up, 2. If it wasn't for his courage 3. I would've cancelled the conference 4. Had she behaved more prudently early in her career 5. We might not be able to use the fax machine today if 6. If only I knew how to ride a Harley-Davidson 7. If I were you.... 8. Your blouse would look nicer if 9. This vase would not be so expensive if it 10. We would have moved to the country long ago if 11. You could have established the dates more accurately if

Exercise 29. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use adverbial clauses of condition. Use inversion where necessary.

1. Please do take a seat and I'll bring you some iced tea. *If you*
2. Their partnership was doomed because of their mutual distrust. *Had* 3. I might miss my connection; if so I'll try to catch the first train tomorrow morning. *Should* 4. My brother didn't buy a fishbowl because our parents were against it. *If it* 5. She won't get married if her parents disapprove of the match. *Unless* 6. You probably won't have time — but I'd like you to come and see us. *If* 7. There was such a lot of traffic: that's why we're late. *Had* 8. She could give him the details, but it would upset him. *If* 9. If there should be any misunderstanding, contact our agent in Tilbury. *Were* 10. She's very tolerant, and that's why she hasn't left her tyrant of a master. *If it* 11. The goods will not be delivered unless you pay in advance. *Only if....* 12. I had a slight stomach upset, and that's why I stayed away. *If it* 13. If you happen to find a reference to this subject, let me know at once. *Should* 14. The road won't be opened next month unless construction work proceeds according to schedule. *Provided....* 15. But for his wife's connections he wouldn't have been so successful. *If I*

16. We do not consider the applications unless the candidates manage to meet the deadline. *Only if* 17. The injured men were saved because one of the eyewitnesses rendered them first aid. *If one* 18. I might ask for help; would they respond? *If I were*

Exercise 30. Translate these sentences into English, using adverbial clauses of condition:

1. Если окажется, что ваша фирма сочтет эти условия неприемлемыми, свяжитесь с нашим агентом. 2. Эту рукопись можно рекомендовать к опубликованию, при условии что автор исправит некоторые неточности. 3. Если бы эти гарантии были соблюдены, наша фирма осталась бы там, где всегда располагалась. 4. На твоем месте я бы опубликовал эти воспоминания. 5. Вы не сможете собрать всю требуемую информацию за столь короткий срок — разве что у вас есть доступ в Интернет. 6. Если бы не пораненная нога, я бы вас догнал (2 variants). 7. Если бы не мороз, я бы сейчас катался на лыжах в Кавголово (2 variants). 8. Если документ не подписан обеими сторонами, он не имеет силы. 9. Мы не сможем отправить вам эти журналы, если вы не пришлете нам чек. 10. Если бы не поддержка семьи, меня бы не избрали губернатором. 11. Если бы не ее ум, она бы не была доктором наук. 12. Если ты справишься с этой работой самостоятельно, тем лучше. 13. Вы не сможете взять машину напрокат, если не предъявите водительские права. 14. Если бы администрация сразу приняла необходимые меры, нам бы сейчас не пришлось вести эти переговоры. 15. Будь он моим братом, я бы все равно не стал ему помогать. 16. Будь он моим братом, я бы заставил его сказать всю правду. 17. Могу одолжить тебе эти словари, при условии что ты не будешь давать их другим студентам. 18. Если вдруг передумаешь — дай мне знать заблаговременно.

Exercise 31. Make up sentences with clauses of proportion based on the given statements. Begin with *THE + comparative*. More than one variant may be possible.

E x a m p l e:

If your salary goes up, the amount in tax also goes up.

⇒ *The more your salary goes up, the more you pay in tax.*

⇒ *The higher the salary, the more the amount in tax goes up.*

⇒ *The more you earn, the higher the tax.*

1. As I get older, I become more forgetful. 2. If the delinquent owns up soon, it will be better for all of us. 3. If an author doesn't have much to say, s/he will use numerous tricks of style. 4. If an actress is pretty, she has better chances of getting a part. 5. If you drive

fast, the trip will become increasingly dangerous. 6. She didn't spend much on clothes so that she was able to give more money to charity. 7. If the food is rich, it contains a lot of cholesterol. 8. The more expensive computers work better. 9. If the distance is short, it can be covered soon. 10. When the work became too demanding, we felt exhausted. 11. If she doesn't know much about his sins, they may stay married long enough. 12. When he didn't give enough facts, his arguments sounded weak.

Exercise 32. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use adverbial clauses of concession. Use inversion where necessary.

1. The building may look impressive from the outside, but it certainly needs to be overhauled. *However* 2. I shouted very loudly, yet I couldn't make myself heard above the roar of the engine. *No matter* 3. The speaker wouldn't use the accepted terminology though he was constantly interrupted. *Despite* 4. You may agree or disagree with this decision, but the original plan will have to be altered. *Whether* 5. The scheme may be ingenious, but it will never work in practice. *Ingenious* 6. They coped with the task brilliantly, though it had seemed much too difficult at first. *Considering* 7. All candidates, whoever might have recommended them, will have equal chances. *Regardless* 8. I respect your freedom of choice, but I would act differently. *Much* 9. She tried very hard, but she couldn't attain the required standard. *Try* 10. Much of the information was suppressed; nevertheless, the journalist managed to present a few indisputable facts. *In spite* 11. She rented a grand piano; her children would have been happier without it. *Even if* 12. It doesn't matter where you live — you will be notified well in advance. *Irrespective* 13. He could have paid his debts within a month, yet he kept on putting off doing so. *Whereas* 14. It was probably very nice, but I didn't like it. *Nice*

Exercise 33. Translate these sentences into English, using adverbial clauses of concession.

1. Неважно, сколько лет она проработала переводчицей — ее английский нельзя назвать беглым. 2. Какой бы из двух методов ни оказался более эффективным, у каждого из них есть определенные недостатки. 3. Хотя это и кажется невероятным, все рукописи писателя сохранились в неприкосновенности. 4. Чем бы ты ни занимался, не бросай живопись. 5. Как я ни старался, так и не смог выучить финский язык. 6. При том, как он стар, его здоровье просто великолепно. 7. Согласны мы с этими условиями или нет, нам придется пойти на уступки. 8. Сколько бы

статей о «Великой депрессии» я ни читал, мне не удается найти убедительный ответ на некоторые вопросы. 9. Когда бы ты ни пришел, буду рад тебя видеть. 10. Где бы вы ни оставили свой велосипед, он будет в целости и сохранности. 11. Любишь ты литературу Средних веков или нет — во втором семестре придется прочесть все книги по этому списку. 12. Как бы он ни любил свою жену, они не ладили. 13. Учитывая, что все участники соревнований очень молоды, результаты весьма впечатляющи. 14. Какие бы города мы ни посетили, я всегда буду вспоминать эту маленькую горную деревушку. 15. Как бы я ни уважала твое мнение, я допускаю, что и ты можешь быть неправ. 16. Что бы он ей ни говорил, она ничему не верила. 17. Каковы бы ни были твои резоны, ты не должен отказываться.

Exercise 34. Combine each pair of sentences so as to use an adverbial clause of purpose. Use the subordinators suggested.

1. I've been keeping a diary. I want you to know the facts (*so that*).
2. I don't want you to suspect me of telling lies. I've arranged for a video recording to be made (*lest*).
3. I'll show you his recent photo. You may want to meet him at the airport (*in case*).
4. Mrs. Nicholson kept her family jewels in a safe deposit. She wouldn't have her nephew tempted beyond his strength (*for fear that*).
5. He sent his daughter to study in Italy. He wanted her to gain firsthand experience of European culture (*in order that*).
6. She talked in a whisper. She didn't want the children to overhear her complaints (*so*).
7. I'll leave a message with his secretary. He may forget about our appointment (*in case*).
8. The agreement provided for every contingency. There was to be no misunderstanding about the details in the future (*so that*).
9. Each test-tube is carefully labeled. The new assistant oughtn't to be at a loss (*in case*).
10. I wore rather a shapeless trouser suit. I didn't want the men to start making comments on my figure (*for fear that*).
11. The government should pursue a balanced policy. Ethnic conflicts are to be avoided (*if*).

Exercise 35. Translate into English, using adverbial clauses of purpose.

1. Я запишу для вас свой номер телефона на тот случай, если вам понадобится консультация.
2. На случай, если мы приедем с опозданием, нужно предупредить членов комиссии.
3. Возьми словарь, чтобы не наделать ошибок в переводе.
4. Необходимы особые социальные программы, чтобы пожилые люди и инвалиды не чувствовали себя оторванными от жизни.
5. Новые модели уже включены в каталог, чтобы заказчики ознакомились с техническими характеристиками и ценами.
6. Он продал все

свои акции, чтобы они не достались его партнерам. 7. Давай купим билеты сейчас, на случай если перед спектаклем в кассе будет очередь. 8. Они разговаривали шепотом, чтобы соседи их не слышали. 9. Мы поставили будильник на 6 часов, чтобы не проспать. 10. Каждая глава сопровождается подробным комментарием, чтобы у студентов не возникало затруднений при чтении текста.

Exercise 36. Combine each pair of sentences so as to use an adverbial clause of result. Use the clues suggested.

1. Mandy's work was promising. She was offered a rise in salary (*so ... she*). 2. The bracelet was valuable. It was ensured at half a million dollars (*such a ... that*). 3. Her standard of knowledge was very high. The Dean recommended her to the Academic Council (*such that*). 4. The Ferrari drove very fast. The patrol car couldn't catch up with it (*so ... that*). 5. The theatre was filled to capacity. We had no chance of finding empty seats (*so that*). 6. She was reduced to desperate straits after her husband's death. She had to take her two sons out of school (*To such ...*). 7. Their disappointment was great. They left without saying a word (*So great ...*). 8. The author described his characters very vividly. Some of the readers took them for real persons (*so ... that*). 9. His table manners were simply awful. I didn't dare to look up (*so ... I*). 10. The researcher uses only the most reliable sources. Her conclusions are always valid (*so that*). 11. The boxes were handled rather carelessly. The consignment included a large amount of broken porcelain (*with the result that*).

Exercise 37. Translate these sentences into English, using adverbial clauses of reason, proportion and result.

1. Банк отказался дать нам кредит на том основании, что наши документы были недействительны. 2. Заглавие было изменено на том основании, что оно казалось слишком туманным. 3. Договор не был одобрен по той причине, что последняя статья требовала изменений. 4. Теперь, когда Тедди женат, он не сможет каждую субботу ходить в паб. 5. Поскольку в справочнике было несколько неточностей, его изъяли из обращения. 6. Раз уж ты выбрал профессию следователя, тебе придется часто работать по выходным. 7. Его успехи просто необыкновенны, тем более что он начал изучать язык позже других студентов. 8. Примеры латинских заимствований столь многочисленны, что их следует рассмотреть подробнее. 9. Ночь была морозной, так что все мои цветы погибли. 10. До такой степени неправдоподобными показались ему эти объяснения, что он решил расспросить соседей. 11. Чем усерднее он работает, тем меньше его ценят.

12. Чем ближе подходишь к морю, тем прохладнее воздух.
13. Что я такого сделала, что ты на меня кричишь? 14. В таком ужасном положении оказались эти несчастные семьи, что им пришлось продать все, что у них было. 15. До такой степени был он раздосадован моим молчанием, что стукнул кулаком по столу. 16. Чем дешевле товар, тем ниже может оказаться его качество. 17. Что я такого натворил, что они меня ненавидят? 18. Это был такой трудный экзамен, что только двое студентов сумели его сдать. 19. Экзамен оказался таким трудным, что только двое студентов сумели его сдать. 20. Чем лучше владеешь иностранным языком, тем больше можешь о нем узнать.

Exercise 38. Translate these sentences into Russian, using adverbial clauses of manner and comparison.

1. Она держится так, как будто она королева красоты. 2. Он прошел мимо, будто не заметил нас. 3. Он ведет себя так, словно купил этот отель. 4. Ты готовишь овощи именно так, как мне нравится. 5. Как птицы находят путь к своим гнездам, так и некоторые домашние животные возвращаются к дому хозяина за много миль. 6. Я учила своих детей читать точно так же, как мои родители учили меня. 7. Мы купили больше продуктов, чем требовалось. 8. Мария оказалась такой же прелестной девушкой, какой была ее мать в студенческие годы. 9. В результате этой акции было собрано меньше подписей, чем рассчитывали организаторы.

Exercise 39. Point out adverbial clauses, define their types and comment on the way they are introduced.

1. We were at a disadvantage in that we were outnumbered.
2. Please call me the moment the door closes on them. 3. Would you kindly repeat the figures so I can have everything right? 4. Much as you regret making that promise, there's no going back on your word now. 5. Supposing you aren't satisfied with this watch, will it be possible to exchange it? 6. The higher you climb, the more rarefied the air will become. 7. Every time I climb a tree, I scrape a leg or wound a knee. 8. Seeing that there are no vacancies, you'd better apply to another company. 9. Where I live, it is customary to ask neighbours to your garden parties. 10. It pays to study the events of the past since history has a habit of repeating itself. 11. Hop on a red bus and see London as Londoners see it. 12. He has booked a second-class cabin even if his wife would much rather travel first class. 13. I'll resign once I've fulfilled my obligations. 14. We will have to refine on our methods of advertising if we are to reach a wider public. 15. I'm feeling better now I've found myself a regular job. 16. Her first experience was so frustrating she didn't accept any film offers for two years.

17. I'll cash the check now in case we need some ready money. 18. She's engaged to a certain Dan Pearson, whoever he is. 19. You seem to have answered more letters than was humanly possible. 20. These colouring agents are still being used notwithstanding the fact that they require relatively expensive raw materials. 21. The way he talks, he might be an oracle! 22. The sublime and the ridiculous are often so nearly related that it is difficult to class them separately. 23. Two employees were denied promotion on the grounds that they had not completed a refresher course. 24. A fool can ask more questions than a wise man can answer. 25. As long as you are writing to your sister, say hello for me. 26. Tiptoe lest the guard should hear you.

Exercise 40. Paraphrase these sentences so as to use adverbial clauses. Begin as shown.

1. Immediately after Grandma's arrival things went wrong. *No....*
2. In spite of his being innocent, the judge passed a sentence. *Although he was not....* 3. Type more slowly and then you will have all the names right. *You would....* 4. We must recover the stolen goods at any cost. *Whatever it....* 5. Given better chances she might become an artist. *Should....* 6. During her journey from Edinburgh to Glasgow she had a fierce argument with her companion. *While....* 7. I wanted his advice badly, but I didn't dare to approach him. *Much....* 8. As he got increasingly angry, he spoke more loudly. *The....* 9. The moment I drew the curtain, I heard a bloodcurdling scream outside. *Hardly....* 10. But for the warning notice I might have run into the lamppost. *If it....* 11. He sold his oil shares fearing some loss in their value. *He sold his oil shares lest....* 12. Examination materials will not be designed until after the Board has agreed on the new marking system. *Only after....* 13. He was such an experienced and capable lawyer that he found the case trivial. *Such was....* 14. We hadn't expected such a good performance. *The performance was....* 15. In spite of her weakness, she tried to get up. *Weak....* 16. I'll book seats well in advance because there might be a rush to buy tickets before the concert. *I'll book seats well in advance in case....*

Exercise 41. Combine each pair of sentences into a complex sentence without reversing their order. Make changes of structure if necessary. Use various subordinators to introduce adverbial clauses.

E x a m p l e:

The driver will have to pay the damages. He may say anything.

⇒ *The driver will have to pay the damages, whatever/no matter what he says/may say/might say.*

1. You can keep my diskettes for a while. You won't lend them to anyone. 2. Our proposal was declined. It was irrelevant. 3. I gave the receptionist my card. She might misspell my surname. 4. Janet can't go. No one will baby-sit for her. 5. He sat down. A pretty waitress came up to him. 6. She is good-looking. She lacks charm. 7. The teacher explained the lesson well. Even Ben understood it. 8. Jack won the first game easily. He might have been playing tennis for years. 9. The firm refused to pay us \$1,000. The papers were not valid. 10. You are of age. You are responsible for your actions. 11. Put on a warm pullover. The night might be cold. 12. My son recited a French poem. I taught him. 13. I recognized your sister. I saw her. 14. Mrs Alexander will come early. We can show her the house. 15. Mark was furious. He started shouting. 16. She entered. She could smell something burning. 17. You will speak louder. More people will be able to hear you. 18. The price was quite low. We expected it to be higher.

Exercise 42. Complete each of the following sentences with the type of adverbial clause indicated in brackets.

1. We arranged to hire an image-maker ... (*purpose*). 2. Such was his state of mind ... (*result*). 3. As ... (*reason*), he can be depended upon to supervise the work. 4. As (*time*), I met my ex-husband. 5. We had a bird's eye view of the city from ... (*place*). 6. ... (*concession*), they can't afford the luxury of a country house. 7. The factory will close down ... (*condition*). 8. The class became unruly ... (*result*). 9. ... (*proportion*), the better he will be pleased. 10. The frosts in this area are nothing like as severe ... (*comparison*). 11. I was just finishing a second cup of coffee when he ... (*time*). 12. Why didn't you answer ... (*manner*)? 13. No ... (*concession*), he shouldn't have accused his wife in public. 14. They had hardly patched up their quarrel ... (*time*). 15. I haven't eaten Italian food ... (*time*). 16. Nowadays you are likely to find fast food restaurants ... (*place*). 17. All citizens have to pay taxes, whether ... (*concession*). 18. Since ... (*reason*), he wasn't admitted to college. 19. The agent overlooked an important point, with ... (*result*). 20. Should ... (*condition*), the terms of the agreement could be reconsidered.

Exercise 43. Analyse these multiple sentences with adverbial clauses.

1. She was sitting in the bay-window of the drawing-room, precisely as she had been sitting twenty-four hours previously, when whom should she see but Mr Bittenger? 2. When you have finished reading, put the book back where you found it. 3. Although, when he was living in England, he spent a lot of time in the country, he also

had to live in the town. 4. If I were you, I would agree, no matter what they might think. 5. As it was getting late, we decided to stay where we were. 6. The moment the boat cast off, I put on a life jacket in case we should capsize. 7. There was no demand for the new dictionary inasmuch as it contained a great deal less than any conventional dictionary ought to contain. 8. Regardless of how popular it was, this version was discarded for the reason that it had a harmful effect on the environment. 9. Read out the names as people come in, so that we can all hear. 10. If I can only remain ahead of the other runners, now that I'm first I can win the race! 11. Modest as she was, her professional standard was such that even leading specialists sought her advice. 12. Should you wish to make some extra money, you could always hire yourself out as a tourist guide, seeing that you know the city so well. 13. Larry had to room with a friend when he first went to college, until he could find a place for himself. 14. Although most of us frequently complain of lack of time, the streets are always lined with crowds when a procession is expected.

Exercise 44. Use the given subordinators in complex sentences of your own so as to introduce the structures indicated.

- If** a) an object clause;
 b) a type 2 conditional clause;
 c) an adverbial clause of purpose.

- Lest** a) a predicative clause;
 b) an adverbial clause of purpose.

- As** a) an adverbial clause of manner;
 b) an adverbial clause of time;
 c) an attributive clause;
 d) a parenthetical clause;
 e) an adverbial clause of reason;
 f) an adverbial clause of concession.

- When** a) an attributive clause;
 b) a subject clause;
 c) an object clause;
 d) a predicative clause;
 e) an adverbial clause of time.

- Whatever** a) an adverbial clause of concession;
 b) a subject clause;
 c) an object clause.

- Which** a) an attributive relative non-limiting continuative clause;
 b) an attributive relative limiting particularizing clause;
 c) a predicative clause.

- That** a) an attributive appositive clause;
 b) a subject clause.
- Since** a) an adverbial clause of reason;
 b) an adverbial clause of time.
- Considering** a) an adverbial clause of reason;
 b) an adverbial clause of concession.

15.3. The Compound-complex Sentence

Exercise 1. Analyse the following multiple sentences with nominal and adverbial clauses. Pay special attention to compound-complex sentences.

1. It is unfortunate, considering that enthusiasm moves the world, that so few enthusiasts can be trusted to speak the truth. 2. The letter sounds friendly enough, but if you read between the lines, you will see that he doesn't really welcome us to his home. 3. Everybody agrees that the speaker quite spoiled the effect by reading his speech from notes, so that he seemed insincere. 4. There is no resting on your laurels here; once one job is finished, we start on the next! 5. I'll take my daughters out of that school if what they say about their treatment is true. 6. Make sure that the bottle is completely rinsed out before you refill it. 7. Some people think that if a geologist could go to the centre of the earth, he would find it much denser and hotter there. 8. Most natural events can be reduced to a set of laws: what happens on one occasion will be repeated on other occasions where the conditions are the same. 9. I wouldn't enroll for the course unless I felt it would fulfill my needs. 10. Many months later I knew that what I had seen was a trick so naive that it was bound to be discovered. 11. Since this was a fashionable neighbourhood twenty years ago, his mother persisted in thinking that they did well to have an apartment in it, unaware that life was changing. 12. To think that I paid £20 for that coat when I could have got the same one for £15! 13. I am sure that if I had had to live continuously in London, I should have been crushed. 14. When a man falls into the water, it doesn't matter how he swims, well or badly, for he's got to get out or else he'll drown. 15. I don't mind what this manual costs so long as it's useful. 16. As soon as you get to the town, another bus will take you on to where you want to go.

Exercise 2. Use the given elements in compound and complex sentences of your own so as to introduce the structures indicated.

- However** a) an adversative coordinate clause;
 b) an adverbial clause of concession.

- While** a) an adversative coordinate clause;
b) an adverbial clause of time;
c) an adverbial clause of concession.
- So** a) a causative-consecutive coordinate clause;
b) an adverbial clause of purpose;
c) an adverbial clause of result with *so* as an endorsing item.

Exercise 3. Use the given structures in compound and complex sentences of your own.

I. Asyndetically joined subordinate clauses: a) a predicative clause; b) an attributive clause; c) a type 2 conditional clause d) an object clause.

II. Clauses with inverted word order: a) a main clause accompanied by an object clause; b) a main clause accompanied by an adverbial clause of result; c) an asyndetic coordinate clause; d) a copulative coordinate clause; e) an adverbial clause of concession; f) a type 3 conditional clause; g) a main clause accompanied by a type 1 conditional clause; h) a main clause accompanied by an adverbial clause of time.

III. Clauses employing various forms of the subjunctive mood: a) an attributive appositive clause; b) a predicative clause; c) a subject clause; d) an adverbial clause of purpose; e) a type 2 conditional sentence; f) an adverbial clause of concession; g) an adverbial clause of manner.

Exercise 4. Analyse these multiple sentences. Define the types of coordination and subordination, paying special attention to compound-complex sentences.

1. Considering that the parcel comprised a half-a-pound of Gorgonzola cheese, the smell which proceeded from the mysterious packing-case did not surprise Vera at all.
2. She changed the conversation as though it were a matter to which she attached little importance.
3. My first idea was that he had suddenly caught sight of some girl he knew, and I looked about to see who it was.
4. I cannot see that lectures can do so much good as reading the books from which the lectures are taken.
5. Women's faults are many; men's are only two: everything they say and everything they do.
6. It was clear that in this region the governor ran everything with a hard hand, for reasons that remained to Nigel quite mysterious.
7. Why you prefer this squalid room to your house in Chelsea and how you manage alone is more than I can see.
8. He was a sociable creature and didn't care to eat alone, so he looked around to see if there was anyone he knew.
9. I didn't think it sounded very comforting, but it was the only thing

I could think of. 10. She meant what she said, for she could never long endure any conversation of which she was not the chief subject. 11. I paid for what we had drunk, and we made our way to a cheap restaurant, crowded and gay, where we dined with pleasure. 12. What has disturbed me more than I can express is the information that he is engaged to my daughter. 13. The pilot now knew that he would be able to reach the South Pole, for there were no more mountains in sight. 14. He touched her shoulder but she didn't stir, so he knew she was awake. 15. It was the only meal she ate in the day, for she took great care of her figure, but she liked that one to be succulent and ample. 16. I wonder what the neighbours will say when they know that you have gone for ever? 17. This volume might, I feel, be fittingly described as a Companion, inasmuch as it contains both a good deal more and a great deal less than any conventional dictionary ought to contain. 18. Children aren't happy with nothing to ignore, and that's what parents were created for. 19. All I know about the bird is it's feathered and not furred. 20. Although I'll eat the strawberry when frozen, it's not the very berry I'd have chosen. 21. Home is the place where, when you have to go there, they have to take you in. 22. Before you fling off a remark like that, think what you're saying. 23. My people and I have come to an agreement which satisfies us both: they are to say what they please, and I'm to do what I please. 24. All you want to know is if she can tell you where to find Geraldine. 25. Whatever the children wanted had to be opposed by the nurse, whose gaze was never off their tiny figures. 26. This story is about Tony; therefore, I only want to introduce people whose actions affected Tony. 27. The sun was so high that a patch of light fell on Peter, which meant it was past noon.

Exercise 5. Analyse these multiple sentences. Define the types of coordination and subordination. Point out compound-complex sentences.

1. What I wondered most on my way home was how I had never seen Hector in the house and if it was true that he spent a lot of time with Wanda.
2. He was a man upon whom the good fairies seemed to have showered, as he lay in his cradle, all their most enviable gifts.
3. When I reached London I found waiting for me an urgent request that I should go to Mrs Strickland's as soon after dinner as I could.
4. Queues form for exhibitions, or for plays or films which have been much advertised; and special platforms are erected today so that those who are interested in watching modern buildings go up can gaze undisturbed for as long as they please, while busier people and the traffic hurry by.
5. If any of those people were asked to do something they disliked doing, the chances are that most of them would say that they were afraid they had no time to spare.
6. I never ceased

to be fascinated by their persistence in eating buttered toast with their gloves on, and I observed with admiration the unconcern with which they wiped their fingers on the chair when they thought no one was looking. 7. There might be talk afterwards, and if Tom has got to deny anything, it's better that he knows what he's denying. 8. I chose my wife as she did her wedding gown, not for a fine glossy surface, but such qualities as would wear well. 9. It was a clear day in June, and that it was a Monday I know from the fact that I was thinking with a happiness of Hugh Lederer, whom I had met in the church the day before. 10. I fear that the weakness of this story is that I am unable to explain the reason for the increase in Barrett's influence during the year I was away. 11. In confirmation of our cable to you today, a copy of which we enclose, we are pleased to say we have found what should be a suitable cargo vessel for your purpose. 12. When his son, who wanted to study in Britain, arrived in London, where it was very noisy, he went to live near Ken Wood. 13. If we are to consider the spoken word then, even the conversation of some two hundred years ago would be strange to modern ears, for words whose spelling has remained unchanged have often modified their pronunciation. 14. He gave me a number and I repeated it slowly enough to make out I was writing it down, which I wasn't. 15. I had not seen him for over five years; I was afraid that we would find the ties of our friendship broken, so that although we could feel our way confidently to the past, the present would be awkward. 16. Nigel realized as they went to bed that his son had made a journey of his own, one that few speak of and most do not recognize until years later. 17. Much as we should like to do business with you, we fear we cannot turn out natural dyes of reasonable quality at the price you ask. 18. He realized that Shakespeare would get him nowhere and that if he wanted to become a leading actor he must gain experience in modern plays. 19. What we are interested in, as author and reader, is the fact that publishing in Britain is now a part of big business. 20. Of course it was a relief that he was talking about her acting, but what he was saying was so ridiculous that, angry as she was, she had to laugh.

Exercise 6. Paraphrase these sentences without changing their meaning so as to produce compound or complex sentences.

1. I only heard the news of her engagement when I returned from my trip to Germany. *Not until*
2. She will work better if she is pressed for time. *The less*
3. It was his remarkable strength which enabled him to get better so quickly. *If it*
4. His chances of winning a gold medal are small. *It is not*
5. The patient did not recover his faculties until he had received a course of recreational

therapy. Only after 6. We will always pay tribute to our heroes when we get together at our meetings in the future. Whenever 7. I admire her achievements a great deal but as a person I loathe her. Much 8. It's because his work was criticized by the boss that he's feeling so upset. If 9. You should admit your guilt to the police. I'd sooner 10. Now she regrets having signed that contract. Now she wishes 11. I hate the stresses and pressures of modern life. What 12. Though he was quite young, everyone found him dependable. Young 13. Strangely enough, she feels sympathy for her worst enemy. It is 14. No matter how hard we tried, we could not move the chest. Try 15. The moment the speaker addressed the audience, a terrible noise came from the outside. Barely 16. The excitement of their victory was so great that they felt delirious. So 17. He apologized to the neighbours; besides, he assumed full liability for his son's debts. Not 18. She may well be talented, but she refuses to exhibit her paintings. No 19. The conference will not be convened until all abstracts have been submitted. Only when 20. As soon as the door closed on Mr Dunn, someone knocked again. No 21. Although your contribution may be modest, we look forward to receiving it. However 22. I would hate my son's talking about his disclosure. I'd much 23. Our library needs new air-conditioning units. What 24. We didn't suspect at that time that our summer cottage had been swept away by a tidal wave. Little 25. If you find a grain of truth in these accusations, I'll be very surprised. Should

Exercise 7. Analyse the following compound-complex sentences and translate them into Russian.

1. Helpers and servers she must have; accordingly, there was soon formed about her a little group of devoted disciples upon whose affections and energies she could implicitly rely. 2. The usual place of embarkation was half a mile from the house, but I had an intimate conviction that, wherever Flora might be, she was not near home. 3. There was humour in her face; but the curious watcher might ask himself, even as he heard the laughter and marked the jokes with which she cheered the spirits of her patients, what sort of sardonic merriment this same lady might not give vent to in the privacy of her chamber. 4. He had asked her several times to marry him, but though she was very fond of him she had refused as he was not reliable. 5. Children aren't happy with nothing to ignore, and that's what parents were created for. 6. I don't know if she cares about her looks at all: I fear she probably does, because her clothes, though hideous, are always elaborate and she wears a very bright red lipstick which makes her skin look pale. 7. Mrs Toms was certain he was in London, so after tea I decided to walk round. 8. That's what I call a fine pic-

ture; I have a right to say so, for I've copied it so often and so carefully that I could repeat it now with my eyes shut. 9. He sits sometimes for an hour without speaking a word, or else he talks away without stopping on art and nature, and beauty and duty, and fifty fine things that are all so much Latin to me. 10. They went to an hotel, where they stayed three months, and then they went to another hotel, explaining that they had left the first because they had waited and waited and couldn't get the rooms they wanted.