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I

Morphology



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Grāmata "English Grammar. Morphology" (I) un
"English Grammar. Practice" (II) domāta
universitātes jaunāko kursu studentiem gramatisko iemaņu
izkopšanai un tālākveidošanai, kā arī studentu komunikatīvo
prasmju attīstīšanai gramatikas jomā.

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PREFACE

The textbook “**English Grammar**” is intended for the junior students of the Daugavpils University. The aim of the book is to consolidate and develop students’ knowledge and skills in the use of English grammar forms and structures.

The book consists of two parts: “**Morphology**” and “**Practice**”.

Book I presents all English parts of speech, focusing on their categories and functions. The rules are illustrated with examples. Each chapter ends with *comprehension questions* to check students’ understanding.

Besides, the questions give students a better idea of the contents of the material presented and encourage them to reflect on it.

Book II (part 1 and 2) includes various exercises meant for developing students’ skills in the use of the grammar forms and structures described in Book I. The exercises are focused on the comprehension of the form, meaning and use of the grammar structures through reflection on the forms, their transformation and selection.

Besides, each unit of Book II has *translation exercises*, necessary for the comparison of the corresponding English and students’ native grammar constructions.

It is also important to relate each grammar construction to various communicative situations in which it may occur. Thus there are special *communicative exercises* at the end of each unit.

At the end of each section there are *revision exercises*, aimed at both consolidating and testing the material that has been presented in earlier chapters.

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MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is that part of grammar, which treats of the parts of speech and their inflexions, that is: the forms of number and case of nouns and pronouns; the forms of tense, mood, etc. of verbs, the forms of degrees of comparison of adjectives.

The Parts of Speech

According to their meaning, syntactical functions and morphological characteristics, words fall into certain classes called parts of speech.

The following parts of speech are commonly distinguished in English:

1. The noun: boy, book, snow, idea, history;
2. The adjective: old, good, large, nice, hot;
3. The pronoun: he, they, us, which, anybody;
4. The numeral: one, ten, thirty-one, second, fifth;
5. The verb: to live, to work, to do, to have;
6. The adverb: today, soon, there, always;
7. The preposition: in, at, for, during, with;
8. The conjunction: and, but, after, though;
9. The article: a, an, the;
10. The interjection: oh, ah, hush, hallo;

We distinguish between independent or notional (content) words and form words or function words.

Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verbs and adverbs are independent parts of speech, that is, they have independent meaning and function in the sentence.

Prepositions, conjunctions, articles are form words; they have no independent function in the sentence. They serve either to connect words or sentences (prepositions and conjunctions) or to specify or emphasize the meaning of words (particles).

A special place is occupied by modal words, words of affirmation and negation (yes/no), and interjections. These words do not enter into the structure of the sentence as parts of the sentence.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is morphology?
2. What parts of speech are commonly distinguished in English?
3. What do they differ in?
4. What is the difference between notional words and form words?
5. What words do not belong to the structure of the sentence?

THE NOUN

1. The noun is a part of speech which includes words denoting substances (individuals: a man, a woman; objects: a book, a tree) or certain facts or phenomena regarded as substances (qualities: kindness, strength; processes: conversation, writing; abstract notions: love).
2. The main syntactical functions of the noun in the sentence are those of the subject and object:

The student (subject) is reading *a book* (object).

Besides, a noun may also be used as:

a predicative: *She is a teacher*;

an attribute: *The student's answer was good*;

an adverbial modifier: *He was standing at the window*.

3. The noun is associated with the following form words:
 - a) the article: the house, a cat;
 - b) prepositions: in the house, about the film.
4. The noun has the following morphological characteristics (grammatical categories):
 - a) the category of number: singular and plural; a boy, boys.
 - b) the category of case: common and possessive; boy, boy's

But not all nouns have these two cases: the possessive case is, as a rule, used only with nouns denoting living beings.

As to the word building, nouns have some characteristic suffixes such as: **-ing, -er, -hood, -ship, -ment, -tion**, etc: building, worker, childhood, membership, conversation, government.

There are a great many compound nouns in English, such as newspaper, forget-me-not, postman, Englishman, etc.

Nouns are also often formed from other parts of speech by means of conversion: a run, a wash, a stop, a rest, ups and downs, etc.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the noun?
2. What are its main syntactical functions?
3. What words is the noun associated with?
4. What grammatical categories does the noun have?
5. What are the most characteristic suffixes of nouns?

Kinds of Nouns

Nouns are divided into:

- 1) common nouns: man, book, house, street;
- 2) proper nouns: London, Britain, October, Linda;
- 3) collective nouns: family, crew, company, nation;
- 4) nouns of material: iron, snow, air, water;
- 5) abstract nouns: love, friendship, kindness;

Gender

1. In Modern English there is no grammatical gender. The noun does not possess any special gender forms, neither does the accompanying adjective, pronoun or article indicate any gender agreement with the head-noun: a little boy, a little girl, a little dog.
2. What is still traditionally called gender in English is a division of nouns into four classes according to their lexical meaning: **masculine** (referred to as 'he') – names of male beings; **feminine** (referred to as 'she') – names of female beings; **neuter** (referred to as 'it') – names of lifeless things and abstract notions; **common** (words for human beings and animals that belong to either sex and are referred to either as 'he', 'she', or 'it').
 - Masculine:** father, brother, boy.
 - Feminine:** mother, sister, girl.
 - Neuter:** table, lamp, courage, water.
 - Common:** teacher, student, child, cousin, tiger, cat, dog.
3. Sometimes things and animals are personified and may be written with a capital letter. Then masculine and feminine pronouns (he, she) are used:
 - a) The stronger forces and objects are masculine: the sun, wind, love, thunder, death, elephant.
 - b) The gentler forces and objects are feminine: the moon, hope, hare, mouse, spring, peace.
 - c) The names of vessels (ship, boat, steamer) and other vehicles (carriage, coach, car), as well as the names of countries and cities are usually referred to as feminine

e.g.: France sent **her** representative to the conference.
Dublin is a modern city, proud of **her** past.
What a lovely ship! – What is **she** called?
4. The gender may be indicated in the following ways:
 - a) by a different word:

boy – girl man – woman
father – mother sister – brother

b) by adding a word:

boy-friend man-doctor
girl-friend woman-doctor
boy-cousin he-wolf
girl-cousin she-wolf

c) by adding **-ess** to the masculine:

actor – actress waiter – waitress
host – hostess tiger – tigress
poet – poetess lion – lioness

Note: hero – heroine

Comprehension Questions:

1. What groups are nouns divided into?
2. Why is the category of gender not grammatical in Modern English?
3. What are the four traditional classes of gender in English?
4. What are the rules referring to the gender of personified things and animals?
5. In what ways is the gender indicated in English?

Number

Number is the grammatical category of the noun, which can be either **singular**, naming one thing, or **plural**, naming more than one thing.

Common nouns and collective nouns are used in the singular and in the plural; proper nouns, nouns of material and abstract nouns are generally used in the singular.

The Formation of the Plural

1. The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding **-s** to the singular:
boy – boys, sister – sisters, window – windows
2. Nouns ending in **-s, -ss, -sh, -ch, -x** and **-z** form their plural by adding **-es** to the singular:
buses, glasses, bridges, boxes, bushes, churches
3. The ending **-s (-es)** is pronounced in 3 different ways:
[s] – if the nouns in the singular end in voiceless consonants: books, maps, skates
[z] – if the noun in the singular ends in voiceless consonants or vowels: plays

[Iz] – if the nouns in the singular end in sibilants [s], [z], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]:
faces, roses, bridges, bushes, pages, prizes

4. Nouns ending in **-o** preceded by a consonant take **-es** in the plural:
hero – heroes, Negro – Negroes, potato – potatoes,
tomato – tomatoes

But: video – videos, photo – photos, piano – pianos, solo – solos, radio –
radios, cuckoo – cuckoos, zoo – zoos, bamboo – bamboos

Double forms:

cargo – cargoes, cargos, volcano – volcanoes, volcanos

5. Nouns ending in **-y** preceded by a consonant change **-y** into **-i** and add **-es** in the plural:

country – countries, city – cities

But nouns ending in **-y** preceded by a vowel take only **-s** in the plural:

day – days, monkey – monkeys

Proper nouns ending in **-y** just add an **-s**:

Have you met the Kennedys?

6. Some nouns ending in **-f** or **-fe** change the **-f (-fe)** into **-v** and add **-es** in the plural:

leaf – leaves, half – halves, wolf – wolves, life – lives,
shelf – shelves, wife – wives, self – selves, loaf – loaves,
knife – knives, calf – calves

But: roof – roofs, chief – chiefs, handkerchief – handkerchiefs, cliff – cliffs,
cuff – cuffs, muff – muffs

The following nouns have **double forms**:

hoof – hoofs, hooves

scarf – scarfs, scarves

wharf – wharfs, wharves

7. Some nouns ending in [T], in spelling **-th**, change [T] into [D].

mouth [mauT] – mouths [mauDz]

path [pA:T] – paths [pA:Dz]

bath [bA:T] – baths [bA:Dz]

booth [bu:T] – booths [bu:Dz]

But: death [deT] – deaths [deTs]

Double forms:

truth [tru:T] – truths [tru:Ts], [tru:Dz]

youth [ju:T] – youth [ju:Ts], [ju:Dz]

Note: house [haus] – houses [ˈhaʊIz]

8. Some nouns are survivals of Old English plural forms; they form their plural by:

- a) changing the root-vowel
man – men, tooth – teeth, foot – feet, woman – women,
goose – geese, mouse – mice
 - b) adding **-en** to the singular:
brother – brethren, child – children, ox – oxen
9. In compound nouns the plural ending is generally added to the principal word:
- fellow-worker – fellow-workers
 - editor-in-chief – editors-in-chief
 - brother-in-law – brothers-in-law

But: forget-me-nots, merry-go-rounds

Sometimes both components take the plural:

- woman-journalist – women-journalists
- man-servant – men-servants

10. Compounds with **-man** change **-man** into **-men** in the plural:
postman – postmen, Englishman – Englishmen,
snowman – snowmen

But: German – Germans, Roman – Romans, Norman – Normans

11. If a proper noun is preceded by a title, the sign of the plural is added either to the title or to the proper noun itself; in colloquial speech it is usual to add **-s** to the proper noun; in formal speech the title is pluralized:

Colloquial: The two doctor Thomsons;
The Miss Smiths.

Formal: The Misses Smith

12. An adjectivized noun in attributive function is, as a rule, used in the singular even if the meaning is plural:

- a four-**storey** house, a five-**act** play, a six-**year**-old boy,
- a three-**mile** walk

There is, however, a growing tendency in recent times to use the plural form, especially in long official terms:

- a two-**thirds** majority; the food **products** department;
- the **sports** grounds; the United **Nations** Organization

In many instances where the form in **-s** is used it may be understood either as the plural form of the common case or as the plural possessive. Accordingly, the use of the apostrophe wavers:

- a) no apostrophe:

I enjoyed several **hours** sleep.

There is twenty **years** difference in their age.

- b) an apostrophe:

a five **years'** child, a two **months'** baby,

The Seven **Years'** War

13. Some nouns have the same (identical) form in the singular and in the plural:

a) names of some animals:

sheep – sheep *A sheep was grazing in the meadow.*

deer – deer *Some sheep were grazing in the*

swine – swine *meadow.*

b) The noun **fish** and nouns denoting some sorts of fish, such as **trout, cod, pike, salmon**

The fish were small and bony.

He caught several fish.

The White Sea abounds with cod.

To denote **kinds** of fish the form **fishes** is used:

There were lots of fishes in the net.

Note: the noun **fish** used in the meaning of **food**, not sea animal, is uncountable and it can be used only in the **singular**: There is too much fish for dinner today.

c) Names, indicating number, such as **dozen, pair, couple, score** (20), when they are preceded by a numeral: two **pair** of gloves; five **score** of eggs; three **dozen** of shirts.

But: They went **in pairs**.

I have told you this **dozens of times**.

d) The noun **foot** (measure of length) is **feet** in the plural. The singular form **foot** is used when followed by a number indicating inches.

He was **five feet** high.

The figure rose to its full length of five **foot ten**.

e) The noun **pound** (indicating money) has usually the **-s** plural except when followed by a numeral indicating shillings: two **pounds**.

But: two **pound ten** (£ 2.10)

f) The nouns **means, series, species**:

A series of interesting experiments has been made in our laboratory.

Two series of magazines were brought yesterday.

14. The plural of foreign words is often formed as in the foreign language:

antenna – antennae [ˈæn tenˈæ] – [ˈæn tenI:];

crisis – crises [ˈkraɪsɪs] – [ˈkraɪsɪ:z];

datum – data [ˈdeɪtəm] – [ˈdeɪtˈæ];

cactus – cacti, cactuses [ˈkæktʌs] – [ˈkæktəl];

formula – formulae [ˈfɔ:mju:lə] – [ˈfɔ:mju:lɪ:z];

analysis – analyses [ˈnælɪsɪs] – [ˈnælɪsɪ:z];

gladiolus – gladioli, gladioluses	[ˈɡl@dl̩.ʌl^s] – [ˈɡl@dl̩.ʌl@] – [ˈɡl@dl̩.ʌl^sɪz]
index – indices	[ˌɪndeks] – [ˌɪndɪsɪːz]
nucleus – nuclei	[ˌnjuːklɪ^s] – [ˌnjuːklɪ@]
oasis – oases	[^u eɪsɪs] – [^u eɪsɪːz]
phenomenon – phenomena	[fɪ nɔmɪn^n] – [fɪ nɔmɪn^]
radius – radii	[ˌreɪdl̩^s] – [ˌreɪdl̩@]
stimulus – stimuli	[ˌstɪmjul^s] – [ˌstɪmjul@]
terminus – termini	[tɜːmɪn^s] – [tɜːmɪn@]
narcissus – narcissi	[ˌnɑːsɪs^s] – [ˌnɑːsɪs@]
stratum – strata	[ˌstreɪt^m] – [ˌstreɪt^]

Words that are much used often have an English plural:
memorandums, formulas, indexes, terminuses

15. Some nouns having a plural ending take a verb in the singular:

news	No news is good news.
physics	Physics is difficult.
mathematics	Mathematics is his favourite subject.
politics	Politics does not interest me.
phonetics	English phonetics is not easy.
dominoes	Dominoes is a game.
draughts [drA:fts]	Draughts was played every day.
statistics	Statistics is a branch of economics.

They take a plural verb when the reference is specific:

Your statistics **are** unreliable.

His phonetics **are** excellent.

The acoustics of this hall **are** good.

16. Some nouns are called **unmarked plurals**, since they are singular in their form but plural in their meaning:

people Many people **were** present at the meeting.

But: a people – peoples means **national population(s)**

The peoples of the Arab World have a common language.

The Japanese are a hard-working people.

cattle The cattle **were** grazing in the meadow.

police The police **are** after him.

gentry The gentry **are** proud of themselves

military The military **are** punctual.

vermin **These** vermin **are** dangerous.

Nouns Used Only in the Singular or in the Plural

Some nouns are used only in the singular: **knowledge, information, advice, money, furniture, weather, strength, progress.**

Your **knowledge is** good.

Her **advice is** useful.

Some nouns are used only in the plural: **trousers, jeans, shorts, tights, scissors, spectacles, glasses, outskirts, contents.**

Where **are** my spectacles?

His clothes **were** wet.

Note: The noun '**wages**' is often used in the singular – **wage** – especially in the following combinations: a living wage, a fixed wage, a minimum wage.

Nouns Used in the Plural in a Special Sense

In some cases the plural form of the noun does not express plurality but acquires a special meaning. Very often the plural form may also retain the exact meaning of the singular thus resulting in two homonymous words:

colour – tint;

- colours – 1) plural of tint
- 2) flag

custom – habit;

- customs – 1) plural of habit
- 2) import duties, department of government that collects such duties.

damage – injury; damages – compensation for injury

pain – suffering, ache;

- pains – 1) plural of suffering
- 2) effort (No pains no gains)

spectacle – sight; spectacles – eye-glasses

quarter – fourth part;

- quarters – 1) plural of fourth part
- 2) lodgings

work – action, labour;

- works – 1) plant, factory (often treated as a sing. noun: The Iron Works produces iron).
- 2) product of the intellect or the imagination: the works of Shakespeare.

Double Plural Forms

Some nouns have two forms in the plural which are used differently:

- brother** 1) brothers (sons of the same mother);
2) brethren (members of one community);
- cloth** 1) cloths (kinds of cloth)
2) clothes (articles of clothing)
- penny** 1) pennies (coins)
2) pence (expresses value)

Countable and Uncountable Nouns

1. Countable nouns denote things that can be counted: a pen, a day, a book. They have both numbers – the singular and the plural:
a boy – boys; a task – tasks

Countables can be used with the indefinite article in the singular:

I bought **a book**.

They can be associated with the pronouns **some** (in the singular or plural), **many** and **few** (in the plural):

Give me **some** book to read.

She has too **many** errors in her test.

2. Uncountable nouns denote things, which cannot be counted: water, snow, bread, air. They are used only in the singular:

Iron **is** heavy.

Snow **is** white.

Uncountables require the zero article:

What cold **weather**!

They can be used with the pronouns **what**, **some**, **much** or **little**:

How **much** bread do you want?

There is **little** time left.

3. Some uncountables may become countables through a change or variation of meaning. This is found in the following instances:

- a) when they denote different sorts or instances:

There are many different **wines** on this list.

Three **teas** and two **coffees**, please.

Note: when a noun of material serves to denote an object made of that material, it becomes a common noun and thus becomes countable:

This vase is made of **glass**. (uncountable)

Give me a **glass** of water. (countable)

Iron is a metal. (uncountable)

She has bought two new **irons**. (countable)

- b) The noun **hair** is used in the singular.

Hairs is used only with the meaning of a few separate hairs:

His hair **is** black.

She has a few grey hairs.

- c) The noun **fruit** is used in the singular. The plural form **fruits** denotes different kinds of fruit:

We have much **fruit** this year.

Many **fruits** ripen now: apples, pears, plums.

- d) Abstract nouns become countables when they express concrete instances or special aspects of the notion which they denote:

The **joys** of childhood.

The **pleasures** of sport.

Note: When such nouns as **beauty**, **youth**, etc. do not denote abstract qualities but people, characterized by those qualities, they become common nouns and are used in both numbers, like countables:

This girl is **a** real **beauty**.

The youths are well-dressed.

- e) Sometimes nouns of material and abstract nouns are used in the plural with emphatic force:

The **sands** of the Sahara Desert.

The **blue waters** of the Mediterranean Sea.

A thousand **thanks**.

4. some countables can become uncountables. This is the case when:

- a) the name of an animal is used to denote its flesh used as food:

There **is** too much **fish** for dinner today.

We had **duck** for supper.

- b) the names of trees are used to indicate the corresponding kind of wood used as material:

The table is made of **oak**.

- c) the name of an object is used to denote substance, thus becoming the name of material:

I had **an egg** for breakfast. (countable)

There is **egg** on your coat. (uncountable)

Comprehension Questions:

1. Why is number the grammatical category of the noun?
2. What kinds of nouns are used both in the plural and in the singular (only in the singular)?
3. How is the plural of nouns generally formed?
4. How is the ending pronounced?

5. What are the spelling rules for nouns ending in **-y**, **-f**, **-fe** when they are used in the plural?
6. What is the plural form of the noun **house** in spelling/ pronunciation?
7. What are the irregular plural forms of nouns?
8. How is the plural of compound nouns generally formed?
9. How is the plural formed if a proper noun is preceded by a title?
10. What is the number of an adjectivized noun in attributive function?
11. What nouns have identical forms in the singular and in the plural?
12. What can you say about the plural of foreign words? Give examples.
13. What nouns with the plural ending are used in the singular?
14. What nouns are called **unmarked plurals**? Give examples.
15. What nouns are used only in the singular/ in the plural?
16. What nouns are used in the plural in a special sense?
17. What nouns have double plural forms?
18. What can you say about uncountables, which become countables and vice versa?

Case

Case is a grammatical category of English nouns since it is expressed with the help of inflexion.

In Old English there were the following four cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative. In Modern English nouns have only two cases:

- 1) the common case: father, mother, man;
- 2) the possessive case: father's, mother's, man's.

e.g. This is our **teacher's** bag.

In place of old case inflexions certain prepositions are used in Modern English to render some of the meanings expressed in other languages by genitive, dative, accusative and instrumental cases: **of**, **to**, **for**, **with**, **by**.

Thus the preposition **of** can be used to render some relations expressed by the genitive case in other languages: the leg **of** the table.

The prepositions **to** and **for** can indicate some relations of the dative case:

He gave the book **to** the boy.
He bought a book **for** his son.

The prepositions **by** and **with** can render some meanings of the instrumental case:

The errors were corrected **by** the teacher.
I usually write **with** a pen.

Besides prepositions, the fixed word order of the English sentence is also an important means of denoting the various syntactical functions of a

noun in a sentence: the subject usually precedes the predicate, whereas the direct object follows it.

The indirect object precedes the direct. A change of word order brings about a corresponding change of the syntactical relations and gives the sentence another meaning:

The teacher (subject) handed **the pupil** (indirect object) **his pen**. (direct object).

The pupil (subject) handed **the teacher** (indirect object) **his pen**. (direct object).

The Common Case

The common case in English is characterized by the zero-inflexion: **a girl, a child, a garden**.

The noun in the common case may have various functions in the sentence, which are defined syntactically by means of word order and prepositions.

Thus when a noun in the common case precedes the predicate, it is usually the subject of the sentence; when it follows the predicate, it is usually the direct object:

The women (subject) finished **their work** (object) and went home.

Placed after a link verb it is a predicative:

It was a bright sunny **morning**.

Placed between the transitive verb and its direct object, it is the indirect object:

She gave **the children** (indirect object) **some apples** (direct object).

Preceded by the preposition **to** the noun may be:

a) a prepositional indirect object:

She gave some apples **to the children**.

b) an adverbial modifier of place:

The children ran **to the river**.

When used with the preposition **by** it is a prepositional object:

The letter was written **by my mother**.

With the preposition **of** it may be an attribute to another noun:

The door **of the room** was locked.

Comprehension Questions:

1. Why is case a grammatical category of English nouns?
2. How many cases are there in Modern English? What are they?

3. What is the function of certain prepositions and word order in Modern English?
4. What are the functions of the prepositions **of, to, for, with, by**?
5. What is the place for a subject (direct and indirect object) in an English sentence?
6. How is the common case of nouns expressed in English?
7. What functions may a noun in the common case have in the sentence?

The Possessive Case

1. The possessive case represents in Modern English the old English genitive case but it is much narrower in its meaning and function. In old English the genitive case was freely used with all the nouns denoting living beings as well as with those denoting lifeless things.
2. In Modern English the use of the possessive case is restricted chiefly to nouns denoting living beings and its syntactical function is mainly that of an attribute:

The student's book is on the table.

The possessive case expresses possession with various shades of meaning:

the boy's book, **the boy's** head, **the boy's** mother.

The possessive case cannot express **genitive of composition**:
a group **of** children (not **a children's group**)

or **objective genitive**:

His drawings **of** children are very good.
(not **His children's** drawings are very good).

These relations are rendered in English by the *of*-phrase.

3. The possessive case in the singular is formed by adding **-s** (an apostrophe and **-s**) to the nouns:

the girl's dress, **Peter's** school.

The possessive case in the plural is formed by adding an apostrophe to the noun:

the girls' parents, **the students'** books.

If the plural noun does not end in **-s**, the possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe and **-s**:

children's books, **men's** clothes

-s (**'**) is added to the last element of a phrase:

uncle John's car, **Professor Smith's** lectures
Tom and Sarah's children, **someone else's** house

Note: There are three ways of pronouncing the possessive case ending:
[s] – after vowels and voiced consonants: girl's, teacher's
[z] – after voiceless consonants: aunt's, Pete's
[ɪz] – after sibilants: fox's, actress's, George's

When a proper noun ends in **-s**, only an apostrophe is usually added, but it is also correct to add **'s'**, in pronunciation the words may have an extra syllable:

R. Fox' [fɒksɪz] letters.

R. Burns' poems (or Burns's) [bɜːnzɪz].

Dickens' [dɪkɪnzɪz] novels.

It is also correct to pronounce [s]:

Yeats' [jeɪts] poetry.

Group – Possessive

The possessive case inflexion (**-s**) can be added to a whole group of words. In such cases the last element of the group may not even be a noun.

This is **Mary and Ann's** room.

I shall be back in **an hour or two's** time.

Have you read **the Prime Minister of England's** statement?

In the first example the group-possessive shows that two persons possess something in common. If it is otherwise, group-possessive is not used:

These are **Repin's** and **Levitan's** pictures.

The Omission of the Governing Noun

1. If the noun, which is modified by the possessive case, has already been mentioned and is clear from the context, it may be omitted:

It was not Peter's brother, but **Mary's**.

2. The noun modified by the possessive case is also often omitted when it denotes **house, shop, cathedral, place of business**, etc.:

I saw him at my **father's** (house).

Go to the **baker's** (shop).

Note: But after a possessive pronoun, the noun cannot be omitted:
We met at **his house**.

The Use of the Possessive Case

1. The possessive case is used with nouns denoting living beings (in all other cases the possessive case equivalent **of + common case** is used):
a boy's leg – the leg of a table
a man's foot – the foot of a mountain

Note: The of-phrase may be used instead of the possessive case with nouns denoting living beings as well:

The boy's mother has come.

The mother of the boy has come.

2. The possessive case may be used with nouns denoting lifeless things:
 - a) with nouns expressing **time, distance, weight**:
an hour's drive, a mile's distance, a five minutes' talk,
a ton's weight, yesterday's rain, today's newspaper
 - b) with names of **seasons, months, days**:
winter's day, December's night

But these nouns are generally used without any inflexion:

It was a dark **December** night

We met on a warm **summer** day.

- c) with the nouns **town, city, country, river, water, ocean, world**:
the town's business streets, the ocean's roar,
the wind's rustle, the country's summer camps
 - d) with **geographical names** and nouns denoting **groups of people, places where people live, institutions**, etc.:
Europe's future, London's streets,
The nation's needs, The ship's crew
 - e) with the nouns **sun, moon, earth**:
the sun's rays, the moon's shadow,
the earth's distance from the sun
 - f) with abstract nouns (especially in poetry):
duty's call, music's voice
 - g) in a few set-expressions:
to one's heart's content, at one's wit's end,
at one's fingers' ends, to a hair's breadth,
out of harm's way, for old acquaintance's sake,
for appearance's sake
3. To show possession with things **of-phrase** is used:
the leg of the table; the leaves of the tree.

However a **compound noun** is more preferable than **of-phrase**:
the table-leg.

When a compound noun is not possible of-phrase should be used:
the book of the film – not **the film's book**
the top of the box – not the **box's top**

When in doubt, it is better to use **of**.

4. The combination **of + possessive case** (a friend of my brother's) or **of + possessive pronoun** (a friend of mine) has usually partitive meaning, denoting **one of**.

This is sometimes called **Absolute Genitive Case**.

He is a friend of my brother's (one of my brother's friends).

It is a book of mine (one of my books).

It is a novel of Galsworthy's (one of his novels).

But: It is a novel **by** Galsworthy (a novel written by Galsworthy).

Sometimes the partitive meaning is lost and the construction acquires emotional force or becomes purely descriptive:

That brother **of mine** is looking for trouble.

That cottage of **my friend's** is surrounded by a beautiful garden.

Genitive Governing Another Genitive (Double Genitive)

If a genitive governs another genitive, the former is expressed in English by the of-phrase, the latter by the possessive case:

The room of my brother's wife.

The wedding of Brown's sister.

In American English, however, the use of the possessive of both nouns is possible:

Banker's wife's blues.

My son's wife's family.

Instances When the Possessive Case is not Used with the Nouns Denoting Living Beings

With nouns denoting living beings **the of-phrase** is used instead of the possessive case:

1. When the indefinite article or a pronoun precedes the governing noun:
There is **a** friend **of Macduff** who heard the angry expression.
These achievements **of the man** will never be forgotten.

2. When the governing noun has an attribute expressed by a noun with a preposition or a subordinate clause:
She is the sister **of the girl** with whom we went to school together.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the difference between Old English Genitive Case and Modern English Possessive Case?
2. How is the Possessive Case formed in the singular/plural?
3. What is the pronunciation of the Possessive Case inflexion?
4. How is group-possessive formed?
5. When is the governing noun omitted?
6. What nouns are generally used in the Possessive Case?
7. What nouns denoting lifeless things can be used in the Possessive Case?
8. What is the meaning of the combination **of + possessive**?
9. How is double genitive expressed in English?
10. When is the Possessive Case not used with nouns denoting living beings?

THE ARTICLE

The article is a form word of the noun, which serves to specify it. There are two articles in Modern English: the indefinite article and the definite article.

The **indefinite article** has the forms **a** or **an**. The form **a** is used before words beginning with a consonant: a **book**, a **house**.

The form **an** is used before words beginning with a vowel: an **apple**, an **orange**, an **hour**.

The Pronunciation of the Article

A is usually pronounced [ʌ] when unstressed and [eɪ] when stressed.

An is usually pronounced [ʌn] when unstressed and [ən] when stressed.

The use of **a** or **an** does not depend on spelling, but on the pronunciation of the following word:

a useful excursion, an M.P. [ɛmpI:] (a Member of Parliament),
an unhappy child, a university professor

The definite article **the** is pronounced [ðʌ] before a consonant and [ði] before a vowel:

The **man**, the **town**, the **old man**

When stressed, it is pronounced [ði:].

The Use of the Article (General Rules)

The **indefinite article** originated from the numeral **one**, that is why it is used only with the nouns in the singular. In the plural the indefinite article has the zero-form:

A drop of rain fell on my hand.

Drops of rain fell on my hand.

The **indefinite article** is used with common nouns in the singular if they are used in a general sense. It is used to refer a thing to a certain class and is therefore **a classifying article**:

Give me **a pencil**. (Some pencil or other, it does not matter which, any pencil will do; the speaker does not point out a particular object, but only indicates that it is one of a class).

A girl wants to see you. (The speaker merely informs that the person in question is one of those human beings whom we call **girls**).

The noun, which is used with the indefinite article may have a descriptive attribute. Such an attribute narrows the class to which the object denoted by the noun belongs but does not show that the speaker singles out one particular object within the narrowed class:

Give me **a red pencil**. (Any pencil out of the class of red pencils).

The definite article the is a weakened form of the Old English demonstrative pronoun (sç). The demonstrative force of the definite article is still felt in such expressions as:

nothing of the kind; at the time; under the circumstances;
for the purpose.

1. **The definite article** is used before a noun to show that in the mind of the speaker and the hearer the object denoted by the noun is marked as a definite object, distinct from all other objects of a class or group of objects. That is why the definite article is an **individualizing** or **limiting** article. It is used before nouns in the singular as well as in the plural:

Give me **the pencil**. (The speaker indicates that he has a definite pencil in mind, that one which is on the table, in the hand of the person addressed, etc.)

2. The use of a limiting attribute shows that the object denoted by the noun is singled out by the speaker from all objects of the same description and is therefore used with the definite article:

The key **to the box** is lost.

This is the spot **where we camped last year**.

3. The definite article is also used to refer back to an object which has already been mentioned:

A man wants to see you; **the man** has already called twice.

The absence of the article before nouns has **generalizing** force; it shows that we do not have in view an individual object belonging to a class of similar objects, but express more abstract, more general ideas. Thus we find the zero article with nouns used in a general sense, which are usually the names of materials (water, snow, bread), or the names of abstract notions (friendship, love, science):

Deep snow covered the ground.

What **fine weather** we are having today!

A noun with a zero article may have descriptive attributes, which narrow the meaning of the noun but do not affect the generalizing function of the zero articles.

This wardrobe is made of **hard polished** oak.

(Hard polished oak indicates a special sort of oak, but the noun remains a name of material and the zero article marks it).

Compare: It is **a real pleasure** to see you all again.

(Here the indefinite article is used to show that the noun **pleasure** denotes one of the concrete manifestations of the pleasure and thus is treated as a countable).

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the article? What is its function?
2. What forms has the indefinite article? When are they used?
3. What is the pronunciation of the definite article?
4. What is the origin of the indefinite/definite article?
5. When is the indefinite/definite/zero article generally used?

The Use of the Article with Different Classes of Nouns

Common Nouns

I

1. **The indefinite article** is used with common nouns in the singular if they are used in a general sense:
He saw **a man** in the street.
In the plural no article is used in this case:
He saw **men** in the street.
2. The indefinite article is used before a common noun in the singular when it is modified by a descriptive attribute, which can be expressed by:
 - a) an adjective
I like to draw with a **soft** pencil.
 - b) a noun with a preposition:
It is a book **of considerable interest**.
 - c) a participle phrase:
We walked along a path **winding among flowering bushes**.
 - d) an infinitive:
He is not a man **to desert his friends**.
 - e) an attributive clause:
We stopped before a cottage, **which was surrounded by a garden**.

II

1. **The definite article** is used with common nouns in the singular and in the plural when they denote definite objects distinct from all other objects of a certain class:
I thought I had shut **the door** (of the room) but it is still open.
The boys did not know where to go.
2. The definite article is used before common nouns modified by limiting attributes, which can be expressed by:
 - b) a noun with a preposition:
We stopped at the door **of the house**.
 - c) a subordinate attributive clause:
The book **I read** was very interesting.
 - d) a participle phrase:
The path **leading to the cottage** was narrow.
 - e) an adjective (when contrast or choice is implied):
Give me **the red** pencil (but not **the blue** one).
3. The definite article is used with common nouns to show that the speaker refers back to an object already mentioned:
I saw a shop in front of me. I stepped into **the shop**.

The Article with Generic Singulars and Plurals

1. The definite article is used with common nouns in the singular if the noun represents a whole class (generic singular). A certain class is contrasted here to other classes:
The horse is a useful domestic animal.
(**The horse** marks a particular class of domestic animals as distinct from other classes, such as the dog, the cow, etc).
The violet is a lovely flower.
- Note:** The nouns **man** and **woman** used in the singular in a generic sense have the zero article. They closely approach here the meaning of the abstract nouns **mankind** and **womankind**.
Woman should be equal to **man** in her rights.
2. Sometimes the indefinite article also serves to mark the generic use of a noun in the singular:
A horse is a useful domestic animal.
(Any horse – therefore the whole class, not contrasted to other classes).
 3. Nouns in the plural representing the whole class are used with the zero article.
Horses are useful domestic animals.

4. The definite article may serve to mark a generic plural with partially substantivized adjectives, such as: **the brave, the young, the old**, etc.

It is a home for **the blind**.

Note: The use of the definite article before the names of nations emphasizes the idea of collectiveness, the whole body of:

The Belgians live in Belgium.

But: Belgians can be found all over the globe. (The definite article is not used here, since the idea of collectiveness is not emphasized).

The Article with Nouns Considered to Be Unique

The definite article is used with common nouns, which denote things considered to be unique, such as **the earth, the sun, the moon, the world, the sky, the universe**:

The moon was slowly rising above the sea.

But we may also find unique nouns associated with the indefinite article. This takes place when we consider the different aspects in which the sun, the moon, etc., may appear; the noun is usually associated with a descriptive attribute indicating that special aspect:

A full moon, a brilliant red sun, a dark blue sky.

Note: In some set phrases **earth** is used with the zero article because the noun acquires abstract meaning:

What **on earth** do you want from me?

The Use of the Article in Some Syntactical Relations

1. The indefinite article is used before **a noun predicative**:
She is **a student**.
2. When **a noun predicative** indicating a rank, state, occupation, etc., has the zero article, it shows that the noun has acquired abstract meaning:

He is **rector** of our university.

The predicative usually acquires this meaning when the rank, state or occupation is unique:

He is **President** of the Academy of Sciences.

(Presidentship has been conferred on him).

3. The same abstract meaning is associated with **the noun predicative** in such instances as:

Her father, Robert Smith, was **son** of John Smith.

The abstract meaning of state, occupation, etc. is also implied in a noun predicative which has the zero article when the predicative is introduced by **as**:

He went on board ship **as cabin boy**.

4. When **the noun predicative** identifies the subject, that is, shows that the subject is the very person or thing expressed by the predicative, the latter is used with the definite article.

He is **the man** who brought the letter.

5. The indefinite article is used with **an apposition**, which denotes that the head noun is one of a class:

He recited 'The Song of the Shirt', **a poem** by Thomas Hood (one of the poems by this poet).

6. The definite article is used before **an apposition** when it refers to a well-known person:

'Romeo and Juliet' was written by W. Shakespeare, **the great English poet**.

Note: The definite article is used with a noun denoting profession, rank, etc., when it is followed by an appositive proper name:

The composer B. Britten

7. We find the zero article with **an apposition**, which denotes title, dignity or rank because here the appositive noun acquires the same abstract meaning as a noun predicative indicating state or rank:

This dictionary was compiled by D. Jones, **professor of phonetics** in the University of London.

8. Nouns denoting title, rank or dignity have the zero article when these nouns follow the nouns **rank, title**, etc., **as appositive of-phrases**:

The University conferred the dignity of **Doctor** on the celebrated scientist.

9. **The homogeneous parts of a sentence** expressed by common nouns sometimes have the zero article in lively speech:

Rider and **bicycle, cart** and **horse** were all in a heap (it was impossible to distinguish the separate objects in the collision).

10. The indefinite article is used with common nouns in **exclamatory sentences** with the exclamatory **what**:

What a lovely morning it was!

Notes: a) Some uncountables have the zero article in this case:

What nasty weather we are having today!

b) In **interrogative sentences** beginning with **what** nouns have the zero article:

What book are you reading?

11. We find the zero article in **adverbial prepositional phrases** where the nouns have acquired abstract meaning of state, position, manner, etc., such as: by land, on shore, at sea, on deck, by train, etc.
Peter has gone **to sea** – he is a sailor.
- But:** In summer I shall go **to the sea**. (Here the noun **sea** has its concrete meaning).
12. Some **prepositional set-expressions** connected with the parts of the body have the same abstract adverbial meaning marked by the zero article:
by hand, at hand, on foot, from head to foot, from top to toe, etc.: He copied it all **by hand**.
13. We find the zero article in **repetition groups: hand in hand, day by day, day in day out, arm in arm, from tree to tree**, etc.:
They went **hand in hand** across the field.
14. We find the zero article in **independent constructions** used as adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances:
He stood on deck, **pipe in mouth**.
15. The indefinite article is used with common nouns in the singular after the introductory **there**:
There is **a cupboard** in the kitchen.

Comprehension Questions:

1. When is the indefinite/definite/zero article used with common nouns?
2. What can a descriptive/limiting attribute be expressed by? What is the difference in their meanings?
3. When is the indefinite/definite/zero article used with generic nouns?
4. What articles are used with nouns considered to be unique?
5. What are the main syntactical relations for nouns? What articles are used with them?

Nouns of Material

1. Nouns of material have the zero article when they are used in a general sense, as uncountables. In this case they have either no attribute whatsoever or a descriptive attribute:
Snow is white.
It is very pleasant to ski on **hard** snow.
2. The definite article is used with nouns of material when they are narrowed in their meaning. This narrowing of meaning is shown by the context or the whole situation:
Pass me **the sugar**, please (which is on the table).

Sometimes a limiting attribute is used to show that the meaning of the noun is narrowed:

The water of this lake is very cold.

Note: In some cases both the definite and the zero article may be used:

By doing so you would raise **(the) dust** in the room.

3. The indefinite article may be used with nouns of material when they denote different sorts. In such a case they become countable nouns:

It is **a very rare wine**.

The definite article may also be used if the noun denotes different sorts.

The wines of Spain are excellent.

4. When a noun of material serves to denote an object made of that material, it turns into a common (countable) noun and may accordingly be used with the definite or indefinite article:

Could you bring me **a glass** of water, please?

Comprehension Questions:

1. What article is generally used with nouns of material?
2. What indicates the use of the definite article with these nouns?
3. When is it possible to use the indefinite article with the nouns of material?

Abstract Nouns

1. Abstract nouns have the zero article when they express abstract notions in a general sense. In this case they belong to the group of uncountable nouns:

Science is progressing in this country.

What interesting **work!** (uncountable)

But: What **an** interesting **job!** (countable)

2. The definite article is used with abstract nouns when they are narrowed in their meaning. Very often a limiting attribute is used in this case:

Phonetics is **the science of sounds**.

3. The indefinite article is used with abstract nouns when they express concrete instances or special aspects of the notion, which they denote. In such cases they belong to countable nouns:

A loud noise was heard.

A descriptive attribute is often used then.

4. A number of abstract nouns are usually treated as countables and used with the definite or the indefinite article according to the general rules of the use of these articles:

A warm expression appeared in her face.

The expression struck me.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What article is generally used with abstract nouns?
2. What article is used when they are narrowed in their meaning?
3. When is it possible to use the indefinite article with abstract nouns?

The Use of the Article with Some Groups of Abstract Nouns

I

1. The definite article is used with the nouns denoting the parts of the day: **the morning, the day, the night**:

The day was sunny.

We met **in the evening**.

2. When the nouns **day, night, noon, etc.**, express the abstract idea of time but not the parts of the day, they have the zero article. This meaning is found:

- a) in the prepositional phrases: **by day, by night, at noon**.

He arrived **at night**.

Sometimes both the zero and the indefinite article may be found, depending on the meaning implied:

We reached the village towards **evening** (time).

We reached the village towards **the evening** (a certain part of the day).

- b) When the nouns **day, morning, night, etc.**, are used predicatively:

It was early **morning**.

3. These nouns have also the zero article when **day** or **morning** means **light** and **evening** or **night-darkness**:

When **evening** (dusk, night) fell they made camp on the bank of the river.

4. When the nouns **day, evening, night, etc.**, have a descriptive attribute, they are used with the indefinite article:

We met on **a bright sunny day** (on one of the bright sunny days of the year).

II

1. The names of the meals (**dinner, breakfast, lunch, supper, tea**), have the zero article when they are treated as abstract nouns used in a general sense:

When **tea** was ready we were called downstairs.

Call me when **supper** is ready.

2. The definite or the indefinite article is used with these nouns when the contents of the meal or a definite meal is meant:

The dinners are very good here.

The lunch costs three shillings.

We have had **a very good dinner**.

III

1. The nouns **school, college, market, prison, jail, court, hospital, camp, bed, table** have the zero article when they are treated as abstract nouns and denote the state or activities associated with these places or the aim they serve. This is usually the case when these nouns are associated with the prepositions **at, after, in, to, from**:

My children are **at school** now (are being taught by their teacher).

He made **camp** when it was dark.

She is still **in bed**.

He was taken **to hospital**.

2. But when the nouns **school, college**, etc., are used in their original meaning and indicate a particular institution, a concrete building or object, they are used with the definite or the indefinite article:

He was headmaster of **the school** where I studied.

It is **a very good school**.

Note: The words **university** and **institute** always take the article like other singular common nouns:

He is **at the university**.

But: He is **at school**. She has gone **to school**.

IV

1. We find the zero article with the noun **town** preceded by a preposition when the abstract idea of town life is implied:

They live in **town**, not in the country.

She is from **town**.

But: When the noun **town** is used in its original concrete meaning it may be associated with the definite or indefinite article:

The town, where we live, is situated on the River Daugava.

She lives in **a little town** in the north.

2. The names of languages have the zero article:

He speaks **English** and **German**.

The definite article is used:

a) when the names are followed by the noun **language**:

She speaks **the English language**.

- b) in some phrases:
What is **the English** for '5'?

Proper Nouns

1. Proper nouns have the zero article because they are unique names and mark a particular person or thing:

London is the capital of Britain.

Jane comes from **Australia**.

- Notes:** 1) a proper name of a person is used as a common noun when applied to some other person, possessing one or more of the most characteristic qualities of the bearer of that name. In this sense it may be associated with both the definite and indefinite article, depending on the context:

He was **the Byron** of his age.

He has the humour of **a Dickens**.

- 2) a proper name of a person sometimes turns into a regular common noun when it denotes a thing or object made or invented by this person:

He drove **a Ford** (a car).

She wore **a grey mackintosh** (a raincoat).

I like **sandwiches**.

- 3) a proper name also becomes a common noun when the name of a painter, writer, etc., is used to denote his/her work:

It is **a Rubens**.

The Van Dyke spoken about is in the museum.

2. The definite article is used before the names of persons in the plural if they denote a whole family. The indefinite article is used to denote one member of the family:

The Jacksons will come to see us tonight.

She has married **a Jackson**.

The definite article is also used before proper names when they have a limiting attribute:

The John whom I met yesterday was not **the John** with whom we were at school together.

The same refers to geographical names:

The street reminded one of **the London**, which Dickens described in his novels.

3. The proper name of a person is also used with the definite article when it has an attribute showing the person in a particular state or mood, or giving it a permanent characteristic:

The frightened Mary cried for help.

The curious John was eager to hear the news.

Note: When the attribute is closely connected with the noun and has emotional colouring, the noun has the zero article. Such adjectives as **young, old, little, poor, dear, honest** often form close groups with the noun they modify:

Poor Tom was often in trouble.

It was pleasant to see **dear little Dot** again.

But: the definite article is used when a limiting attribute follows the name of a person preceded by one of the above-mentioned adjectives:

He was never to see again **the poor Dick of his schooldays**.

4. Nouns in direct address have the zero article as the noun also becomes here a kind of proper name:

Come here, **child**.

Is there any hope, **doctor**?

5. When nouns indicating relationship, such as **father, mother, sister, brother, etc.**, are used by the members of the family or by intimate friends, they are treated as proper names and have the zero article:

Has **Father** come home?

Mother has gone shopping.

6. The definite article is used with the names of ships, hotels, newspapers (but not magazines or periodicals):

The Titanic was a marvellous boat.

It was **the Union Hotel**.

Have you read **the Baltic Times**?

But: Have you read the latest issue of '**Time**'?

It was published in '**New Scientist**'.

7. The definite article is used with the names of:

a) the following countries: the USA, the U.K., the West Indies, the Netherlands, the Ukraine, the Crimea;

b) the cities: the Hague;

c) the provinces: the Ruhr, the Riviera;

d) the groups of islands: the Canaries, the Hebrides;

e) the names of deserts: the Sahara, the Gobi.

8. The definite article is used with the names of chains of mountains:

the Alps, the Caucasus.

Single mountain peaks have the zero article:

Mont Blanc is the highest peak of the Alps.

Note: the North Cape, the Cape of Good Hope;

But: Cape Horn, Cape Cod.

9. The definite article is used with the names of oceans and seas, rivers, straits, channels and bays:
The Baltic Sea is stormy in winter.
The English Channel separates Britain from the Continent.
But: The zero article is found when the word **lake** precedes the name:
Lake Razna is the biggest in Latvia.
10. Compound names of places, monuments, etc., the first part of which is a proper name, and the second, a common noun, have the zero article:
 London Bridge, Hyde Park, Kensington Gardens.
11. The definite article is used with the names of buildings:
 The Tower, the Kremlin, the Hermitage, the Red Square,
 the British Museum, the Daugavpils University.
But: Cambridge/ Oxford University
12. The names of streets have the zero article:
 Oxford Street, Wall Street
But: the Strand, the Mall, the High Street
13. The definite article is used before the names of the four cardinal points – the North, the South, the West, the East:
 We spent our summer vacations in **the South**.
But: The names of cardinal points have the zero article when they are used adverbially, indicating direction:
 They sailed **north**. Go **west**.
 We crossed the country from **east to west**.
14. The names of seasons, months and days have the zero article. The definite article is used with these names when there is a limiting attribute pointing to a definite season, month or day:
In winter the sun sets much earlier than **in summer**.
The winter of 1812 was very severe.
Note: the definite article is often used in connection with the prepositions **in** and **during**:
 We take long boat trips **in the autumn**.

The Place of the Article

1. The article is generally placed before the noun or its attribute:
 I'm reading a newspaper **article**.
2. In the following cases the article is placed after the attribute:
 - a) the definite article follows the pronouns **all** and **both**:
All the students were present.
 I have to read **both the books** you mentioned.

- b) the indefinite article follows the demonstrative pronoun **such** and the exclamatory **what**:
It's **such an** interesting **story!**
What a beautiful **necklace!**
- c) the indefinite article is placed between an adjective used as an attribute and its noun if the adjective is preceded by one of the following adverbs: as, so, too, how:
So beautiful a tree should not be destroyed.
It is **too difficult a task** to be done in **so short a time**.
- d) both articles are used after **half**:
I spent **half the morning** in packing.
I bought **half a basket** of eggs.

Note: If **half** forms a compound with some nouns, the article is put before the compound or its attribute:
He promised us **a half-holiday**.
The first **half-hour** passed.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What articles are used with the nouns denoting parts of the day? When? Give examples.
2. What articles are used with the names of meals?
3. What articles are used with the nouns **school, college, university, market, prison, court, hospital, camp, bed, table, town**?
4. What can you say about the use of the articles with proper nouns?
5. What can you say about the place of articles?

THE ADJECTIVE

1. The adjective is a part of speech, which expresses the attribute to substances and answers the question **what (kind of)**: a **good** book, a **difficult** question.
2. The main syntactical function of an adjective in the sentence is that of an attribute:

She is a **good** student.

The adjective may also be used as a predicative in a nominal compound predicate:

The morning was **frosty**.

I am **cold**.

The adjective can be modified by an adverb, which has the syntactical function of an adverbial modifier to the adjective:

It is **rather warm** today.

3. In Old English adjectives were inflected for case, number and gender, agreeing with the noun they modified. But in the course of time these inflexions were levelled to -e and finally disappeared (at the end of the Middle English period, 1400–1500). Thus in Modern English adjectives have no inflexions of case, number or gender.
4. Many adjectives related to verbs or nouns have characteristic suffixes and prefixes:

He is a **famous** writer.

His remark was **discouraging**.

-able (capable of being)	remarkable, manageable
-ful (full of)	helpful, boastful
-ic	energetic, Hispanic
-ive (capable of being)	attractive
-ant	hesitant
-(i)an (historical period, etc.)	Victorian
-ish (have the quality of)	foolish, reddish
-ly (have this quality)	friendly
-ous	humorous, famous

A prefix added to an adjective generally has a negative effect:

I think it is **impossible** to solve the problem.

un-	unprepared, uncooked
in-	inhuman, incapable
il-	illegal, illiterate
im-	immoral, impractical

dis- dishonest, disappointing

ir- irregular, irresistible

Prefixes **pre-** (pre-war) and **hyper-** (hyperactive) do not create opposites but modify the meaning of the word in some way.

5. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are written with a capital letter:
Britain – British
Europe – European
6. There are compound adjectives, written with hyphens:
A ten-year-old boy.

Compound adjectives of this kind can refer to:

age a three-year-old building

volume a two-litre-can

length a twelve-inch-ruler

price a fifty-dollar-dress

weight a five-kilo bag

area a fifty-acre farm

duration a four-hour meeting

depth a six-foot hole

time/distance a ten-minute walk

Numbers are combined with nouns in the singular here. Compounds of this kind are more preferable than phrases with **of**:
a man of twenty years.

7. According to their meaning and grammatical characteristics, adjectives are divided into:
 - a) **qualitative** adjectives – big, small, dry, clean
 - b) **relative** adjectives – iron, wooden, cotton

Qualitative adjectives denote size, shape, colour, etc., which an object may possess in various degrees. Therefore qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison:

My room is **large**, but yours is still **larger**.

Relative adjectives express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object:

Wollen gloves (gloves made of wool)

Relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison. In English the number of relative adjectives is limited. There is no hard and fast line of demarcation between qualitative and relative adjectives. A relative adjective may acquire the meaning of a qualitative one:

a silver watch (relative)

a silver stream (qualitative)

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the adjective?
2. What are its syntactical functions?
3. When were the inflexions of case, number and gender dropped?
4. What are the characteristic suffixes and prefixes of adjectives?
5. What adjectives are:
 - a) written with a capital letter;
 - b) hyphenated?
6. What groups are adjectives divided into? Define them.
7. Which of them have no degrees of comparison?

Comparison of Adjectives

1. Most adjectives have their degrees of comparison: **the positive** degree, **the comparative** degree and **the superlative** degree:
strong – stronger – strongest
difficult – more difficult – most difficult
2. There are two ways of forming the comparative and superlative degrees:
 - a) by adding **-er** and **-est** to the positive degree:
old – older – oldest
 - b) by adding **more** and **most**:
interesting – more interesting – most interesting

Adjectives in the superlative degree always imply limitation and thus a noun with the adjective in the superlative degree has the definite article.

He is **the tallest boy** in the group.

The indefinite article with the adjective in the superlative degree implies the meaning of **very**:

Compare:

This is **a** most interesting book (a very interesting book).

This is **the** most interesting book I have read.

Notice the use of the definite article with a comparative when followed by an of-phrase:

He is **the taller** of the two.

3. The following adjectives form their degrees of comparison by adding **-er** and **-est**:
 - a) all adjectives of one syllable:
tall – taller – tallest
 - b) the adjectives of two syllables ending in **-y**, **-er**, **-ow**, **-ble**:

happy – happier – happiest clever – cleverer – cleverest

narrow – narrower – narrowest able – abler – ablest

- c) the adjectives of two syllables which have the stress on the last syllable:

complete – completer – completest

severe – severer – severest

Note: When the style requires, all these adjectives may form their degrees of comparison by adding **more** and **most**:

The day is **more bright** and **beautiful** today than it was yesterday.

I am getting **more** and **more happy**.

4. Most adjectives of two syllables, adjectives developed from participles and adjectives used only predicatively form their degrees of comparison by adding **more** and **most**:

Please, be **more careful**.

She is **the most charming** girl I have seen.

Adjectives of three and more syllables form their degrees by adding **more** and **most**:

important – **more** important – **most** important

5. A few adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison:

good – better – best bad – worse – worst

much/many – more – most little – less – least

6. In compound adjectives the first element is compared by means of the inflexion **-er**, **-est**, as long as the two elements preserve their separate meaning:

Well-known, better-known, best known

But forms with **more** and **most** are also used:

Far-fetched, more far-fetched, most far-fetched.

A **better** and **more kind-hearted** man does not exist.

Remember that:

- a) relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison:

dead, round, daily, monthly, yearly, main, chief, European, synthetic, perfect, principal, greenish, English, northern, preparatory, etc.

- b) some adjectives are used only predicatively:

afraid, alone, asleep, awake, alive, well, sorry, etc.:

I am **well**. He was not **afraid**.

7. **Spelling rules:**

- a) If the adjective ends in a consonant preceded by a short vowel, the consonant is doubled before **-er** and **-est**:

Big – bigger – biggest Hot – hotter – hottest

- b) If the adjective ends in **-y** preceded by a consonant, **-y** is changed into **-i** before **-er** and **-est**:
Happy – happier – happiest

8. **Double Forms of Comparison.**

A few adjectives have double forms in the comparative and superlative, different in meaning:

far – farther – farthest / further – furthest

latter – last / late – later – latest

elder – eldest / old – older – oldest

near – nearer – nearest, next

- a) **farther – farthest/further – furthest** – are used with reference to distance, but only **further** is used to express that something will follow (succession).

The school is at the **farthest (furthest)** end of the village (distance).

Further discussion will follow (succession)

Further details are unnecessary (additional)

- b) **nearest** refers to distance, **next** is used when order/succession is meant:

The nearest village is two miles away (at the shortest distance).

The next village will be mine (immediately following another).

- c) **late** and **later** refer to time. **Latest** has also the meaning of **most recent**. **Latter** and **last** are used with reference to order: This is **the latest** news. (We expect to hear more).

The last news of him came too late. (We heard no more of him).

John and Peter are two of our pupils; **the former** is a boy of ten, **the latter**, a boy of twelve.

- d) **older** and **oldest** denote age and long duration:

She is **older** than you. It is **the oldest** building.

Elder and **eldest** are used to distinguish members of the same family, also when speaking of people higher in rank and authority. **Elder** is never followed by **than**:

My **elder** brother is six years **older** than I am.

He is the **eldest** and the most respected member of our team.

Elder can be used as a noun:

They are our **elders**.

He is the **elder** of the two brothers.

She is **the eldest** of the three sisters.

Notes:

- 1) the adjectives **less** and **least** are used with nouns of material and abstract nouns (uncountables):

The **least** noise makes him nervous.

There is **less** water in this stream now.

With common nouns (countables) **smaller** and **smallest** are used:

I want to show you my **little** dog. It's the **smallest** dog in the whole world.

- 2) **less** is formed from **less**, but it is not a true comparative. It cannot be followed by **than**. **Lesser** means **not so great** and it is used in fixed phrases like **the lesser evils**.

- 3) When the noun is taken in a general sense, the zero article is used before **most**:

Most sand is yellow.

Most leaves are green.

When the statement is made about a considerable majority, **most** is followed by an of-phrase:

Most of the sand is quite wet.

Most of his mistakes are grammar.

But when the highest degree of some quality is expressed, **most** should be preceded by the definite article:

In summer we have **the most** thunderstorms.

9. Comparison in Sentences.

Comparison is expressed in the following sentence patterns:

- b) as ... as

John is as old as Pete.

- c) not so ... as

My task is **not so easy as** yours.

- d) than

He is much stronger **than** I/me.

Notes:

- 1) When two things are compared, the word **other** is sometimes used with the name of the second object to make the expression more precise:

His study is larger than any **other** room in the house.

- 2) In the superlative degree **all** is used, as in:

This is the finest picture of **all**.

- 3) Comparatives are intensified by means of

- a) repetition:

The light grew **fainter** and **fainter**.

- b) such words and phrases as **far, still, much, a great deal of**, etc.:
He was **far more** than a translator.
It is a **still more** difficult task now than it used to be.
- c) the superlative degree is emphasized by placing **very, by far**, etc. before the superlative, or by means of the adjectives **possible, imaginable**, etc., placed after the noun:
It is the best means **possible**.
He is **by far** the best student in our group.

10. Substantivized Adjectives.

These are adjectives used as nouns. In Modern English the use of substantivized adjectives is limited. They are:

- a) wholly substantivized, acquiring all the characteristics of nouns – plural and the possessive case inflexions:
a native, two natives, the native's hut.
- b) partially substantivized – taking only the definite article but being not inflected for the plural or the possessive case:
the young, the old, the future

Notes:

- 1) Some adjectives fully converted into nouns are used only in the plural: goods, greens, sweets, valuables, movables:
A man has come with a truck of **greens**.
- 2) names of colours also belong to wholly substantivized adjectives. When used in general sense, they are treated as uncountables; when denoting shades of colours, they are treated as countables and may be used with the indefinite article and in the plural:
Blue suits you best.
The sky was a pale **blue**.
The trees in the garden were turning **yellows** and **browns**.
- 3) some partially substantivized adjectives are used with a singular meaning in the following set prepositional phrases:
to answer in the affirmative/in the negative
to touch one's heart to the quick on the whole
to sleep in the open in the dead of night
to be out of the usual to leave for good
all of a sudden in the main
in short in general
- 4) a comparative is substantivized in the phrases:
to get the better of something, a change for the better

- 5) superlatives are substantivized in the following expressions:
It is all for the best.
He was at his best.
He breathed his last.
Are you tired? – Not in the least.

11. **Adjectives Much, Many, Little, Few.**

Much and **many** mean **a lot of** (a big quantity). **Little** and **few** mean a **small quantity**, but their use is different:

- a) **Much** and **little** are used with uncountables – nouns of material and abstract nouns:
Much water is needed for the plant.
He has **little** knowledge of English.
- b) **many** and **few** are used with nouns in the plural:
There are so **many** mistakes in his test.
This time you have made **few** mistakes in your dictation.
- c) **many/much** is usually replaced by other words and phrases, such as **a good/ great deal of, a great/ large quantity of, a lot of, a number of, numerous** in affirmative sentences, except when it is the subject or modifies the subject and when used with **how, too, as** or **so**:
He made **a lot of** experiments.
He spends **a great deal of** time on his hobby.

But: **Many** experiments were made.

Much was done for the children.

Few and **little** used with the indefinite article have the meaning of **some**:

I need **a few** hours of sleep.

He gave me **a little** money.

Much and **little** are used as adverbs, too:

She cries too **much**.

I slept very **little**.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What degrees of comparison do most adjectives have?
2. What are the two ways of forming the comparative and superlative degrees? When are they used?
3. What articles are used with the superlative degree of adjectives? When?
4. What adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison?
5. How are compound adjectives compared?
6. What adjectives have no degrees of comparison?
7. What are the spelling rules for the degrees of comparison?
8. What adjectives have double forms of comparison? Comment on them.

9. How is comparison expressed in sentences?
10. What means are used to make comparisons more precise?
11. What are substantivized adjectives? How are they used?
12. How are adjectives **much**, **many**, **little** and **few** used? What do they mean?

THE ADVERB

1. The adverb is a part of speech, which includes words expressing some additional circumstances attending an action or a quality – the time, place or manner of an action, the degree of a quality, etc.
2. The adverbs are mostly derived from adjectives and nouns with the suffix **-ly**:

sweet – sweetly wide – widely
day – daily part – partly

Most of the derivatives from nouns may be used as adjectives and as adverbs:

He earns his **daily** bread (adjective)
The newspaper appears **daily** (adverb).

Some adverbs have two forms – the adjective form and the form in **-ly**; the two forms differ in meaning:

We worked **hard** (with much effort).
I can **hardly** work today.
She often comes **late**.
I haven't seen her **lately**.
He laughs best who laughs **last**.
Lastly, I wanted to wish you success (at the end).
My friend lives **near** (not far away, close).
I see her **nearly** (almost) every day.
She can jump **high** enough.
Don't think **highly** of him.
He stopped **short** (abruptly) at the sight of it.
He left **shortly** (soon) afterwards.
They came **direct** to the office
Come in **directly** (at once).

3. Spelling Rules:

- a) adjectives ending in **-y** change **-y** into **-i**:
happy – happily easy – easily
- b) adjectives ending in **-le** drop **-e**:
noble – nobly possible – possibly
- c) adjectives ending in **-ue** drop **-e** before **-ly**:
true – truly due – duly

4. Kinds of Adverbs.

According to their meaning, adverbs can be classified as follows:

- a) adverbs of time: **today, yesterday, tomorrow, now, then, recently, never, soon**, etc.

- b) adverbs of place: **here, there, near, far, inside, outside**, etc.
- c) adverbs of manner: **well, hard, badly, fast, carefully**, etc.
- d) adverbs of degree: **very, almost, rather, quite, nearly, hardly, much, little, so**, etc.;
- e) interrogative adverbs: **when, where, why, how**, etc.

5. **Comparison of Adverbs.**

- a) Only adverbs of manner and a few others have degrees of comparison, which are formed in the same way as those of adjectives.

Adverbs of one syllable and the adverb **early** take the suffixes **-er** and **-est**:

soon – sooner – soonest early – earlier – earliest

- b) Adverbs ending in **-ly** and adverbs of more than one syllable form the comparative by means of **more** and the superlative by means of **most**:

quickly – **more** quickly – **most** quickly
 seldom – **more** seldom – **most** seldom

A few adverbs have irregular degrees of comparison:

well – better – best	badly – worse – worst
much – more – most	little – less – least
near – nearer – nearest; next	late – later – latest; last
far – farther; further – farthest; furthest	

6. **The Place of Adverbs in the Sentence.**

- a) Adverbs usually precede the adjectives, adverbs, numerals and pronouns, which they modify.

The room is **rather big**.
 He knows it **quite well**.

- b) Adverbs of time are placed at the end of the sentence; but when stressed, they are at the beginning:

I saw him yesterday.
 Yesterday I saw him.

- c) Adverbs of indefinite time (**usually, seldom, always, often, ever, never, already, just**, etc.) are placed

- 1) before the verb:
 He **usually** goes there by bus.
- 2) between the auxiliary and the principal verb:
 I have **never** been there before.
- 3) When there are more than one auxiliary verbs, adverbs of indefinite time are placed after the first one:
 It will **never** be done again.

- d) Adverbs of place are used after an intransitive verb or after the object of a transitive verb:

- You can find the key **there**.
He will never come **back**.
- e) Adverbs of place are used before adverbs of time:
Come **here** tomorrow.
- f) Adverbs of manner are placed after intransitive verbs and before a transitive verb or after its object:
He spoke **fast**.
She **slowly** repeated his name. She repeated his name **slowly**.
- g) Adverbs of manner precede adverbs of place and time:
He spoke **much here yesterday**.
- h) **enough** is placed at the end of the sentence:
She is strong **enough**.
It may precede the noun:
They have **enough** money.
- i) **too, as well, either** stand at the end of the sentence:
He is at the University **too**.
They have time and money **as well**.
Haven't you called him **either**?
- j) **much** and **little** usually stand after the verb:
Do you see **much** of him?
She slept **very little** last night.
- k) **So** sometimes means **also**:
He has passed all his exams. – **So** have I.
In negative sentences **neither** is used:
I don't know anything about it. – **Neither** do I.
- l) **the ... the** are adverbs in the following sentence patterns:
The more you know, **the more** you forget.
The sooner you come, **the sooner** we'll start.
- m) **only** is placed before the word to which it refers:
Only you can help me.
He got **only** one letter from her.
- n) The adverbs **before, lately, recently** stand at the end of the sentence:
I have never been there **before**.
We haven't met **lately**.
They discussed it **recently**.
- o) The adverb **yet** is usually placed at the end of the sentence:
He hasn't come **yet**.
Have you done your homework **yet**?
- p) The adverb **sometimes** may stand before the verb, or at the beginning or at the end of the sentence:
We **sometimes** go there together.

Sometimes he helps me.
I go to see them **sometimes**.

7. The Use of Adverbs or Adjectives:

- a) After the verbs **be, look, feel, seem, smell, taste** and **sound** adjectives are used:

This cake tastes/is **delicious/bad**.

It sounds **nice**.

She looks/feels **fine**.

- b) After other verbs adverbs are used:

He behaved **badly**.

It rained **heavily/hard**.

She ran **fast**.

- c) Some adjectives ending in **-ly** have no corresponding adverbs and thus they are used with additional words **way, manner, fashion, etc**.

She greets me in a **friendly way** (not she greets me friendly).

He conducted the lesson in a **lively manner**.

Note:

- 1) There is no adverb **interestingly** in English, thus it's impossible to say (We spent our time interestingly).

The correct variants may be:

We spent our time **in an interesting way**, or

We had a good/interesting time/rest.

- 2) The adjective **interesting** is used after **how** in an exclamatory sentence:

How **interesting!**

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the adverb?
2. How are adverbs derived? Comment on the use of similar and different adverbs/adjectives.
3. What are the spelling rules for deriving adverbs from adjectives?
4. What groups are adverbs classified into? Give examples.
5. How are degrees of comparison for adverbs formed?
6. What are the rules for the place of adverbs in the sentence?
7. What are the principle differences in the use of adverbs and adjectives?

THE NUMERAL

1. The numeral is a part of speech, which includes words denoting number.
2. Numerals are divided into **cardinals** and **ordinals**.
3. **Cardinal numerals** (one, two, three, four, etc.) are used in counting, answering the question 'How many?'

There are **twenty** students in our group.

4. All the cardinal numerals may become nouns and may take a plural ending:

The nine played an excellent game.

Thousands went to the meeting.

Note: cardinals do not take the plural ending when followed by nouns:

three **million** dollars

five **thousand** students

But when substantivized, cardinals take the plural ending and are followed by an of-phrase:

hundreds of people

millions of inhabitants

5. Cardinals **hundred**, **thousand** and **million** are always preceded by **a** or **one**. **A** is more common in an informal style; **One** is used when we are speaking more precisely:

She will live for **a hundred** years.

The journey took him **one hundred** days.

Note:

- 1) **A** is only used with **hundred**, **thousand**, etc. at the beginning of a number and before **and**; but we say **one** thousand before a number of hundreds:

1,032 – **a** thousand and thirty-two

1,254 – **one** thousand two hundred and fifty four

- 2) **A dozen** – 12, **a score** – 20, **three score** – 60

- 3) half-an-hour, three miles and a half or three and a half miles

- 4) years are counted as follows:

1965 – nineteen hundred and sixty-five or nineteen sixty-five

2000 – two thousand

2001 – twenty and one

1905 – nineteen hundred and five or nineteen 0 [ˈu] five

1900 – nineteen hundred

6.

- a) The figure 0 is normally called nought [nɔ:t] in British English and zero [zɪˈrɪu] in American English.

- b) When numbers are said figure by figure, 0 is often called [ʰu] (like the letter O):
My telephone number is 380550 – three eight 0 double five 0.
- c) In measurements (for instance, at temperature) 0 is called zero:
+15°C – fifteen degrees above zero centigrade (Celsius)
- d) 0 = nil-scoring in team games in British English (US: zero)
5 : 0 – five goals to **nil**
The result of the game was five-nil.
- e) In tennis, table tennis and similar games, the word **love** is used for 0:
three – love (3 : 0)
Love all (0 : 0)
- f) 0 = cipher [saɪfʰ] – a person or thing of no importance:
He's a mere **cipher** in art.

7. **Areas.** In giving dimensions, a room twelve feet by twelve can be called twelve feet square; the total area is 144 square feet (12 x 12).
In an informal style, **foot** is often used instead of **feet** in measurements:
How tall are you? – Five **foot** six (inches)

8. **Exact Time.**

- What time is it?/What's the time? – It is eight o'clock (8.00)
- It is ten minutes past three, *or*: three ten (3.10)
- It is a quarter past eight, *or*: eight fifteen (8.15)
- It is half past twelve, *or*: twelve thirty
(informal: half one – 12.30)
- It is twenty minutes to four, *or*: three forty (3.40)
- At seven o'clock in the morning.
Formal style: at 7 a.m. [eɪ em] (ante meridiem)
- At eleven o'clock in the evening.
Formal style: at 11 p.m. [pi: em] (post meridiem)
or: 23.00 twenty-three (hundred hours)

In informal English **at** is usually dropped in the expression (at) what time? And in other expressions of time when they come at the beginning of a sentence:

- What time** do your lessons start?
- When shall we start? – Six o'clock

9. **Money:**

- a) The singular of **pence** is **penny**
1p one penny (informal: one p [pɪ:])
3p three pence [Trepʰns] (informal: three p [pɪ:])
3 pennies – three separate one-penny coins

- b) When expressions of measurement, amount or quantity are used as adjectives, they are normally **singular**:
 a ten-mile walk
 a twenty-pound note

Note: nickels – five-cent coins
 dimes – ten-cent coins
 quarters – twenty-five cent coins
 half-dollars – fifty-cent coins

10. **Spelling Rules:**

- a) notice the following:

five	but: fifteen, fifty
four, fourteen	but: forty
nine, nineteen, ninety	but: ninth
- b) the numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39, etc., are written with a hyphen (-):
 twenty-one, thirty-eight, forty-seven
- c) in writing, commas (not full stops) are used to separate thousands and millions:
 5,068 – five thousand and sixty-eight
 1,000,000 – a million

11. **Pronunciation.**

The teen-numerals have stress on the last syllable, if they are not followed by a noun:

thirteen, fifteen

When they are used as attributes before nouns, the stress is on the first syllable:

thirteen books, fifteen students

12. **Ordinal Numerals:**

- a) Ordinal numerals (first, second, third, fourth, etc.) denote the position or order of persons or things in a series; they answer the question ‘which?’
- b) Most of the ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal numerals by means of the suffix **-th** (seventh, fourteenth, twentieth), except **first**, **second** and **third**. Notice also the spelling of **fifth**, **eighth**, **ninth**, **twelfth**.
- c) Ordinal numerals are usually preceded by the definite article: the first, the second, the tenth.
 The indefinite article may also be used with **first**, **second**, **third**, etc.:
 The second voyage = out of a definite number of voyages.
 A second voyage = an additional voyage = one more.
 May I ask you for **a** second cup of tea?

- d) In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal forms:
thirty-fifth, two hundred and second

Note the following:

Chapter 1 – the first chapter, Chapter One

But: Page 20 – page twenty

World War I (World War One, the First World War)

- e) **Dates:** There are several possible ways to write the day's date. Some people put the month before the day; others put the day first. Commas are possible before the number of the year:

January 1st, 1998 1st January, 1998

June 25th, 2001 25th June, 2001

Some people leave out the letters (-st, -nd, -rd, -th) that follow the number:

October 16, 1955

The names of the months are often abbreviated

Sept. 6th 15 Nov. 1997

It is not quite good to write the date completely in figures as it leads to misunderstanding: British people put the day first, Americans put the month first.

Br. E. 8.3.97 = 8th March, 1997

Am. E. 3d August 1997

The first two figures may be omitted in years if they are of the current century:

1.6.'99 (1999) 3.8.'01 (2001)

In British English, there are two ways of saying the date:

November the fifth, twenty forty-five

Or: the fifth of November, twenty forty-five

Americans generally say the date like this:

May third, nineteen ninety-nine

In letters the date is usually put in the top right-hand corner, just under the sender's address.

13. Calculations. Words and Expressions Used in Mathematics:

- a) **Simple fractions:**

$1/2$ – a half, $1/3$ – a third, $2/5$ – two fifths, $4/9$ – four ninths,

$3\ 1/2$ – three and a half, $4\ 2/3$ – four and two thirds

In fractional numbers the **numerator** is a cardinal and the **denominator** an ordinal (used as a noun):

two-thirds, three-sixths.

More complex fractions are often expressed by using the word **over**:

237/749 – two hundred and thirty-seven **over** seven hundred and forty-nine

Notes: one and a half takes a plural noun:

one and a half kilometres or one kilometre and a half

b) **Half** can be used before a noun, with or without **of**:

More than **half** (of) his friends have come.

They spend half (of) their time sleeping.

Before a personal pronoun, **half of** is always used:

We have seen **half of them**.

Of is not used with **half** when we are talking about measurements, and quantities:

I live about **half a mile** from here.

We bought **half a dozen** eggs and **half a pound** butter.

c) **Decimal fractions** are said with each figure separate. We use a full stop (point), not a comma, before the fraction:

0.37 – (nought) point three seven (Am. E. zero point ...)

4.238 – four point two three eight

0.05 – 0 [^u] point 0 [^u] five; or nought point nought five

3.777 – three point seven recurring

d) **Addition**. In small additions, we usually say **and** for +, and **is** or **are** for =.

4 + 2 = 6 – four **and** two is (are) six

8 + 4 = ? – What's eight and four?

In large additions and in more formal style, we use **plus** for + and **equals** or **is** for =.

251 + 49 = 300 – two hundred and fifty one plus forty-nine is (equals) three hundred.

The result (300) is called **the sum** and the numbers added together are called **terms of** the sum.

e) **Subtraction**.

In conversational style, dealing with small numbers, people say **ten from twenty leaves 10** ($20 - 10 = 10$). In a more formal style, or dealing with large numbers, **minus** and **equals** are used:

three hundred and fifteen **minus** one hundred and five **equals**

two hundred and ten ($315 - 105 = 210$)

The result of the process is called **the difference** and the numbers are called **the terms of the difference**.

f) **Multiplication**.

In small calculations, the most common way to say is: once (one) four is four ($4 \times 1 = 4$), three sixes are eighteen ($3 \times 6 = 18$) – using **is**, **are**,

makes for =). In larger calculations, there are several possibilities. One way is to say **times** for \times and **is** or **makes** for =:

How much is 25 times 100?

Twenty-five times one hundred **is (makes)** two thousand and five hundred.

In a more formal style, we say **multiplied by** and **equals**:

16 multiplied by 200 equals 2,800

In the multiplication the result is called **the product** and the numbers are called **factors**.

g) **Division.**

In smaller calculations – $12 : 2 = 6$ – people might say: two into twelve goes six (times).

In larger calculations – $420 : 4 = 105$ – they say: four hundred and twenty divided by four equals one hundred and five.

In the division, the result is called the **quotient**, the first number (420) is the **dividend**, the second number (4) is the **diviser**.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the numeral?
2. What groups are numerals divided into?
3. What are cardinal numerals?
4. What are ordinals?
5. Which numerals may become nouns – cardinals or ordinals? How are they used then?
6. What numerals are preceded by **a** or **one**? When?
7. In what way are years counted?
8. What is the figure 0 normally called? When?
9. What phrases are used in giving dimensions/ in measurements? Give examples.
10. What phrases are used for exact time? Give examples.
11. What phrases are used speaking about money?
12. What are the spelling rules for some cardinals/ ordinals?
13. Where is the stress in the teen-numerals?
14. How are most of the ordinals formed?
15. What articles can be used with them? When?
16. How are the dates written/ said?
17. What do simple fractions consist of? How are they read?
18. How is the word **half** used?
19. How are decimal fractions said?
20. What are the four basic calculations in mathematics called? Name them all and give examples for large and small numbers.

THE PRONOUN

1. Pronouns denote things and qualities of things, but they do not name or describe them as nouns and adjectives do.
2. Pronouns may be classified as follows:
 - a) **personal pronouns:** I, he, she, it, we, you, they;
 - b) **possessive pronouns:** my, his, her, its, our, your, their, mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs;
 - c) **reflexive pronouns:** oneself, myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves;
 - d) **demonstrative pronouns:** this, that, these, those, such, (the) same;
 - e) **interrogative pronouns:** who(m), whose, which, what;
 - f) **relative pronouns:** who, whose, whom, what;
 - g) **conjunctive pronouns:** who, whose, whom, which, what;
 - h) **indefinite pronouns:** some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything, every, all, each, several, either, both, other, another, one;
 - i) **negative pronouns:** none, no one, nobody, nothing, neither.

Personal Pronouns

1. Personal pronouns refer to 'grammatical persons':
 - 1st person: I, we
 - 2nd person: you
 - 3^d person: he, she, it, one, they
2. Personal pronouns have two cases: **the nominative case** and **the objective case**.
 - Nominative:** I, you (thou), he, she, it, we, you, they.
 - Objective:** me, you (thee), him, her, us, you, them.
3. Pronouns in the nominative case are used as the Subject:
 - He** has just come.Pronouns in the objective case are used as the Object:
 - Give **me** your hand.
4. Objective case is often used after **be**, in answer to questions with **who?**, after **as** and **then**:
 - Who's there? It's me (him, her, us, them).
 - Who told him? Me (Not me, *or*: I didn't).
 - He's taller **than me**.
 - He's as tall **as me**.

5. **I** is always written with a capital letter:
I know that **I** am wrong.
6. **Thou** [Dau] (you) and the objective case **thee** [DI:] (you) are old forms, now used only in poetry.
In Modern English **you** is used for the 2nd person singular and plural.
7. The pronouns **he**, **she** and **it** distinguish gender. Male beings: **man**, **father**, **boy**, **uncle**, etc., are referred to as **he**; female beings: **mother**, **daughter**, **woman**, **girl**, etc., are referred to as **she**.
8. **It** is used for things, babies, animals:
Where is my book? **It** is on the table.
Look at the baby. **It** is her son.
Do you see this bird? **It** is a lark.
9. **He** or **she** is used, when we refer to a pet or to 'lower animals', when we regard their activities with interest:
This is my dog. **She** is very clever.
Look at that frog. Look at the way **he** jumps.
10. We sometimes refer to ships, cars, motorbikes and other machines as **she**, when the reference is 'affectionate'.
My old car is not fast. **She** does 80 miles per hour.
11. Some writers refer to a country as **she** when they're thinking of it 'as a person':
In 1941, America assumed **her** role as a world power.
12. **It** is used in impersonal sentences:
It's hot. It's raining now. It's three o'clock.
13. **It** is used at the beginning of a sentence to emphasize a part of the sentence:
It was me who told you about it.
14. **We**, **you**, **they** are often used impersonally (the same as the indefinite pronoun **one**):
We must do our duty. **They** say it will get warmer.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What part of speech is the pronoun?
2. What groups can all the pronouns be classified into?
3. Who(m) do personal pronouns refer to?
4. What cases do personal pronouns have? Give examples.
5. When are the pronouns in the nominative (objective) case used?
6. What are some rules about the use of the pronouns **I** and **you** (thou, thee)?
7. What pronouns are used to distinguish gender in relation to male, female, animals, things and countries? Give examples.

8. What other functions does the pronoun **it** have?
9. How else are the pronouns **we, you, they**, used?

Possessive Pronouns

1. The possessive pronouns are the old genitive case of the personal pronouns and they distinguish number, gender and person in the same way as the personal pronouns do:

I – my; thee – thy; you – yours; he – his; she – her; it – its;
we – our; they – their.

2. The possessive pronouns have two forms:

The Conjoint Form	The Absolute Form
my	mine
your	yours
his	his
her	hers
its	—
our	ours
your	yours
their	theirs

3. The Conjoint form of the possessive pronoun is used as an attribute; it stands before the noun it modifies:

My friend lives in Britain.

4. The absolute form cannot be followed by a noun. It may be used as a subject, a predicative, an object or an attribute:

We saw the flats. **Yours** was the best. (Subject).

This hat is **mine**, it is not **hers**. (Predicative).

Give me your dictionary, please. I have left **mine** at home. (Object).

She is an old friend **of mine**. (Attribute).

5. The conjoint form of the possessive pronoun is used before the names of the parts of the body, clothing, things belonging to a person, meals, etc. In Latvian/Russian the possessive pronoun is not necessary in similar sentences:

She washed **her** face and hands in warm water.

They lost **their** way.

We have **our** breakfast at seven.

6. **Own** used after the conjoint form of the possessive pronoun gives emphasis to the possessive pronoun:

Mind **your own** business.

We saw it with **our own** eyes.

7. At the end of a letter **yours** is often used:
Yours sincerely (faithfully) ...
Ever **yours**, ...
Yours ever, ...

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the possessive pronouns?
2. What two forms do they have? Give examples.
3. What are the functions of the conjoint and the absolute forms in a sentence? Give examples.
4. When is the conjoint form generally used, unlike in Latvian or in Russian?
5. When do we use **own/yours**? Give examples.

Reflexive Pronouns

1. The reflexive pronouns are: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.
2. **Oneself** is a reflexive pronoun, which does not refer to any definite person: to warm oneself; to hurt oneself.
3. There aren't many verbs in English which we must always use with reflexive pronouns: absent oneself, avail oneself (of), pride oneself (on):
She **absented herself** from work.
He **prides himself on** his cooking.
4. In a great many cases where in the earlier periods of the language there were reflexive pronouns, they are now dropped, especially with such verbs as: to bathe, to wash, to sponge, to dry, to comb, to shave, to dress, etc.:
By the time you **have washed** and **dressed** breakfast will be ready.
I **feel** cold.
If he cannot **behave**, he had better leave the room.
5. We can sometimes add reflexive pronouns after verbs like **dress, hide, shave** and **wash** for emphasis or to show that something has been done with an effort:
Mary learnt how **to dress herself**.
But we could also say:
Mary has now learnt how to **dress**. (without **herself**).
The choice is ours.
6. We often use reflexive pronouns:
 - a) in imperative sentences:

Go and wash **yourself!** Behave **yourself!**

- b) with these verbs: amuse, blame, cut, dry, enjoy, hurt and introduce:

I've **cut myself** with the bread knife.

We can use these verbs without reflexive pronouns if we want to:

I've cut **my finger**.

- c) after a preposition: Look **after yourself**. Take care **of yourself**.

Note: **By myself** (himself, ourselves, etc.) means alone:

She can do it **by herself**. (without help).

He did it all **by himself**.

- d) in fixed expressions:

strictly between ourselves, just among ourselves, in itself.

- e) after nouns and pronouns for emphasis to mean 'that person/thing and only that person/thing':

The film **itself** is good.

You **yourself** saw it or: You saw it **yourself**.

- f) as a predicative:

I am not **myself** today.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the reflexive pronouns? Name them.
2. Who(m) does '**oneself**' refer to?
3. What are the verbs in Modern English, which we must always use with reflexive pronouns?
4. When can we sometimes add reflexive pronouns after the verbs like **dress, hide, shave and wash?**
5. In what cases do we often use reflexive pronouns?

Demonstrative Pronouns

1. The demonstrative pronouns are: **this, these, that, those, such, (the) same**. They can be used for persons and things:

Give **this** boy an apple.

I have seen **those** photos.

Those are our students.

2. **This** and **these** may refer to something that is close to you:

this one here.

That and **those** may refer to something that is not close to you:

that one there.

3. You can use **this** and **that** in many different contexts and situations.
For example:
When you are showing someone round the house:
This is my room.
When you recognize someone you are looking for:
There he is, – **that's** him.
 4. A demonstrative pronoun may be used instead of a noun mentioned before:
I like this picture better than **that**.
These houses look older than **those**.
- Note:** the following expressions in which demonstrative pronouns are used:
I learnt **this much** from the books.
I haven't seen him **these two weeks**.
This day a month. (Since today in a month).
5. **Such** means **so great** or **of that kind**:
Such a noise!
Sometimes it is used in the same meaning as **this**:
Such (this) was my first decision.
 6. The pronoun **same** is always used with the definite article:
He said **the same** thing again.
Is this **the same** question?

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the demonstrative pronouns?
2. When are they used?
3. What do they mean? Give examples.

Interrogative Pronouns

1. The interrogative pronouns are: **who**, **whose**, **what** and **which**. They are used in forming special questions and have the functions of both nouns and adjectives:
Who is your friend? (Subject)
Whose voice is that? (Attribute)
 2. The pronouns **who(m)**, **whose** refer to persons, **what** – to things, animals, professions. When applied to persons, it inquires about occupation, character, etc.
What is in this box?
What is he? He is a doctor.
- But:** **Who** is she? She is my sister. She is Mary Smith.

Which may refer to persons and things. It implies choice among a certain number of persons or things:

Which is yours?

Which look do you prefer?

Which of you is going to help me?

3. The interrogative pronoun **who** has two cases:

Nominative: who? – **Who** is your best friend?

Objective: who(m)? – **Who(m)** do you like?

In informal speech **who** is used instead of **whom** (as an object).

Who do you meet every day?

Who are you waiting for?

4. A preposition preceding the interrogative pronoun is put at the end of the sentence in informal speech:

Who shall I give this **to**?

What are you looking **for**?

5. **What ... like?** is used to ask for a description:

What is the weather like today?

What is he **like**?

6. **Whatever, whoever** have an emphatic meaning.

Whoever wants to may stay here.

Whatever can you say about it?

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the interrogative pronouns?
2. When are they used?
3. What is the difference in meaning between **what** and **who** referring to persons?
4. What does **which** imply?
5. When are **who** and **whom** used?
6. Where is a preposition preceding the interrogative pronoun put?
7. When are the interrogative pronouns **what ... like, whatever, whoever** used?

Relative Pronouns

1. Relative pronouns introduce attributive relative clauses. These are: **who, whose, whom, which** and **that**.

Who and **whom** are used for persons.

Whose may be used for persons, animals and things.

Which is used for animals and things.

That is used for animals, things and may be used for persons.

The boy **who** is talking now is the best student.

A woman **whom** I have mentioned before is not here.

The teacher **whose** daughter is a famous actress knows a lot about theatre.

The books, **which** are on sale, are not very expensive.

The letters **that** I sent you are all in this box.

2. If the verb in the attributive relative clause has a subject, the relative pronoun may be omitted in English:

The reporter (**whom**) we saw yesterday speaks five languages.

3. If a relative pronoun is preceded by a preposition, the latter may be put at the end of the sentence:

The man **whom** I was talking **to** lives in our house.

or: The man **to** whom I was talking lives in our house.

Note: **That** cannot be used after prepositions, but it can be used to introduce a clause that ends in a preposition:

The best man **that** I spoke **to** was our doctor.

4. The relative pronoun cannot be omitted if it serves as the subject of the clause:

The book, **which** (subject) is on the table, is a dictionary.

The boy **who** (subject) is playing in the garden is my brother.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What clauses do relative pronouns introduce?
2. What are they?
3. How are they used?
4. When may the relative pronoun not be omitted?
5. Where may a preposition be put? When?

Conjunctive Pronouns

The conjunctive pronouns **who**, **whose**, **whom**, **which**, **what** introduce subject, predicative and object clauses:

Who gives the correct answer will get a prize. (Subject clause)

This is **what** I know. (Predicative clause)

It was you **whom** we wanted to see. (Subject clause)

He told us **what** he remembered. (Object clause)

Note: **that** is not used to introduce subject, predicative and object clauses.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the conjunctive pronouns?
2. What do they introduce?

Indefinite Pronouns

1. The indefinite pronouns are:
some, any, every (and their compounds with -body, -one and -thing), each, all, both, several, either, (the) other, (the) others, another, one.

Compounds with -body and -one are used when speaking of persons; compounds with -thing refer to things and abstract notions. These compounds have the function of a noun.

2. **Some** and its compounds are mainly used in affirmative sentences:

I have asked **some** questions.

Somebody wants to see you.

There is **something** I want to tell you.

Some and its compounds are used in interrogative sentences:

- a) if the speaker expects an affirmative answer:

Aren't there **some** clouds in the sky?

- b) in questions expressing some request or offer:

Will you have **some** tea?

- c) if the question does not refer to **some**:

When did you meet **somebody**?

Some can be used to contrast with **others**, **all**, or **enough**:

Some people like tea, **others** prefer coffee.

I've got **some** time, but not **enough**.

Some can be used with singular countable nouns, in the sense of **an unknown**:

Some girl is waiting for you.

Some with a number means **about**. It often suggests that the number is a high or impressive one.

She got **some** three thousand pounds last month.

3. **Any** and its compounds are used in interrogative and negative sentences, in conditional clauses:

Have you (got) **any** English books at home?

She hasn't (got) **any** time.

I didn't see **anybody** there.

If **anything** goes wrong, I'll give you a hand.

Any is used in affirmative sentences, with negation or doubt implied, after **without**, **hardly**, **scarcely**, **prevent**.

He did it without **any** help.

I can hardly see **anything**.

Try to prevent **any** delay.

Any and its compounds in affirmative sentences mean **no matter which**:

Do it **any** day you like.

Anybody can do it.

Some and **any** are used before nouns of material to denote a quantity:

Please give me **some** tea.

Have you (got) **any** bread?

When **any of** is followed by a plural noun or a pronoun, the verb can be singular or plural. A singular verb is more common in a formal style.

If **any of** your children **is/are** here let them come and play with these toys.

4. **Every** has the functions of an adjective and is used only as an attribute with common nouns in the singular:

Every student is present today.

Everybody, **everyone** are used when speaking of people; **everything** is used when speaking of things.

Everybody and **everyone** may be used in the possessive case:

Everybody knows about the party.

Everything must be done on time.

This is the apartment to **everybody's** taste.

5. **All** may be used in the plural. Then it refers to people:

All went away very quietly.

In the singular **all** refers to things and abstract notions:

All is correct.

Note: without **the**, **all** has a universal meaning; with **the** it means **the whole group of things** or persons being considered:

All people know about it.

All the people have come.

All and **every** have quite similar meanings. They can be used to talk about people or things in general; **all** can be used with a plural noun and verb; **every** is only used with singular words:

All cats are black at night.

Every cat is cute.

All can be used before a noun or pronoun:

All (of) my relatives will come.

All of them are from our town.

All can be used after a noun or pronoun:

We **all** can do it.

Love to you **all**.

6. **Each** is used in the singular. It has the functions of an adjective and of a noun:

Each man was informed of it.

Each got an apple.

Each and **every** do not mean quite the same. **Every** puts people or things into a group, like **all**. **Each** separates:

Every vegetable has its season.

Each vegetable was packed separately.

When we are speaking about a whole group, **every** is used. We can say **almost every month** or **every single one without exception**, but **each** is not used with words and expressions like **almost**, **practically**, **nearly** or **without exception**.

Note:

a) **each** can be used to talk about two people or things, **every** refers to three or more:

Each of the two girls got her own prize.

b) **each** may be used adverbially, but not **every**:

She gave them a chocolate **each**.

c) **each other** is often replaced by **one another** when the reference is to a number more than two. Actually there is little or no difference of meaning between the two expressions:

We see **each other (one another)** quite often.

But: The two friends showed their latest photos to **each other** (not ... **to one another**)

d) the expressions for place and time: every twenty years, every other day, every ten miles.

7. **Both** has the functions of an adjective and a noun.

They **both** were students.

Both, **all** and **each** in apposition are used in the sentences:

a) before a simple verb;

b) after the modal or the first auxiliary verb;

c) after the verb **to be**:

We **both** speak English.

They can **both** play the piano.

You are **both** ready.

8. **Several** has the functions of an adjective and a noun. If a noun follows, it must be in the plural:

I told him about it **several** times.

Several were present.

9. **Either** is used with a verb in the singular. **Either** has the functions of an adjective and of a noun.

a) **Either** = one or the other:

You shouldn't speak to **either** of them.

b) **Either** = both; one and the other (of two):

Either variant is good.

10. **(The) Other. (The) Others. Another:**

- a) **Other** has the functions of an adjective and of a noun. When **other** is used as an adjective, it has no plural form. As a noun it takes the article, the plural ending and it may be used in the possessive case:

other books (adj.)	others (noun, pl.)
the other books (adj.)	the others (noun)
others' flats	

- b) **Other** can be used before singular common nouns only if **the, this, that, every, my**, etc. precedes it:

the other story
on the other side of the street
every other day

Note: **the other day** means recently, not long ago.

I met him **the other day**.

- c) **Another** is used only in the singular:

Will you have **another** cup of coffee?

This dress is spoilt. Can you give me **another** one?

Note: **Another** can also be used in this way before a plural expression beginning with a **number** or **few**:

Let's read **another three pages** of the book.

He'll stay here for **another few days**.

11. **One:**

- a) **One** has the functions of a noun and of an adjective. It may have the possessive case and the plural form (one's, ones).

- b) **One** is used in impersonal sentences talking about people in general including the speaker.

One must think before **one** speaks.

Note: **The little ones, young ones** means **babies**:

Merry rhymes for **little ones**.

- c) **One(s)** is often used to replace or to avoid repeating a noun:

Can I have a pencil – a blue **one**?

- d) **One** can only replace the countable noun. To replace uncountable nouns, we repeat the noun or sometimes leave it out:

I don't like fast food, I prefer natural (food).

- e) **One(s)** can be left out after superlatives and after **this, that, these, those**; also after **either, neither, which**, etc.:

I think this car is the fastest (one).

Which (one) would you like? – This (one).

- f) **One** may have the meaning **some**:

We must meet **one day**.

This is **one** Tom Taylor.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the indefinite pronouns?
2. What does every pronoun mean?
3. When are they used? Give separate rules and examples.

Negative Pronouns

1. The negative pronouns are **none**, **no one**, **nobody**, **nothing**, **neither**.

2. **None** refers both to human beings and things. **None of** is also used before pronouns, and **none** can be used alone as a pronoun:

None of them wanted to die.

She gets messages every day, but yesterday she got **none**.

When **none of** is used with a plural noun, the verb can be either singular or plural; a plural verb is more common in an informal style:

None of the students **have/has come**.

3. **No one** and **nobody** have the same meaning and refer to human beings. **No one** cannot be followed by **of**:

He waited for an hour but **nobody (no one)** came.

4. **Nothing** refers to things: **Nothing** can be done.

Note: In colloquial speech **not anybody**, **not anything** are more common than **nobody**, **nothing**:

We **didn't** see **anybody** there. = We saw **nobody** there.

5. **Neither** is the opposite to **either**, and it means **neither one nor the other**.

Neither (without of) is used before a singular noun when there is no article or possessive or demonstrative pronoun. The verb is singular:

Neither story **is** interesting.

When the noun has an article or a possessive or demonstrative pronoun before it, we use **neither of**. The noun is plural; the verb can be singular or (in informal style) plural:

Neither of his brothers **is (are)** good at music.

Neither can be used alone, as a pronoun:

Which of the films do you like best? – **Neither** is any good.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the negative pronouns?
2. What do they mean?
3. How are they used? Give examples.

THE VERB

Classification of Verbs

1. The verb is a part of speech, which includes words expressing actions or states conceived as processes.
2. According to their form verbs are divided into:
 - simple verbs:** to take, to say, to like, etc.;
 - derived verbs,** having suffixes and prefixes: to classify, to review, to discourage, etc.;
 - compound verbs:** to blackmail, to whitewash, etc.;
 - phrasal verbs:** to look for, to look after, to wait on, to wait for, etc.
3. Verbs may be **transitive** and **intransitive**.

Transitive verbs express an action thought of as passing over to and having an effect on some person or thing. **Transitive verbs** take direct objects: *vt:* give, bring, fetch, etc.

Intransitive verbs do not require direct objects: *vi:* erupt, operate, work, etc.
4. The verb has four principal forms, which help to derive all the tenses, the active and passive voice and the moods of the verb. The principal forms are: **the Infinitive, the Past Indefinite Tense (Simple Past), the Past Participle, the Present Participle**.

According to the way in which the past indefinite tense and the past participle are formed, verbs are divided into two groups: **regular verbs** and **irregular verbs**.

Regular verbs form the past indefinite tense and the past participle by adding **-ed** or only **-d** to the infinitive of the verb:
to ask – asked – asked

Irregular verbs form the past indefinite tense and the past participle in a different way:
to do – did – done to give – gave – given
5. According to their meaning and use in the sentence verbs may be divided into **principal verbs, auxiliary verbs, link-verbs** and **modal verbs**.
 - a) **Principal verbs** have a meaning of their own and are used as simple predicates:
She **opened** the door.
 - b) **Auxiliary verbs** help to form:
 - the compound tenses:

- I **am** writing a letter.
- He **has** finished his work.
- the interrogative and negative forms:
 - He **doesn't** speak English.
 - Did** he help you?
- the passive voice:
 - The letter **was** written.
- the moods:
 - Don't** be silly.
 - Do** open the window. It's hot in here.
- c) **Link-verbs** are used in predicates:
 - She **is** a doctor.
- d) **Modal verbs** have a meaning of their own and are used in predicates:
 - He **can** do without a car.
 - You **must** come at once.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the verb?
2. What groups are all verbs divided into according to their form?
3. What verbs are called transitive/ intransitive?
4. What are the four principal forms of the verb?
5. What verbs are called regular/ irregular?
6. What groups are all verbs divided into according to their meaning and use in the sentence? Specify them and give examples.

Tense

Tense is the form of the verb, which indicates the time of the action. The main divisions of time are represented in English by the four primary tenses: **present**, **past**, **future** and **future-in-past**.

- They are included into four groups of tenses:
- a) **Indefinite** (Simple) tenses
 - b) **Continuous** (Progressive) tenses
 - c) **Perfect** tenses
 - d) **Perfect Continuous** (Progressive) tenses

Voice

1. Voice is the form of the verb, which shows the relation between the subject and the predicate in the sentence.

2. There are two voices in English, the **active** and the **passive**.
The **active** voice indicates that the subject of the sentence performs an action, that it is the **doer** of an action.

He ↗ is **writing** a letter.

She ↗ **speaks** English.

The **passive** voice indicates that the subject of the sentence is acted upon, that it is the **recipient** of an action:

The letter ↖ is being written.

English ↖ is spoken by her.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is tense/voice?
2. What are the main divisions of time and groups of tenses in English?
3. What are the two voices in English?
4. What do they indicate? Give examples.

Conjugation of the Verb in Active Voice

I. The Indefinite (Simple) Tenses

The Present Indefinite Tense

Form

1. The **present indefinite** is formed from the infinitive without the particle **to**. In the third person singular the ending **-s** or **-es** is added.
2. The ending **-es** is added after **-ss**, **-sh**, **-ch**, **-x** and **-o**. Verbs ending in **-y** preceded by a consonant take the ending **-es** in the third person singular; **-y** is changed into **-i**:

to cross – crosses

to try – tries

to go – goes

to watch – watches

3. The ending **-s** is pronounced as [s] after voiceless consonants:
to speak – speaks

It is pronounced as [z] after voiced consonants and vowels:

to open – opens

to dry – dries

The ending **-es** is pronounced as [ɪz] after sibilants:

to wash – washes

4. The negative and interrogative are formed by the auxiliary **do (does)** and the infinitive of the principal verb:

I **do not (don't) speak** French.

Do I speak French?

5. In a special question the auxiliary **do** (does) is placed after the question word before the subject, unless it is a question to the subject or to its attribute. The latter is formed without any auxiliary. But the principal verb takes the ending **-s (-es)**:

Where **do** you live?

When **does** he come?

Who **does** he speak to?

But: Who speaks French?
Whose brother lives in this street?

Use

1. The **present indefinite** is used to express:

- a) repeated or habitual actions:

He **gets up** at seven in the morning.

The word-indicators, showing the use of the present indefinite here, are as follows: **every day, usually, sometimes, regularly, often, etc.**;

- b) universal truth:

Water **freezes** at the temperature of 0° Centigrade.

- c) future reference (for timetables etc.) or a planned future action with such verbs as **to be, to start, to go, to leave, etc.**:

They **leave** for London next week.

The train **arrives** at 5. 30.

- d) actions taking place at the moment of speaking with verbs not used in the continuous tenses:

Do you **hear** me?

- e) a future action in the adverbial clauses of time and condition after the conjunctions **when, after, before, while, till, until, as soon as, if, unless**:

If it **snows**, we'll go skiing.

I will tell him about it as soon as he **comes**.

- f) in exclamatory sentences beginning with **here** and **there**:

There he **goes!**

Here he **comes!**

- g) present events more dramatically in colloquial style:

He **was going** there alone. Suddenly he **stops** short at the sight of a human body lying motionless on the road.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How is the present indefinite formed?
2. What are the spelling/ reading rules for the ending **-s/-es**?

3. In what way are the negative/ interrogative and special questions formed?
4. When is the present indefinite used?

The Present Indefinite of the Verb 'to Be'

1. The verb **to be** has the following forms in the present indefinite:

Singular:	Plural:
I am here.	We are here.
You are here.	You are here.
He/she/it is here.	They are here.
2. The auxiliary **do/does** is not used to form the negative, interrogative, and special questions with **to be**:

Am I here?	Where am I?
I am not here.	Who is here?
3. The auxiliary **do/does** is used only to form the negative of the Imperative Mood with **to be**:

Don't be silly!	Don't be rude!
------------------------	-----------------------

The Verb 'to Be' in the Introductory Construction 'There is/are'

Form

1. When the subject is indefinite (a man, some books, little time, etc.) it is often placed after the verb and the sentence begins with the introductory word **there**. The introductory word **there** has no meaning of its own. It must not be confused with the adverb **there** which is usually placed at the end of the sentence and has a meaning of its own:

There are a lot of students **there**.
2. The introductory word **there** is usually followed by the verb **to be**. Sometimes other verbs are used, such as **to seem**, **to appear**, **to come**, **to live**, etc.:

There is a book on the table.
There seems to be no doubt about it.
3. The negative is formed as follows:

There is no book on the table.
There is not any book on the table.
There is not a book on the table.
4. The interrogative forms are:

Is there a house near the lake?
What is there in the kitchen?

Use

1. If a Latvian/Russian sentence begins with an adverbial modifier of place (time), the construction **there is/are** must be used to render it into English:
There are several theatres in Riga.
2. Sentences with **there is/are** are translated into Latvian/Russian beginning the sentence with an adverbial modifier of place (time):
There are no clouds **in the sky**.
3. Sentences with **there is** are sometimes translated into Latvian/Russian as impersonal sentences:
There is little time left.
There is no doubt about it.

The Present Indefinite of the Verb 'to Have'

1. The verb **to have** has the following forms in the present indefinite:

Singular:	Plural:
I have (got) a pen.	We have (got) pens.
You have (got) a pen.	You have (got) pens.
He/she/it has (got) a pen.	They have (got) pens.
- Note:** 1) the verb **to have** means **to possess** here;
2) **got** is used in colloquial language.
2. **To have** as a principal verb may replace the verbs **to eat, to drink, to take to receive, to obtain**.
We **have** our **meals** at home.
I **have** letters every day.
3. The negative and interrogative forms are built up with the auxiliary verb **to do**:
 - a) when **have** is used as a principal verb with the meaning of **to eat, to take, to receive, to experience, to undergo**:
Do you have lunch in the canteen?
Where **do you have a rest**?
 - b) when **have** is used as a principal verb denoting regular or habitual possession:
We **don't have** English today.
Does she have her vacation in August?
 - c) in phrases such as **to have a look, to have a bath, to have a try, to have a talk, to have a rest, to have a good time**:
Do you always have talks with your parents about serious problems?

4. The negative and interrogative forms are built up without the auxiliary verb **to do**:
 - a) when **have** is used as an auxiliary verb:
Has he been to London?
 - b) when **have** is used as a principal verb denoting **permanent** (not regular) possession:
Have you any brothers or sisters?
5. When **have** is used in a modal sense (equivalent of **must**) the negative and interrogative forms may be built up with or without the auxiliary verb **to do**:
Have we (**got**) to do this?
Do we **have** to do this?
6. In American English the negative and interrogative of the principal verb **to have** are always formed with the auxiliary **to do**:
Do you **have** any relatives in the USA?
I **don't have** a pen. Give me yours.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the forms of the verbs **to be/to have** in the present indefinite?
2. What are the negative and interrogative forms of sentences with the verbs **to be/to have** in the present indefinite? When is the auxiliary **do/does** used with them?
3. What is the form of the introductory construction **There is**?
4. When is it used?
5. How is it translated into Latvian/Russian?

The Past Indefinite Tense

Form

1. **The past indefinite tense** has the same form for all the persons. The past indefinite is the **second** principal form. Regular verbs take the ending **-ed (-d)** in the affirmative to form the past indefinite tense.
2. The ending **-ed (-d)** is pronounced as:
 - a) [t] after voiceless consonants: **looked, watched**
 - b) [d] after voiced consonants and vowels: **opened, tried, eyed**
 - c) [ɪd] after [t] or [d]: **translated, decided**
3. The negative, interrogative and special questions are formed with the auxiliary **did** and the **infinitive** of the principal verb:
Did they **go** there together?
They **didn't go** there together.
Where **did** they **go** together?

Note: In special questions to the subject the auxiliary **did** is not used. The principal verb is used in its second form:

Who **translated** the letter to you?

Who **opened** the door?

4. Irregular verbs have their specific forms in the past indefinite. Some irregular verbs have the same form in all parts: **hit – hit – hit, cut – cut – cut.**

Some change one part only: **keep – kept – kept, make – made – made.**

Some change two parts: **know – knew – known.**

Use

1. **The past indefinite** is used to talk about events, actions or situations, which happened in the past and are now finished. Therefore it is primarily the tense of **narration**:

Once upon a time there **lived** an old man. He **was** very poor, but he **had** three sons. One day he **called** his sons and **said** ...

2. Word-indicators (time references) for the past indefinite are as follows: **yesterday, ago, last summer, when, the other day, recently**, etc.

When did it happen?

I saw him **yesterday**.

3. A habitual action in the past is sometimes expressed using:

would + indefinite infinitive

used to [ju:st t^] + indefinite infinitive

When we were small kids we **used to (would) quarrel** quite often because of the toys.

Used to can be used to talk about states and situations as well as actions. **Would** can only be used for repeated actions:

We **used to be** friends. (Not: We **would**)

Would and **used to** cannot be used to say how often something happened:

We **went** there three times when I was young. (Not: we used to ... or: we would ...)

Note:

- 1) The negative and interrogative are formed without the auxiliary **did** for the constructions with **would**:

They **wouldn't** often quarrel. **Would** they often quarrel?

- 2) for the constructions with **used to** the auxiliary **did** is necessary:

Did you **use** to live here?

He **didn't use** to smoke.

(Used **not to** – is rare today. They use **never** to form the negative: I **never used** to smoke)

Comprehension Questions:

1. How is the past indefinite formed? Speak about the negative, interrogative and special questions.
2. How is the ending **-ed (-d)** pronounced?
3. When is the past indefinite used?
4. How is a habitual action in the past sometimes expressed?
5. How are the negative and interrogative with **would** and **used to** formed?

The Past Indefinite of the Verb 'to Be'

1. The verb **to be** has the following forms in **the past indefinite**:

Singular:	Plural:
I was there.	We were there.
You were there.	You were there.
He/she/it was there.	They were there.
2. The auxiliary **did** is not used to form the negative, interrogative, and special questions with **to be**:

Were you there?
You **were** not there.
Who **was** there?
Where **were** you?
Who **was** there in the room?

The Past Indefinite of the Verb 'to Have'

1. The verb **to have** has the following forms in the past indefinite:

Singular:	Plural:
I had a plan.	We had a plan .
You had a plan.	You had a plan .
He/she/it had a plan.	They had a plan.
2. The negative and interrogative forms are built up with/without the auxiliary verb **did** as in all the cases in the present indefinite tense (see pp. 78–79).
 - a) **Did** you **have** lunch in the canteen?
We **didn't have** English yesterday.
Where **did** you **have** a rest?
When **did** you **have** to go?or: When **had** you **(got) to go**?

- b) **Had** he **been** there before?
He **hadn't** any brothers or sisters.
She **had no** home then.
- c) in American English **did** is necessary to form the negative and interrogative in all the cases:
Did he **have** any relatives?
We **didn't have to** do that.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the forms of the verbs **to be**, **to have** in the past indefinite?
2. How are they used in the negative, interrogative and special questions?

The Future Indefinite Tense

Form

1. The **future indefinite** tense is formed by the auxiliary **shall/will** and the **infinitive** of the **principal verb**. When we are referring to the future in **American English**, we use **will** with all persons (I, you, he, she, etc.), but in **British English**, we often use **shall** with **I/we**:

I (we) **will (shall)** see you tomorrow.

When the British speakers use **will** with the first person they colour the future with their intentions or promise:

I **will** do it. (I promise it. I mean it).

2. The shortened affirmative forms are:
I'll see you. **He'll do it**.
3. The shortened negative forms are:
I'll not be there/ **I won't** be there.
I shan't be there tomorrow.
4. The interrogative forms are:
Shall we **go** for a swim tomorrow?
Will they **get married**?
5. In special questions to the subject the auxiliary verb is used. With the question-words **who**, **what** it is usually **will**:
Who **will win** on Saturday?
What **will happen** then?

Use

1. The **future indefinite tense** is used to express a future action or to make predictions:
I hope they **will live** happily in the years to come.
I'll help you tomorrow.

2. In formal style we say what will happen for events that have been arranged:

The wedding **will take place** on June 12th.

3. The word-indicators for the future indefinite are:
tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, next week (month, year),
in the years to come, in a month, etc.
4. In informal style a future action is often expressed by the present continuous tense. When talking about things that have already been decided the **going to** structure is used:
I'm **seeing** my colleagues this evening.
They **are going to** play chess after work.
5. To express a future action the following word combinations are often used:

to be going to + the infinitive

to be about to + the infinitive

to be to + the infinitive

to be due to + the infinitive

Going to colours the future with intention. That is why **going to** is more usual with persons than things:

I **am going to** write a letter.

To be about to means **to be just going to do something/** to be on the point of doing something:

We **are about to** leave.

To be to is used for formal arrangements, duties, appointments, instructions, prohibitions:

Our representatives **are to meet** in Riga in April.

Three tablets **are to be taken** a day.

You're **not to** tell him anything!

To be due to refers to timetables:

The train **is due to** arrive at 7.30.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How is the future indefinite formed? When are the auxiliaries **shall/ will** used?
2. How are the negative, interrogative and special questions formed?
3. When is the future indefinite used?
4. What are the word-indicators for the future indefinite?
5. How is the future action expressed in informal style?
6. What other word combinations are used to express a future action? When?

The Future Indefinite in the Past Tense

Form

The **future indefinite in the past** is formed by the auxiliary **should/would** and the **infinitive of the principal verb**:

I said I **should (would)** write the letter.

I said I'd **write** the letter.

Use

The **future indefinite in the past** expresses a future action viewed from a past moment. It is used in subordinate clauses according to the rule of the sequence of tenses (see p. 95).

He **did not know** we **should come**.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How is the **future indefinite in the past** formed?
2. When is it used?

II. The Continuous Tenses

Form

1. The **continuous tenses** are formed by the auxiliary verb **to be** in present, past or future and the present participle of the principal verb.

I **am/was/will be dancing** all night.

2. The negative and interrogative forms are as follows:

Present:

Am I dancing? I am not dancing.

Are you dancing? You're not (are not) dancing.

Is s/he dancing? S/he's not dancing.

Are we (you, they) dancing? We (you, they) aren't (are not) dancing.

Past:

Was I dancing? I wasn't (was not) dancing.

Were you dancing? You weren't (were not) dancing.

Was s/he dancing? S/he wasn't (was not) dancing.

Were we (you, they) dancing? We (you, they) weren't (were not) dancing.

Future:

Shall I be dancing? I shan't (shall not) be dancing.

Will you be dancing? You won't (will not) be dancing.

Will s/he be dancing? S/he won't (will not) be dancing.

Shall we be dancing? We shan't (shall not) be dancing.

Will you (they) **be dancing**? You (they) **won't** (will not) **be dancing**.

3. Special questions are formed as follows:
Who **is dancing**? What **are you doing**?
Who **was dancing**? What **were you doing**?
Who **will be dancing**? What **will you be doing**?

The Present Continuous Tense

Use

The **present continuous** expresses:

1. an action going on at the moment of speaking:
Listen! Somebody **is crying** outside.
2. an action going on at the present moment, the latter referring to a longer present period of time:
He **is doing** English **this year**.

It is often used with the word-indicators **right now, at this moment, this week, this year, today**.

3. a planned future action, especially with the verbs **to go, to stay, to leave, to start, to move**:
He **is coming** to see us next week.
The train **is leaving** in five minutes.

Note: In the construction **I am going to + infinitive**, **I am going** has the meaning of **I intend** and refers the action to the future:

I am going to start again.

4. a continuous action compared to another habitual action:
They never **talk** while they **are working**.
5. an action permanently characterizing the subject. In this function it acquires emotional colouring.
He **is always snoring** in his sleep (blame).
She is very kind; she **is always doing** things for other people (praise).

6. a future action in adverbial clauses of time and condition:
I shall help you while the children **are sleeping**.

Note: Some verbs are not used in the present continuous tense as:

- 1) they express point-actions: **jump, drop, burst, clap**, but not the action of a certain duration: read, write, play, speak. With point-actions the indefinite tenses are used. Compare:

She **is writing** a report. Don't disturb her.

Look at her! She **bursts** into tears.

The **continuous tense** is used only when point-actions are repeated:

The girl **was jumping** up and **throwing** her toys on the floor.

- 2) they express actions or states of unlimited duration (**love, hate, possess, have, contain**, etc.):

I **like** strong tea.

They **hate** being bothered with silly questions.

The **continuous tense** is used with these verbs when we want to express that the feeling is only temporary or to emphasize its character:

While he talked I **was liking** him more and more.

- 3) they are the verbs of mental sense perception: **hear, see, understand, feel**, etc. when they refer to a concrete action taking place at a given moment:

It's dark in here, so I **don't see** your eyes.

With these verbs we mark the action as merely occurring, but not as developing before our eyes because we are more interested in what we see, hear, etc. than in the action itself:

I **don't** quite **understand** you. What do you **mean**?

In this connection, notice the two meanings of the verb **to think**, and accordingly the use of the two tense-forms:

I **think** you're right.

What **do you think of** our plan? (What is your opinion of it?)

I **am** just sitting and **thinking** of you.

Note how the verb **feel** can be used:

How **does it feel** to be at home? It **feels** fine.

I **feel** comfortable.

I feel (I think) that you are right.

But: I'm **feeling** better today. I **feel** better today. Both forms are possible.

In the case of some verbs the use of the continuous form depends on the meaning of the verb.

To see may be used in the continuous tense when it means **to visit, to interview**. Compare:

What **do you see**? I **see** nothing.

But: I am **seeing** him today at five.

Also in such cases as **to see to...**, **to see about** (= to take care of, to attend), **to see off**:

He **is seeing to** it now.

I'm just **seeing** my friend **off**.

The verb **to hear** may be used in the continuous forms when it has other meanings. Compare:

Do you **hear** me?

A new judge is **hearing** the case.

The verb **to smell** is used in several ways. When the reference is to something involuntary, the indefinite tenses may be used:

The meat **smells** tasty.

When **smell** means conscious or deliberate activities, the continuous tenses are possible:

She **was smelling** the perfume she had got as a present.

The same refers to the verb **taste**:

The butter **tastes** rancid.

Mother **is tasting** the soup I have cooked.

The verb **to have** is used in the continuous tenses when it means **to enjoy, to experience, to cause to**:

I hope you **are having** a good time now.

What nasty weather we **are having** today!

She **is having** her hair cut at the hairdresser's.

The use of the link-verb **to be** in the continuous form is becoming more and more frequent in Modern English:

You're **being** very rude.

The Past Continuous Tense

Use

1. The **past continuous** expresses temporary actions in progress in the past:

He **was living** there all his life.

The word **all** is often used to emphasize continuity (all day, all summer):

It **was raining** all night.

2. It is used for actions which were in progress when something else happened:

When I **was leaving**, the phone **rang**.

These are often introduced by conjunctions like **when, as, just as** and **while**, but the shorter action can be introduced by **when**:

We **were driving** home when it rained.

3. It expresses actions in progress at the same time:

While mother **was cooking** we **were watching** TV.

4. It can be used with emotional colouring for repeated actions with **always; never**, etc.:

I thought he **was never going** (irritation).

When he worked there he **was always making** mistakes.

5. The past continuous is used to set the scene at the beginning of the story:

It was just before the war. She **was living** there alone. She **was working** in the hospital and **writing** short stories in her spare time.

Compare the use of the past continuous and the past indefinite when we do not consider the action in its progress, but merely state that an action of a certain duration took place in the past:

I **worked** in the office the whole morning and then I **went** for a walk.

The Future Continuous Tense

Use

1. The **future continuous** expresses an action, which will be going on at a definite moment in the future:

This time tomorrow I'll **be driving** home.

Note: in Modern English the **future continuous** is very often used in the same meaning as the **future indefinite**:

He **will be doing** it himself.

He **will do** it himself.

But: the continuous 'softens' the effect of will + verb and sounds more polite:

When **will** you **come**? (e.g. boss to the assistant)

When **will** you **be calling** Mr. Black? (e.g. assistant to boss)

The verb in Future Indefinite states an intention:

I'll **work** on it tomorrow.

The future continuous refers to future time:

I'll **be working** on it tomorrow.

The Future Continuous in the Past Tense

The future continuous in the past expresses a continuous action viewed from a past moment. It is used in subordinate clauses according to the sequence of tenses (see p. 95):

I thought you **would be having** a lesson at that time.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How are the continuous tenses formed?
2. How are the negative, interrogative and special questions formed? Give examples for each tense.

3. When are the continuous tenses used? Speak about each tense separately.
4. What verbs are usually not used in continuous tenses? Why? When is it possible to use these forms in continuous tenses?

III. The Perfect Tenses

Form

1. **The perfect tenses** are formed by the auxiliary verb **to have** in present, past or future and the **past participle of the principal verb**:
 I **have seen** him.
 I **had** seen him.
 I **shall/will have seen** him.
2. The negative and interrogative forms are as follows:
 I **haven't** (have not) **seen** him. **Have I seen** him?
 I **hadn't** (had not) **seen** him. **Had I seen** him?
 I **shan't** (shall not) **have seen** him. **Shall I have seen** him?
3. Special questions are formed as follows:
 Who **has seen** him? Who(m) **have I seen**?
 Who **had seen** him? Who(m) **had I seen**?
 Who **will have seen** him? Who(m) **shall I have seen**?

The Present Perfect Tense

Use

1. **The present perfect** is used to connect a past action with the present time:
 - a) as having results or consequences bearing on the present moment:
 The train **has arrived**. (It arrived at some time in the past and is still at the station).
 - b) as continued up to the present moment:
 He **has studied** English for two years. (He began to study English at some time in the past and is still studying it)

The present perfect is not used when the action is not connected with the present. In such a case the past tense is used.

Compare the following:

- I **have opened** the window. (The window is open now)
 I **opened** the window. (The action was performed at some time in the past without implying its connection with the present).

2. When the present perfect is used, there may be no time-indicators in the sentence at all:

He **has gone**. They **have passed** their examinations.

3. The following time-indicators are associated with the present perfect tense:

a) **today, this week, this month, this year**, etc. (They show a period of time which has not ended yet):

I **haven't seen** him **today**.

We **have been** to Sweden **this year**.

Note: but the same words may refer to some definite period of time, mentioned or implied; then the past tense is used:

I **saw** him in the office **today**. (When I was in some definite place – in the office).

The definite time and place require the use of the past tense:

When did you see him? **In the morning**.

In special questions beginning with **where, how** and **why** either the present perfect or the past is used:

Where have you been? Where **did you go?**

b) **often, seldom, ever, never, just, already, lately, yet, so far**, etc.:

He **has never been** there before.

Have they already left? or: **Have they left yet?**

But if those adverbs refer to a definite past time, the past tense is used:
We **often met** last year.

'**Just now**', '**recently**' and '**the other day**' require the use of the past tense:

He **was** there **just now**.

We **saw** him **recently (the other day)**.

c) prepositions (adverbs) **since** and **for**

I **haven't seen** him **since** my childhood

We **have lived** here **for** twenty years.

4. **The present perfect** is used instead of the future perfect in adverbial clauses of time and condition:

We shall leave after if we **have finished** this work.

The Past Perfect Tense

Use

1. **The past perfect** expresses an action completed before a definite moment in the past and viewed back from that moment:

By the end of June all the students **had passed** their examinations.

2. The moment may be indicated by another past action or it can be understood:

When we came home the rain **had stopped**.

3. **The past perfect tense** usually indicates the earlier of two events. The conjunctions used to join two sentences in which we indicate two past events, one of which preceded the other, are – **when, before, until, once, now that, as soon as**:

He (**had**) **left before** I called him.

They **had finished** their work **when** we came.

Note: if the sequence of events is clear without the use of two different tenses, the **past indefinite tense** may be used to indicate two (or more) events. This is usually the case when the conjunction is **before**:

She **peeled** the potatoes **before** she **cooked** them.

4. **The past perfect** is used in adverbial clauses of time and condition to express an action already accomplished at a given future moment for sequence of tenses:

I **said I should post** the letter as soon as I **had written** it.

The Future Perfect Tense

Use

1. The **future perfect** expresses an action completed before a definite moment in the future. The moment may be indicated:

- a) by means of an adverbial expression: **by that time, by seven o'clock**, etc.:

By the end of this term we **shall have learnt** many new words.

- b) By means of another action:

When you come at five o'clock, I **shall have done** my work.

2. The future perfect is also used to denote an action begun before a given future moment and still going on at that future moment:

By the first of August we **shall have been** at the seaside for a month. (Our staying at the seaside, begun a month before the first of August, will still continue at that time).

The Future Perfect in the Past Tense

The **future perfect in the past** expresses a future action viewed from a past moment. It is used in subordinate clauses observing the rule of sequence of tenses (see p. 95):

He told me yesterday that he **should have finished** his work by the time I came back.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How are the perfect tenses formed?
2. How are the negative, interrogative and special questions formed? Give examples for each tense.
3. When are the perfect tenses used? Speak about each tense separately.

IV. The Perfect Continuous Tenses

Form

1. The **perfect continuous tenses** are formed by the auxiliary verb **to be** in one of the perfect tenses (have been, has been, had been, shall have been, will have been) and the present participle (-ing form) of the principal verb.

Present:

I have been speaking.
He has been speaking.

Past:

I had been speaking.

Future:

I (we) shall have been speaking.
You will have been speaking.

2. The negative and interrogative forms are as follows:

Present:

I **haven't** (have not) **been speaking**. **Have I been speaking?**
He **hasn't** (has not) **been speaking**. **Has he been speaking?**

Past:

I **hadn't** (had not) **been speaking**. **Had I been speaking?**

Future:

I (we) **shan't** shall not **have been speaking**.
Shall I (we) have been speaking?
You **won't** (will not) **have been speaking**.
Will you have been speaking?

3. Special questions are formed as follows:

Present:

Who has been speaking?
What have I been doing?

Past:

Who had been speaking?
What had I been doing?

Future:

Who will have been speaking?
What shall I have been doing?

The Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Use

1. **The present perfect continuous** expresses an action which begins in the past, continues up to the present moment and is still going on:

She **has been studying** music for five years.
I **have been waiting for you** since morning.

Note: when the starting point of an action is fixed by a subordinate clause introduced by **since**, the verb of the subordinate clause is usually in the **past tense**:

I **have been watching** TV since I **came** home.

But: the present perfect is used with both verbs (in the principal and in the subordinate clause) if they denote actions begun in the past and continued into the present:

The children **have been playing** in the yard since their mother **has been away**.

2. **The present perfect continuous** may also indicate an action begun in the past, continued up to the present but no longer going on at the present moment:

Be careful! He **has been painting** the bench. (He is not painting any more, but the paint is still wet).

Compare: He **has painted** the bench. (The paint, most probably, is already dry).

3. **The present perfect continuous** is sometimes used to express repeated actions. (The present perfect might suggest a single action).

Compare: I **have been meeting** her at the library (several times).
I **have met** her in the library (once).

4. **The present perfect continuous** is also used with **emotional colouring** (see **The Use of the Present Continuous Tense**):

I think you **have been telling lies** again (irritation, displeasure).

The Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Use

1. **The past perfect continuous** expresses an action which begins before a definite moment in the past, continues up to that moment and is still going on at that moment:

They **had been playing** chess for two hours when I came to see them.

The past moment from which the action expressed by the perfect continuous is viewed may be indicated:

- a) by an adverbial expression introduced by the preposition **by**:
By that time they **had been living** at the seaside for a month.
 - b) by a subordinate clause of time introduced by the conjunction **when**:
When she understood her mistake, she **had been speaking** for five minutes.
2. **The past perfect continuous** may also be used to express an action begun before a given past moment, coming very close up to that past moment but no longer going on at that past moment; this is shown by the context:
She stopped writing, which she **had been doing** for half an hour.

The Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Use

The future perfect continuous tense denotes an action begun before a given moment in the future and continued into that future moment:

We **shall have been watching** TV for an hour by the time you return.

The Difference Between the Perfect and the Perfect Continuous Tenses

The perfect and the perfect continuous tenses are used to denote actions begun before a given moment (present, past or future) and continued into that moment.

The difference in use is as follows: the perfect tenses concentrate our attention on the present (past or future) **state**, which characterized the subject of the action:

I **have done** this work and I am tired.

The perfect continuous tenses besides characterizing the subject, characterize also **the time** of the action:

It's already five o'clock, so I **have been working** for three hours.

Comprehension Questions:

1. How are the perfect continuous tenses formed?
2. How are the negative, interrogative and special questions formed? Give examples for each tense.
3. When are the perfect continuous tenses used? Speak about each tense separately.
4. What is the difference between the perfect and the perfect continuous tenses?

The Sequence of Tenses

1. In English the tense of the verb in a subordinate clause depends on that of the verb in the principal clause. This **adjustment** of the tense of the subordinate clause to the tense of the principal clause is called the **sequence of tenses**.

The following are the rules of the sequence of tenses:

- a) a present or future in the principal clause may be followed in the subordinate by any tense that is logically required:
I **know** that you **are** here.
I **am sure** they **will** never **come back**.
 - b) a past tense in the principal clause must be followed by a past tense (indefinite, continuous, perfect, future in the past) in the subordinate clause:
He **said** he **would** never **come back**.
2. If the action of the principal clause and that of the subordinate take place at the **same time in the past**, the **past** tense is used in both clauses:
He **said** he **was** ill.
She **said** she **was going** home.
 3. When the action of the subordinate clause **precedes** that of the principal clause, the **past perfect** is used in the subordinate clause:
I **was sure** he **had** already **arrived**.

Note: when the action of the subordinate clause precedes the action of the verb in the principal clause but refers to a **definite** past moment, the **past** is used:

He **said** he **was born** in 1940.

4. In subordinate clauses of the second, third, etc., grade of subordination **simultaneousness** is usually expressed by the **past**, priority, by the **past perfect**:

He **told** me that he **had been** at the concert where he **met** an old friend of his whom he **had not seen** since childhood.

5. When the action of the subordinate clause refers to a moment, **future** with regard to the **past** moment indicated in the principal clause, the verb of the subordinate clause is in the **future-in-the past**:

She **told** me she **would come** for sure.

Note: There is no sequence of tenses if the subordinate clause states something as universally or logically true:

They **did not know** that the earth **moves** round the sun.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What does the rule of sequence of tenses say?
2. When do we use the past indefinite/continuous or perfect tense in the subordinate clause?
3. When do we use future in the past?
4. When is the rule of sequence of tenses not observed?

Conjugation of the Verb in Passive Voice

1. Voice is the form of the verb, which shows the relation between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. There are two voices in English: **the active** and **the passive**.

In **the active voice**, the subject of the verb is the person or thing that does the action:

Mary → **broke** the plate last night.

In **the passive voice**, the action is done to the subject:

The plate ← **was broken** last night.

2. **The passive voice** is used in the following instances:
- a) when the active subject is unknown or cannot easily be stated:
Visitors **are requested** to leave their coats in the cloakroom.
 - b) when one takes a greater interest in the object than in the subject of the action:
The tree **was struck** by lightning.
 - c) when the active subject is not mentioned for some reasons (tact or delicacy of feeling)
You **have been told** so many times not to touch these things.

3. **The passive voice** is built up by means of a suitable form of **be + past participle**. Only verbs which take an object (transitive verbs) can go into passive:

The letter **was written**. (But not 'The train was arrived').

4. The basic passive voice tense forms are as follows:

Present Simple: it **is written**

Past Simple: it **was written**

Future Simple: it **will be written**

Present Perfect: it **has been written**

Past Perfect: it **had been written**

Future Perfect: it **will have been written**

Notes:

- 1) In **the passive voice** the continuous aspect has only two tenses, present and past:

Present Continuous: it **is being written**

Past Continuous: it **was being written**

Instead of the future and the perfect tenses of the continuous aspect, the corresponding simple tenses are used:

The letter **will be posted** immediately.

- 2) The verb '**to get**' is sometimes used in Modern English as an auxiliary of the passive:

My dress **got caught** on the nail.

He **got struck** by a stone.

5. **The passive voice** is extensively used in Modern English, mostly in scientific and official writing. There are more passive constructions in English than in Latvian. Both **direct** and **indirect objects** of active constructions can become **subjects** of passive constructions. Moreover, even intransitive verbs with prepositional objects may be used in the passive:

Active: The student **wrote** that exercise yesterday (direct object)

Passive: That exercise **was written** yesterday.

Active: I **showed** him (indirect object) his mistakes.

Passive: He **was shown** his mistakes.

Active: People **spoke** much about that book (prepositional object).

Passive: The book **was** much **spoken** about.

Notes:

- 1) The passive is impossible with the following verbs denoting mere state: **to resemble, to become, to suit, to last, to possess**. All the sentences given below can be used only in the active voice:

She **resembles** her mother. The hat **becomes** you.

The coat **suits** you. The money **will last** me a whole month.
She **possesses** very many good qualities.

- 2) Transitive verbs, which take two objects, direct and indirect, may form two passive constructions:

Active: He **showed** me the way.

Passive: The way **was shown** to me. or I **was shown** the way.

6. The combination of the verb '**to be**' + **past participle** does not always form the passive voice; it may also be a **compound nominal predicate**. When the verb **to be** + **past participle** comprises the idea of an action, when it shows that the subject is acted upon, it is the **passive voice**. When the past participle indicates **the state** in which the participle is serving as a **predicative**, the verb **to be** is a link verb and they both form a **compound nominal predicate**:

He **is used** to our climate. (compound nominal predicate)

This pen **is** always **used** by me. (passive voice)

All the windows **were open**. (compound nominal predicate)

The door **was opened** by the porter. (passive voice)

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is voice?
2. When is the passive voice used?
3. How is it formed?
4. What are the basic passive voice tense forms?
5. What verbs are used in passive voice?
6. What is the difference between a compound nominal predicate and passive voice?

THE MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS

The modal auxiliary verbs are a special class of words, which behave in a special way and are used before the infinitives of other verbs. These auxiliaries add to the verbs certain kinds of meaning connected with certainty, obligation, possibility etc.

According to their form, modal auxiliaries can be divided into:

1. core modals (true modals)
2. periphrastic modals (terms used by R. A. Jacobs).

The verbs **can, could, may, might, will, would, shall** (mainly in British English), **should, ought, need** and **dare** are core modals.

To be able, to have to, to have got to are called periphrastic modals, they are multiword forms and paraphrase modal meanings.

According to their meaning, modal auxiliaries fall into two major semantic categories: action modality and belief modality (terms used by R.A. Jacobs). Action modality has to do with permitting, recommending, ordering or prohibiting the action. The belief modality, on the other hand, has to do with the speaker's beliefs about the likelihood of a situation. Most modals can be used in either modality.

Modal auxiliaries:

1. have no **-s** in the third person singular:
She **may know** his address.
2. Questions, negatives, tags and short answers are made without **do**:
Can you swim? He shouldn't be doing that, **should he?**
3. After modal auxiliary verbs we use the infinitive without **to** of other verbs (except **ought**). All forms of the infinitive are possible.
You **must read** this book.
You **might have told** me about it.
4. Modal auxiliary verbs do not have infinitives or participles.
5. All modal auxiliary verbs have two negative forms – a full one and a contracted one:

cannot	–	can't	shall not	–	shan't
could not	–	couldn't	should not	–	shouldn't
may not	–	mayn't	will not	–	won't
might not	–	mighn't	would not	–	wouldn't
must not	–	mustn't	need not	–	needn't
dare not	–	daren't			

Can / Could

The modal auxiliary **can** has two forms: **can** and **could**. The expression **to be able to**, which has the same meaning, can be used to supply the missing forms of the verb **can**.

Can expresses:

1. Ability, skills, awareness. In this meaning **could** is used with the reference to the past, but futurity is generally indicated by 'will be able to'.
She **can dance**.
He **could play** football well.
I **can see** this picture.
Everyone in the classroom **could hear** his voice.
He **will be able to speak** English well.

Note: **could/was able to**, used for past ability:

- a) for **general ability**, to say that you could do something any time you wanted to, either of these auxiliaries can be used:
She **could/was able to sing** like an angel when she was a child.
My mother **could/was able to speak** several languages.
 - b) for **particular ability**, to say you could do something on one occasion, **was able to** is commonly used.
Although the man was badly hurt in the accident, he **was able** to explain what had happened (he could and did explain).
This rule, however, is relaxed in the negative when the action did not take place, and with verbs of senses:
She read the letter but she **couldn't/wasn't able to understand** it.
I **could/was able to see** him through the window.
2. Possibility.
 - a) general possibility (it is possible, circumstances allow).
You **can ski** on the hill.
Can you get on the top of the hill in one day?
 - b) occasional possibility:
Scotland **can be** very warm in September (sometimes it is warm there)
Measles **can be** very dangerous.
 3. Permission (in this meaning it is replaced by **may**).
He **can go** now.
The teacher said we **could go** home.

4. Prohibition (only with the negative form of the modal auxiliary).
You **can't cross** the street here.
Can we stay here? – No, I'm afraid you **can't**.
 5. Request. (**Could** suggests a greater degree of politeness).
Can I have some water?
Could you come again tomorrow?
 6. Strong doubt, improbability, incredulity. In this meaning **can** may be followed by any form of the infinitive. Time reference is indicated not by the form of the modal auxiliary but by the form of the infinitive: the non-perfect infinitive refers to the present or future, the perfect – to the past.
This meaning occurs only with the negative form of the modal auxiliary.
He **can't be sleeping** at this time (it is impossible that he is sleeping...)
You **can't have seen** it. (it's impossible that you saw...).
- Could** is used to express greater doubt.
He **can't/ he couldn't be so old**.
7. Surprise, when **can/could** is used in questions and with all forms of the infinitive.
Can it be so late as all that?
Can she be waiting for us?
Could he have known her before?
 8. Reproach, a suggestion that a person should have done something, behaved in a certain way. In this meaning only **could** is used and is interchangeable with **might**.
You **could have met** me at the station, **couldn't** you?

May / Might

This modal auxiliary has two forms: **may** and **might**.

May expresses:

1. Permission. (In this meaning it is more formal than **can**). The expressions **to be allowed**, **to be permitted** are used to refer the action to the past and future.
You **may take** my book.
They **were allowed to take** the books in this library.
You are to stay in bed until you **are allowed to get up**.

Might is used in polite requests for permission.

I wonder if I **might** borrow your book.

To refuse permission we can use: **may not**, **must not**, **don't**. **Must not** is more emphatic and it may mean that it is not the person who prohibits, but there are facts, rules or circumstances prohibiting it. **Don't** is less strict than **may not**, it is rather asking somebody not to do something than actually prohibiting something.

May I put the television on? – Yes, of course you **may**. (No, **don't**).

Visitors **may not** (or: **must not**) feed the animals.

You **must not** smoke too much.

2. Request.

May I have a cigarette?

May I ask what your name is?

3. Offers of help.

May I help you?

May I be of any service to you?

4. Possibility of the fact, supposition, uncertainty. In this meaning **may** can be followed by any form of the infinitive. Time reference is indicated not by the form of the verb but by that of the infinitive. The non-perfect infinitive refers to the present or future, the perfect – to the past.

In this meaning **may** occurs in affirmative and negative statements but is not used in questions. In questions this meaning is rendered by:

Is it likely? or: Do you think?

She **may not know** that you are here.

It **may rain** tomorrow.

He **may/might be waiting** at the station.

Ann **may/might have missed** the train.

Might must be used when the main verb is in the past form.

He **thought** that she **might have missed** the train.

5. Reproach. This meaning is found only in positive statements and only with the form **might**.

You **might** at least offer to help.

In combination with the perfect infinitive it renders irritation, annoyance that the action was not carried out.

You **might have told** me about it earlier (but you didn't).

Must

The modal auxiliary **must** has only one form for the present tense. It may also be used in reported speech, after the verbs in the past tense in the principal clause. I **knew** he **must come** too.

Must expresses:

1. Immediate obligation or necessity, an obligation referring to the future. In this meaning **must** is used in positive statements and questions. The expression **to have to** may be used to supply the missing forms of **must**.

You **must do** it yourself, I can't help you.

Must we really **read** the whole book?

Note 1: in the 1st and 2nd person **must** expresses obligation imposed by speaker, **have to** expresses external obligation which involves other authority than the speaker, such as official regulations etc.

Mother: You **must wipe** your feet when you come in.

Small boy: I **have to wipe** my feet every time I come in.

In the 3rd person **must** is chiefly used in written orders or instructions. When we are merely stating or commenting on another person's obligations, we use **have to**.

Railway company: Passengers **must cross** the line by the footbridge.

Office manager: Staff **must be** at their desks by 9 o'clock.

In this office even the senior staff **have to** be at their desks by 9 o'clock.

She **has to make** her children's clothes. She can't afford to buy them.

Note 2: Future obligations can be made more precise with the future simple of the verb **to have to**.

I'll **have to do** it again.

Note 3: Since a negative form of **must** denotes a negative obligation or sometimes a prohibition, it cannot express absence of necessity expressed by **needn't**.

Must we read this book? – No, you **needn't** if you don't want to.

2. Command. (in the 2nd person).

You **must leave** the room at once:

You **must be careful**.

3. Prohibition. Such sentences are often negative commands:

You **mustn't go** home alone. It's late.

4. Emphasis.

Just when we were ready to go away for the holidays, the baby **must catch** measles.

Of course, after I gave her my advice she **must go and do** the opposite.

5. Invitations.

You **must come and see** me sometime.

You **must come and have** dinner with us.

6. Probability, supposition, deduction, assumption. In this meaning **must** is used in affirmative sentences only and can take all forms of the infinitive. In questions and negatives we use **can** or **can't** instead. (See also Note 1 below).

He has a house in London and another in Paris. He **must be** rich.

The police are stopping all the cars. They **must be looking** for the escaped prisoner.

He **must have taken** sleeping pills last night. He didn't wake up till lunch time.

I waited under the clock: – So did I, but I didn't see you! We **must have been waiting** under different clocks.

But: Child: **Can I have** some sweets? I'm hungry.

Mother: You **can't/couldn't be** hungry. You've just had dinner.

Note 1: **must** expressing probability is not used:

- a) with reference to the future. Instead of the modal auxiliary the adverbs **probably** and **evidently** are used:

He **will probably come** next week.

- b) in interrogative and negative forms. There are several ways of expressing the negative meaning of probability in such sentences: by negative affixes, or negative pronouns or lexically.

You **must have misunderstood** me.

They **must have been inattentive**.

She **must have failed** to recognize you.

He **must have had no chance** to warn you.

The letter **must have never reached** them.

The letter **must have been left unanswered**.

No one must have seen him there.

He **must be quite unaware** of the circumstances.

To Have To / To Have Got To

As a modal auxiliary **to have to** is not defective. It can have the category of person and number and all tense-aspect forms, as well as verbals. It is followed by a **to** infinitive:

He is an invalid and **has to have** a nurse.

She knew what she **had to do**.

I **shall have to reconsider** my position.

My impression was that he **was having to force** himself to talk.

I **have had to remind** you of writing to her all this time.

Having to work alone, he wanted all his time for his research.

Have to builds up its interrogative and negative forms with the help of the auxiliary verb **to do**.

Do you have to work so hard?

Did he have to tell them about it?

He **doesn't have to explain** it.

He **didn't have to tell** me that he already knew.

The modal auxiliary **to have to** expresses:

1. Obligation or necessity arising out of circumstances. In this meaning it is found in all kinds of sentences – affirmative, interrogative and negative – and is combined only with the indefinite infinitive.

My sister has a lot of friends in different countries, so she **has to write** lots of letters.

In the past tense **have to** indicates a fulfilled obligation.

They made such a noise that I **had to send** one of the boys to make inquiries.

Have to replaces **must** where **must** cannot be used:

- a) to express past necessity or obligation.

He **had to do** it again.

- b) to express absence of necessity (in the sense of **needn't**), since **must not** means prohibition.

You **don't have to make** another copy of the document, Miss Smith, this copy will be quite satisfactory.

- c) to express a future obligation, since the future tense of the verb **to have to** makes the obligation more precise.

You'll **have to take** a taxi if you mean to catch the train.

Have got to has the same basic meaning as **have to**. It is more usual in spoken English especially in the interrogative and negative forms. Besides **have to** usually denotes a habitual action and **have got to** denotes a particular action (mainly in colloquial style).

Do you have to get up early every morning?

Have you got to get up early tomorrow morning?

2. Certainty or logical necessity. Both **have to** and **have got to** are possible.

You **have to be joking**.

The **bombing's got to stop** sometime.

To Be To

To be to as a modal auxiliary is used in the past and present tenses.

We **are to meet** at six.

We **were to meet** at six.

To be to expresses:

1. An obligation arising out of an arrangement or plan. It is found in statements and questions.

We **are to complete** this work by tomorrow.

When **am I to come**?

The ship **was to dock** on Sunday.

Who **was to speak** at the meeting?

To be to in the past combined with the indefinite infinitive doesn't tell us whether the plan was carried out or not.

He **was to go**.

We **were to meet** at the entrance to the theatre at a quarter to 8.

To be to in the past combined with the perfect infinitive is used for an unfulfilled plan.

I **was to have come** (but I failed to do it).

She **was to have graduated** in June, but unfortunately she fell ill.

2. A strict order or an instruction given either by a speaker or (more usually) by some official authority.

He **is to return** to Liverpool tomorrow (has been given orders to return).

You **are to do** it exactly the way you are told.

Note the difference between **to be to** and **to have to**:

Soldiers **have to salute** their officers (such is customary obligation, the general rule).

All junior officers **are to report** to the colonel at once (an order).

3. Strict prohibition. (Only in negative form).

You **are not to do** that.

You **are not to smoke** in this room.

4. Sometimes that is destined to happen, that is unavoidable.

I didn't know at the time that she **was to be** my wife.

He **was to be** my teacher and friend for many years to come.

5. Possibility. In this case the passive form of the non-perfect infinitive is used, unless it is a question beginning with the interrogative adverb **how**.

They **are not to be trusted**.

Nothing **was to be done** under circumstances.

How am I to repay you for your kindness?

Ought To

The modal auxiliary **ought to** has only one form, which is used with reference to the present or future. It is not changed in the reported speech. **Ought** is always followed by the infinitive with **to**.

Ought expresses:

1. Moral duty, moral obligations.

You **ought to say** a word or two about yourself.

You **oughtn't to mention** it to anybody.

In this meaning **ought** is used in all kinds of sentences. Generally it refers the action to the future and is followed by the indefinite infinitive.

With reference to the present **ought** is used with the continuous infinitive or with the indefinite infinitive if the verb does not admit of the continuous form.

At your age you **ought to be earning** your living.

You **ought to feel** some respect for your elders.

In combination with the perfect infinitive **ought** in the affirmative form shows that a desirable action was not fulfilled.

You **ought to have helped** him (but you did not).

You **ought to have put everything off**.

In the negative form **ought** in combination with the perfect infinitive shows that an undesirable action was fulfilled.

You **oughtn't to have married** her, John. (It was a great mistake).

2. Possibility, sometimes that can be naturally expected.

You **ought to be hungry** by now (you probably are, but I'm not certain).

The new sanatorium **ought to be very comfortable**.

Should

The modal auxiliary **should** is used with reference to the present or future and it remains unchanged in reported speech. **Should** is nearly always interchangeable with **ought** as their meanings coincide.

Should expresses:

1. Moral obligation or duty, which in different contexts may acquire additional shades of meaning, such as advisability and desirability.

It's late. You **should go to bed**.

If you see anything strange you **should call** the police.

Should in this meaning is found in all kinds of sentences. It generally refers an action to the future and is followed by the indefinite infinitive. With reference to the present **should** is used with the continuous infinitive or with the indefinite infinitive if the verb does not admit of the continuous form.

You **shouldn't be sitting** in the sun.

You **shouldn't feel unhappy** over such trifles.

Should may be combined with the perfect infinitive. In an affirmative sentence **should** combined with the perfect infinitive indicates that a desirable action was not carried out.

You **should have put** more sugar in the pie. It isn't sweet enough.

Your shoes are wet. You **should have stayed** at home.

In a negative sentence **should** combined with the perfect infinitive shows that an undesirable action was carried out.

You **shouldn't have done** that. It was stupid.

They **should never have married**. They are so unhappy.

2. Probability, something naturally expected (only with reference to the present or future).

The film **should be very good** as it is starring first-class actors.

We needn't get ready yet. The guests **shouldn't come** for another hour.

Shall

Shall expresses:

1. An offer.
Shall I carry your bag? (do you want me to ...)
2. A suggestion about future, advice.
Shall we go out for lunch?
I've lost my purse. What **shall I do**?
3. Formal instructions.
All students **shall attend** classes regularly.
4. A strong emotion (promise, threat). In this meaning **shall** was common in the 2nd and 3rd persons, in older English.
You **shall suffer** for this!
You **shall have an answer** by tomorrow.

Will / Would

Modal auxiliary **will** has two forms: **will** and **would**.

Will/would expresses:

1. Willingness, intention, determination.
I'll **write** to you as soon as I can.
I **will make** money.
I **will help** you.
I said I **would do** anything for you.

When used in the negative it denotes a refusal to do something.
They **won't go** with us (they refuse to ...)
He **wouldn't answer** my question.
2. A polite request or an offer. This meaning occurs only in questions. The form **would** renders a greater degree of politeness.
Will you bring me some paper, please?
Will you have some tea?
Would you please pass the sugar?
3. A command.
You **will do** exactly as I say.
Will you be quiet!
4. Insistence, resistance.
He **will try** to do it himself! (he insists on doing it himself).
He was wet through, but he **wouldn't change**.

With inanimate objects **will/would** shows that a thing fails to perform its functions.
I tried to open the door, but it **wouldn't open**.
The orange **won't peel**.
5. Inevitability, characteristic behaviour, something naturally expected.
What will be **will be**.
Boys **will be** boys.
Truth **will be out**.
6. Characteristic quality, or behaviour.
Oil **will float** on water.
This car **will hold** six people comfortably.
7. Disapproval of something expected. In this meaning only **would** is used. It is found mainly in responses.
'He refused to interfere.' – **He would**.
8. Prediction, certainty about the present or the future, something that is proved or expected.
This **will be** our train.
That **would be** he!

Need

Need has two sets of forms: those of the modal auxiliary verb and those of an ordinary verb. When **need** is used like a modal verb, it has no **-s** in the third person singular, no verbals, no past tense; questions and negatives are formed without **do**, and the verb is followed by the infinitive without **to**.

He **needn't stay** if he does not want to.

When **need** is used as an ordinary verb, it has **-s** in the third person singular present, questions and negatives are made with **do**, there are verbals and the past tense.

One **needs to have** a visa to go to the USA.

Did you need to read all those books?

1. **Need** is used to express necessity. The ordinary verb forms of **need** are much more common, than the modal auxiliary forms. The only modal form, which is often used is **needn't**.

You **needn't try** to explain. (or: You **don't need to try** to explain).

Do you need to work so hard? (or: **Need you work** so hard?)

He **needs to get** a new pair of trousers. (Not: He need get ...)

When modals are used, they usually refer to immediate necessity; they are often used to ask for or give permission – usually permission not to do something. Ordinary verb forms are more common when we talk about habitual general necessity:

- a) We **needn't book** a table – the restaurant won't be full this evening.

Need I do the washing up? I'm in a hurry.

- b) **Do you need to book** tickets in advance?

2. Present-tense forms of **need** can be used to talk about future, but **will need to** is often used to give advice.

Need I do it tomorrow? (or: **Do I need** to do it ...)

You'll **need to read** several books if you want to take part in the discussion.

3. In a formal style, affirmative modal forms are possible after negative verbs, and in sentences, which express doubt or negative ideas.

I don't think we **need mention** him at all.

I wonder if I **need go** there.

4. **Needn't + perfect infinitive** denotes an action that was carried out but it was unnecessary to do it.

I **needn't have bought** all that wine – only three people came.

- Compare:**
- a) She **needn't have hurried** (it was not necessary to hurry, but she did).
 - b) She **did not need to hurry** (it wasn't necessary to hurry; we don't know whether she did).

Dare

Dare can be used in two ways: 1) like an ordinary verb, e.g. Do I **dare** to ask her? and 2) like a modal auxiliary verb, e.g. **Dare** he tell them what he knows?

In practice, **dare** is not a very common word in modern English. In an informal style (ordinary conversation), we usually use other expressions instead, like **not to be afraid**, **not to have courage to**. 'He **dares** to say what he thinks' is possible, but most people would say 'He is not afraid to say what he thinks'.

In a few cases, **dare** is still common in an informal style:

1. In British English, the negative **daren't** is frequent.
 - I **daren't ask** her – will you do it for me?
 - She **daren't tell** the boss because she does not want to make trouble.
2. The expression **I dare you + infinitive** is used by children to challenge each other to do frightening things.
 - I **dare you to ride** your bike through the gate with no hands.
3. The expressions **You dare!** and **Don't you dare!** are used to discourage people from doing things they shouldn't.
 - 'Mummy, can I draw a picture on the wall?' – 'You **dare!**'
4. I **dare say**/ I **daresay** means:
 - a) 'I suppose'
 - I **daresay** there will be a restaurant car on the train.
 - b) 'I accept what you say but it doesn't make any difference'.
 - English tourist: But I drive on the left in England!
 - Swiss policeman: I **daresay** you do, but we drive on the right here.
5. We use '**How dare you?**' as an indignant exclamation.
 - How dare you?** Take your hands off me at once!

Comprehension Questions:

1. How are modal auxiliaries divided according to their form and meaning?
2. What are the linguistic peculiarities of modal auxiliary verbs?

3. In what meanings may the modal auxiliaries **can / could / may / might / must** be used with all forms of the infinitive?
4. What is the time reference indicated by in these meanings?
5. How can probability (supposition, deduction, assumption) be expressed in interrogative and negative sentences?
6. How are the interrogative and negative forms of the modal auxiliary **to have to** formed?
7. When does **to have to** replace **must**?
8. In which tense forms is the modal auxiliary **to be to** used?
9. What is the difference between: 'He was to finish the book by Thursday' and 'He was to have finished the book by Thursday but he fell ill and couldn't do it'?
10. What does the combination **should/ought to + Perfect Infinitive** show?
11. What kind of obligation or necessity do modals **must, to have to, to be to, should, ought, need** express?
12. When are the modals **shall, will/would** used in Modern English?
13. What is the difference between 'He didn't need to go there' and 'He needn't have gone there'?

Summary Table

Meaning 1	Modal 2	Hints on usage 3	Examples 4
I Obligation, necessity	1. must	obligation, absolute necessity with no freedom of choice/immediate obligation arising out of circumstances	In order to graduate you must pass your exams.
	2. have (got) to		You have (got) to go now or else you'll miss your train.
	3. to be to	obligation arising out of arrangement	We are to go there directly.
	4. need/needn't	necessity/absence of necessity	Need I come tomorrow? You needn't come tomorrow.
	5. should/ought to	moral obligation, sometimes weakened to the sense of advice	Your mother is ill. You should help her in all you can. You ought to help your mother.
II Supposition, doubt, uncertainty	1. must	Certainty, strong likelihood	He must be an old man by now.
	2. should/ought to	Certainty, rather strong likelihood	This should/ought be Pete's book; it certainly isn't mine.
	3. may/might	Uncertainty, doubt	The train is due out at 5 p.m., they may yet catch it.
	4. can/could	Doubt, incredulity	He can't be so old.
III Ability, Possibility	1. can	Physical/mental ability, ability arising from circumstances	He can speak fluent English. He can lift heavy weights. You can borrow any pen.
	2. may	Ability arising from circumstances	He may be very charming if he chooses.
IV Permission, Prohibition	1. may/might	Asking, giving, denying permission (depends on the will of the person addressed)	May I see my sister, doctor? Yes, you may. No you may not, I don't allow it.
	2. can/could	Asking, giving, denying permission (depends on circumstances)	Can I see my sister, doctor? Yes, you can. No, you can't see her now, she is being examined by the professor.

1	2	3	4
IV Permission, Prohibition	3. must	(negative) prohibition (stronger than denial)	You mustn't come into the ward, it's against the rules.
	4. to be to	Prohibition (stronger than denial)	You are not to come in my room without knocking. I forbid you to do it.
V Polite question or request	1. will/would	The most usual form of request	Will/would you try and find the picture book I told you about.
	2. could	Informal request	Could you send me a word, if the book is on sale.
	3. may/might	Polite request	May I trouble you for the dictionary?
VI Disapproval reproach	1. might	Reproach, disapproval	You might have done it all yourself instead of asking other people to help you.
	2. should/ought to	Reproach for failing to do what was one's moral obligation, duty	You should/ought to have done your duty.
	3. could	Reproach for failing to do what was in one's power.	You could have sent me a letter, couldn't you?
VII Volition (or wish), prediction, persistence, refusal to do smth., asking for instructions, advice inevitability	1. will	a) promise, intention	I will bring your dictionary back without fail.
		b) insistence	He will insist upon our meeting, though I ask him not to.
		c) threat, warning	I will give you a good thrashing if I catch you.
		d) inevitability, characteristic quality.	The boys will be boys.
	2. will/would	a) persistence, refusal to do something	I keep asking him not to sing this song but he will have his way all the same.
		b) prediction	This will/would be our train.
	3. shall	a) asking for instructions, expressing offer	Shall I answer in English? Shall I carry this bag?
b) threat, promise		You shall suffer for this!	

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The subjunctive mood is the category of the verb, which is used to express unreal or hypothetical actions and states. A hypothetical action or a state may be viewed upon as desired, necessary, possible, supposed, imaginary, or contradicting reality (N.A. Kobrina).

Different forms of the verb are used for this purpose in Modern English. There are:

1. Two synthetic forms:
 - a) The Present Subjunctive, which coincides with plain verb stem (be, read, do etc.) for all persons in the singular and in the plural. It denotes a hypothetical action referring to the present or future.
He insisted that all **be** kept in secret.
 - b) The Past Subjunctive, which exists in Modern English in the form **were** used for all persons both in the singular and in the past. It expresses a hypothetical action in the present or future. Occasionally the form **was** can be found in the singular.
If it **were** true.
2. Some tense forms of the Indicative mood are used to express hypothetical actions or states. Thus the Past Simple and the Past Continuous are used to denote hypothetical actions in the present and future; the Past Perfect and the Past Perfect Continuous are used to denote hypothetical actions in the past. The perfect forms also express greater degree of improbability than the Past Simple and the Past Continuous forms. To differentiate the tense forms used to express hypothetical actions or states from tenses in the indicative mood they will be called Non-Factual Forms here (term used by N. Kobrina).
If I went ...
If I had gone ...
3. Analytical forms, which are built by means of the modal auxiliaries **should, would, may, might, can, could** plus any form of the infinitive.
The teacher suggested we **should all go** there.
I wish I **could help** you.

Since most of the forms used to express hypothetical actions are homonymous with the indicative mood forms (either with tense forms or with the combinations of modal auxiliaries with the infinitive), they are recognizable as Subjunctive only under certain conditions:

1. When they are used in certain sentence and clause patterns;
2. When their use is determined by the lexical meanings of the verb or conjunction;
3. In some set expressions.

Sentences with the Adverbial Clause of Condition

The Subjunctive Mood is used in Conditional Sentences to express an unreal condition in the subordinate clause and an unreal consequence in the main clause.

The conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of condition are:

if, unless – used in sentences of real and unreal condition;

in case, provided – used in sentences of real condition;

suppose – used in sentences of unreal condition.

Adverbial clauses of unreal condition containing the verbs **were, had, could** and **should** are often introduced without any conjunctions. In these cases we find inversion.

Had you come, we should have discussed these problems.

Were he here, he would help us.

The choice of the tense forms in the sentences of unreal condition depends on the time reference of the action:

1. If the unreal action in both the conditional clause and the main clause refers to the present or future, the Non-Factual Past Simple, or Past Continuous or the Past Subjunctive is used in the adverbial clause and analytical forms with **should** (1st person singular and plural), **would** (2nd, 3rd person singular and plural) + the Indefinite or Continuous Infinitive in the main clause. There is a strong tendency in Modern English to use **would** for all persons.

If I **spoke** English well, I **should go** to England.

You **wouldn't be talking** that way unless you **were hurt**.

If I **were** you, I **shouldn't go** there.

2. An unreal action referring to the future can be expressed in three more ways:

- a) **should + infinitive** for all the persons in the conditional clause and the Future Indefinite Indicative or the Imperative Mood in the principal clause.

If any of your family **should come** to my house, I **shall be delighted** to welcome them.

If you **should meet** him, **give** him my best regards.

- b) **would + infinitive** for all the persons in the conditional clause and **should/would + infinitive** or the Indicative Mood in the main clause. **Would** in the conditional clause expresses willingness or consent.

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

- c) the Past Subjunctive of the modal verb **to be + to infinitive** in the conditional clause and **should/would + infinitive** or the Imperative Mood in the principal clause. Both actions have future or present time reference.
 If he **were to tell** us everything, we **should try** to solve his problem.
 If I **were to tell** you everything, you **would be amazed**.
3. If the unreal action in both the conditional clause and the main clause refers to the past, the Non-Factual Past Perfect or Past Perfect Continuous is used in the conditional clause and **should/would + perfect or perfect continuous infinitive** in the main clause.
 If he **had not insisted** on our going there, nothing **would ever have happened**.
 If I **had tried** to leave the country, I **should have been stopped** at the frontier.
Had the world **been watching**, it **would have been startled**.
4. There are two mixed types of sentences of unreal condition. In the first of these the condition refers to the past and the consequence refers to the present or future.
 If I **had worked** harder at school, I **should be sitting** in a comfortable office now. I **shouldn't be sweeping** streets!
 In the second type the condition refers to no particular time and the consequence refers to the past.
 If he **were not** so absent-minded, he **wouldn't have mistaken** you for your sister.
5. Unreal condition can also be expressed in the following ways:
- But for ...
But for the rain, we **should go** down to the country.
 - If it were not for ...
If it were not for your help, I **should not be able to finish** my work in time.
 - If it had not been for ...
If it hadn't been for me, his own brother **would have shut** him up for life.
6. In sentences of unreal condition the modal auxiliaries **might** and **could** combined with different infinitives are often used:
- In principal clauses:
 If I **had** time, I **could/might go** there.
 - In conditional clauses:
 If I **could/might translate** this article, it **would** be nice.

The Subject Clause

In Modern English the choice of the Subjunctive Mood form is often determined by the structure of the sentence or the clause.

1. The Subjunctive Mood is used in subject clauses after a principal clause of the type:

It is necessary ..., it is important ..., it is desirable ... etc.

Should for all persons + infinitive or present subjunctive is used in this pattern in the subordinate clause.

It is/was necessary that he **should come (come)**.

It is/was obligatory that we **should be here (be here)**.

It was imperative that she **should/go (go)** home.

If the main clause expresses possibility (it is probable, possible, likely) **may/might + infinitive** is used.

It is likely that the weather **may change**.

It is possible that she **may be ill**.

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

It is not possible that she **should have told** you about it.

Is it possible that he **should refuse** to do it?

2. After the main clause expressing time – it is time ..., it is high time ... – the Past Subjunctive or Non-Factual Past Simple is used. The modal auxiliary **should** is also possible.

It is time you **went** there.

It is high time he **were** here.

It is time we **should do** it.

The Predicative Clause

1. The Subjunctive Mood is used in predicative clauses introduced by conjunctions **as if, as though** when we find link verbs **to be, to feel, to look, to seem** etc. in the main clause.

If the action in the predicative clause is simultaneous with that of the main clause, the Past Subjunctive or the Non-Factual Past Simple or Past Continuous is used.

She felt as if she **were** a girl of eighteen.

She looked as if she **knew** something.

I felt as though I **were talking** to a child.

If the action in the predicative clause is prior to that in the main clause, the Non-Factual Past Perfect or Past Perfect Continuous is used.

They seemed as if they **had made up** their mind.

The room looked as if it **had not been lived in** for years.

She felt as though she **had been working** for hours.

2. When the subject of the main clause is expressed by an abstract noun (wish, suggestion, aim, idea etc.) **should + infinitive** is used. If the subject is expressed by the noun **fear**, **may/might + infinitive** is commonly used.

Her wish was that we **should stay** at her place as long as possible.

The order was that we **should come**.

My fear was that one day he **might give up**.

The Object Clause

The choice of the Subjunctive Mood form in Object clauses depends on the meaning of the verb standing before the object clause.

1. After the verbs denoting order, suggestion, advice, request etc. either the auxiliary **should + infinitive** or the **Present Subjunctive** is used.

I suggest that they **should read (read)** it.

He proposed that everything **should be (be)** ready by 5 o'clock.

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

I am sorry she **should suffer** so much.

2. After the verb **wish** and phrases **I had rather**, **I would rather** different forms may be used.

- a) if the action refers to the present or future, or is simultaneous with the action in the main clause, the Non-Factual Past Simple, Past Continuous or Past Subjunctive is used.

I wish I **saw** you more often.

All the staff wish you **weren't leaving** so soon.

I wish I **were** a millionaire.

I'd rather you **went** home now.

- b) if the action refers to the past or is prior to the action of the main clause, the Non-Factual Past Perfect or Past Perfect Continuous is used.

I wish you **had known** it.

I wish I **had been taught** music in my childhood.

I'd rather you **hadn't done** that.

- c) if the action refers to the future the following forms are possible: **would + infinitive** (only if the subject of the object clause and that of the main clause do not denote that same person or thing. It is chiefly used in sentences expressing request or annoyance).

I wish he **would mind** his own business.

I wish you **would stay** with me for a while.

could + infinitive.

I wish I **could help** you.

3. After the verbs and expressions denoting fear, apprehension, worry (**to fear, to worry, to be afraid, to be anxious, to be terrified, to tremble, to dread** etc.) two forms are used depending on the conjunction introducing the clause.

- a) after the conjunction **that** (or if it is omitted) the modal auxiliaries **may/might + infinitive** are used. The choice of either **may** or **might** depends on the tense of the verb in the main clause.

I fear (that) they **may forget** about it.

They trembled (that) they **might be discovered**.

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

She feared lest they **should be late** for the lecture.

I am afraid lest he **should tell** her everything.

The Adverbial Clause of Comparison (Manner)

1. If the action of the clause of comparison is simultaneous with that in the main clause, the Past Subjunctive or the Non-Factual Past Simple is used.

She greeted him as if he **were** her brother.

She speaks (spoke) of him as if she **knew** him well.

2. If the action of the clause of comparison is prior to that in the main clause, the Non-Factual Past Perfect is used.

She spoke about this book in such a way as though she **had read** it.

She looked so pale and thin as though she **had been ill** for a long time.

3. If the action in the clause of comparison is presented as following the action in the main clause, **would + infinitive** is used.

He was whistling gaily as if his heart **would break** for joy.

The Adverbial Clause of Purpose

In adverbial clauses of purpose the use of the Subjunctive forms depends on the conjunction introducing this clause.

1. After the conjunction **that, so that, in order that, so** the forms **may/**

might or **can/could** + **infinitive** are used. If the action in the main clause refers to the past, only **might** and **could** are used in the purpose clause. If the action in the main clause refers to the present or future, both **may/might** and **can/could** are used.

I tell you this so that you **may/might understand** the situation.
The boy hurried his meal so that he **could go out** to play.

2. After the conjunction **lest**, **should** + **infinitive** is used.
She opened the window lest it **should be stuffy** in the room.

The Adverbial Clause of Concession

The adverbial clauses of concession are introduced by the conjunctions **though**, **although**, **even if**, **even though** and connectives **however**, **whoever**, **whatever**, **whenever**, **no matter how**, **no matter when**.

1. If the action in the clause of concession refers to the present or future, the modal auxiliary **may** + **indefinite infinitive** is used.
Whoever he **may be** he has no right to be rude.
Though he **may be** tired he will go to the concert.
2. If the action in the clause of concession refers to the past, **might** + **infinitive** or **may/might perfect** or **perfect continuous infinitive** is used.
No matter how hard he **might** try he couldn't do it.
However badly he **may have behaved** to you in the past he is still your brother.
Though he **might have been** suspicious he gave no sign.

The Simple Sentence

In simple sentences the Subjunctive Mood is used:

1. In exclamatory sentences beginning with **if only** to express an unreal wish. They follow the same pattern as conditional clauses **could/would** + **infinitive**, **Past Subjunctive**, **Non-Factual Past Simple**, **Past Continuous**, **Past Perfect**, **Past Perfect Continuous**.
If only he **were** here!
If only I **understood** what to do!
If only I **had listened** to my parents!
If only it **would stop** snowing!
Oh, if only mother **could stop** him!
2. In questions expressing astonishment or indignation. Here the following forms may be used:

- a) **should + infinitive.**
How the hell **should I know?**
Why **should you suspect** me?
 - b) **The Present Subjunctive.**
Why **accuse** everybody?
3. In oaths and imprecations.
Manners **be hanged! Confound** these flies!
 4. To express wish.
May you be happy! May it come true!
 5. In some set expressions:
Be it so! God/heaven **forbid!**
Far **be** it from me to contradict you.
Long live freedom! **God save** king!

Comprehension Questions

1. What does the Subjunctive Mood express?
2. What forms of the verb are used to express actions and states in the Subjunctive Mood?
3. What conjunctions can introduce adverbial clauses of condition?
4. What Subjunctive Mood forms are used in the sentences with adverbial clauses of unreal condition to refer the action to the present/future and past time?
5. In what other ways can unreal condition be expressed?
6. What Mood forms are used in Subject Clauses?
7. What kind of actions do the Past Subjunctive, the Non-Factual Past Simple (Continuous) and the Non-Factual Past Perfect (Continuous) indicate in Predicative Clauses?
8. What does the choice of the Subjunctive Mood forms in Object Clauses depend on?
9. What does the choice of the Subjunctive Mood forms in the Adverbial Clauses of Comparison (Manner) depend on?
10. What Subjunctive Mood forms are used in Adverbial Clauses of Purpose introduced by the conjunction **that**?
11. How is the action referred to present and past in Adverbial Clauses of Concession?
12. When is the Subjunctive Mood used in Simple sentences?

Summary Table

Mood Forms	Types of Sentences	Examples
I Synthetic Forms	Simple Sentence	Manners be hanged!
	Subject Clause	It is required that all be present.
	Predicative Clause	He looks as if he were ill.
	Object Clause	I wish he were here.
	Clause of Comparison	He looked at me as if he were surprised.
	Clause of Concession	Whatever be the reason for it, they conceal the facts.
Conditional Sentence (Subordinate Clause)	If I were you ...	
II Analytical Forms	Simple Sentences	May God be with you!
		I should like to go there.
	Subject Clause	It is necessary that you should do it.
		It is likely it may snow.
	Predicative Clause	The order is that we should move.
		My fear was that he might leave.
	Object Clause	He recommended that we should do it.
		I fear lest he should find it out.
		I wish he would come.
	Clause of Concession	No matter how tired he might be, he continued his work.
	Clause of Purpose	She clenched her teeth lest she should cry.
		Here is my phone number that you may contact me any time.
Conditional Sentence (Main Clause)	I should worry if ...	
	I should have worried if ...	
III Non- Factual Forms	Simple Sentence	If only I knew it!
	Subject Clause	It is time he came home.
	Predicative Clause	He looks as if he knew something.
		He looks as if he had known it long ago.
	Object Clause	I wish he came here.
		She wishes she had never met him.
	Clause of Comparison	She looked at me as if she wanted to ask something.
		The girl spoke French so well as if she had lived in France for years.
	Conditional Sentence (Subordinate Clause)	... if she went out alone.
... if she had gone out alone.		

THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB

(The Verbals)

The verb has finite and non-finite forms. The non-finite forms are also called verbals. The verbals do not express person, number or mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

The verbals have tense and voice distinctions, but their tense distinctions differ greatly from those of the finite verb.

There are three verbals in English:

the **participle**,
the **gerund**,
the **infinitive**.

The characteristic traits of the verbals are as follows:

1. They have a double nature, nominal and verbal. The participle combines the characteristics of a verb with those of an adjective; the gerund and the infinitive combine the characteristics of a verb with those of a noun.
2. The tense distinctions of the verbals are not absolute (like those of a finite verb), but relative. The form of a verbal does not show whether the action it denotes refers to the present, past or future. It shows only whether the action expressed by the verbal is simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb or prior to it.
3. All the verbals can form predicative constructions, i.e. constructions consisting of two elements, a nominal (noun or pronoun) and a verbal (participle, gerund or infinitive). The verbal element stands in predicate relation to the nominal element, i.e. in a relation similar to that between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. In most cases predicative constructions form syntactic units, serving as one part of the sentence.

In the sentence a verbal may occur:

- a) singly, i.e. without accompanying words.
He spends two hours a day **travelling**.
- b) in phrases, i.e. with one or several accompanying words. These phrases form syntactic units serving as one part of the sentence.
We wasted the whole afternoon **trying to repair the car**.
- c) in predicative constructions.
I see **him passing my house every day**.

The Participle

The Participle is a non-finite form of the verb, which has a verbal and adjectival or adverbial character. There are two participles in English. **Participle I** and **Participle II**, traditionally called the **Present Participle** and the **Past Participle**.

Participle I is formed by adding the suffix **-ing** to the stem of the verb:
to give – giving.

Participle II of regular verbs is formed by adding **-ed** to the stem of the verb, or only **-d** if the stem of the verb ends in **-e**:

to want – wanted
to unite – united

Participle II of irregular verbs is the third principal form of the verb:
to write – wrote – written

The adjectival or adverbial character of the Participle is manifested in its syntactical functions as an attribute or an adverbial modifier.

He spent a lot of money **modernizing the house** (adv. modif.)
This is a new type of **self-winding** watch (attr.)

Note: Some articles have lost their verbality altogether and have become adjectives: **interesting, charming, alarming** etc; **complicated, distinguished, furnished** etc. E.g. an interesting book, a charming girl, the alarming news, a complicated problem, a distinguished writer, a furnished apartment.

The verbal characteristics of the Participle are as follows:

1. The Participle can take a direct, indirect or prepositional object.
Seeing John, I rushed to greet him.
We didn't utter a word while **listening to the story**.
She entered the room **followed by her brother**.
2. The Participle can be modified by an adverb.
Leaving the room **hurriedly**, he ran out.
Deeply touched by her words, he rose and left the room.
3. Participle I has tense distinctions. Participle I of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions.

Participle I

Tense and Voice Distinctions of Participle I

Like the tense distinctions of all the verbals, those of the participle are not absolute but relative.

Participle I has the following tense and voice forms.

Voice \ Tense	Active	Passive
Indefinite	writing	being written
Perfect	having written	having been written

Participle I Indefinite Active and Passive usually denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, depending on the tense-form of the finite verb it may refer to the present, past or future.

Learning foreign languages | you **know** your native tongue better.
| I **used to begin** my day by repeating
| new words.
| you **will learn** a lot about your native
| tongue.

Sometimes **Participle I** Indefinite denotes an action referring to no particular time.

This was the road **leading** to London.

Participle I Perfect Active and Passive denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite verb.

Having learnt the elements | I **shall start** upon French.
of English | our German students **start** upon French
| or Spanish.
| we **started** upon French.

It should be noted that a prior action is not always expressed by **Participle I** Perfect. With some verbs of sense perception and motion, such as **to see, to hear, to find, to come, to arrive, to seize, to take** and some others, **Participle I** Indefinite is used even when priority is meant.

Entering the room that evening she found the letter on her desk.

Seizing ink and writing paper, she began to write.

Hearing the noise he rose and went to the top of the stairs.

Participle I of transitive verbs has special forms to denote the active and passive voice.

When **writing** letters he does not like to be disturbed.

Being written in pencil the letter was difficult to make out.

Having written the letter he went to post it.

Having been written a long time ago the manuscript was illegible.

Note: **Participle I** Indefinite Active may be contrasted not only with **Participle I** Passive, but also with **Participle II** of transitive verbs.

Participle I Passive may denote process.

taking – being taken – taken

mentioning – being mentioned – mentioned

teaching – being taught – taught

holding – being held – held

We listened to the furniture **being moved** upstairs.

We listened to the story **moved** to tears.

Syntactical Functions of Participle I

1. Participle I as an attribute.

Participle I Indefinite Active can be used as an attribute because it denotes a simultaneous action with that of a finite verb or an action, which is going on at the moment of speech.

We admire the stars **twinkling** in the sky.

When a prior action is meant, no Participle I can be used as an attribute. It is rendered in English by an attributive clause.

Seeing her friends, **who had come to see her off**, she came up to them.

In the function of an attribute Participle I can be in pre-position and in post-position, i.e. it can precede the word it modifies and follow it. Participle I in pre-position hardly ever has accompanying words.

Let **sleeping** dogs lie.

Participle I in post-position as a rule has one or several accompanying words.

She sat in the armchair **facing the window**.

2. Participle I as an adverbial modifier.

All the forms of Participle I may be used as an adverbial modifier. Participle I can be an adverbial modifier:

a) of time.

Having closed the door she sighed with relief.

If the action expressed by Participle I Indefinite Active is simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, the conjunction **when** or **while** is often used.

While waiting for him, she walked along the room.

Participle I Passive in this function usually denotes priority.

Being left alone, she started to sing.

Note: Participle I Indefinite of the verb **to be** is not used as an adverbial modifier of time. Clauses of the type 'Būdams bērns ...', 'būdams Rīgā ...', etc. may be rendered by 'When he was a child ...', 'When in Riga ...', 'When he was in Riga ...' etc.

- b) of cause (reason).
Being a little tired, she went to bed.
I turned back, **not knowing where to go**.
- c) of manner. In this function Participle I Indefinite is mostly used and it characterizes the action of the finite verb.
He looked at me **smiling happily**.
- d) of attendant circumstances. In this function Participle I Indefinite is used and it denotes an action or event parallel to the action or state denoted by the finite verb.
She was silent, **again looking at her hands**.
- e) of comparison. In this function Participle I is introduced by the conjunction **as if** or **as though**.
This was said **as if thinking aloud**.
- f) of concession. In this function Participle I may be introduced by the conjunction **though**.
Somebody was waiting: a man who, **though moving irregularly**, was making quite a speed in my direction.
3. Participle I as a predicative. In this function only Participle I Indefinite Active is used and its adjectival character is predominant.
The answer is **surprising**.
She remained **sitting**.
4. Participle I as a part of a compound verbal predicate. In this function only Participle I Indefinite Active is used. Participle I usually follows the verbs of sense perception: **to see, to hear, to feel** etc. and such verbs as **to keep, to leave** in the passive voice.
She **was heard playing** the piano.
They **were kept waiting** for several hours.
5. Participle I as part of the Complex Object. In this function Participle I Indefinite Active is mainly used, and Participle I Indefinite Passive occurs but seldom.
I saw **a boy playing** in the garden.
I saw **the books being taken away**.
6. Participle phrase as parenthesis. Here we always find a participial phrase, a single participle is not used in this function.
Generally speaking, I don't like boys.

Other phrases:

generally (properly, roughly, legally, strictly) speaking, taking everything into consideration,
putting it mildly, **judging** by (from), **allowing** for etc.

Participle II

Participle II has no tense distinctions. It has only one form, which can express both an action simultaneous with, and prior to, the action expressed by the finite verb; the latter case is more frequent.

I was reminded of a portrait **seen** in a gallery.

In some cases Participle II denotes an action referring to no particular time.

He is a man **loved and admired** by everybody.

Participle II of transitive verbs is always passive in meaning.

I like the subjects **taught** at the university.

Participle II of intransitive verbs is always active in meaning. The use of these participles is restricted. They are used only in compound tense forms and have no independent function in the sentence unless they belong to verbs, which denote motion or passing into a new state (**to arrive, to fall, to go, to rise, to depart, to decrease, to retire, to fade, to wither, to vanish**). These can be used as attributes.

e.g. arrived guests, the risen sun, the fallen leaves, the retired colonel etc.

Syntactical Functions of Participle II

1. Participle II as an attribute.

Participle II can be used in pre-position when it stands alone or forms a very short participle phrase containing an adverb.

He answered through the **locked door**.

This was a **neatly done** job.

Participle II can be used in post-position when it stands alone or is accompanied by a preposition, a by-object, an adverb and prepositional phrases as adverbial modifiers.

Things **seen** are mightier than things **heard**.

The dictionary **referred to** is to be found in our library.

There are cities **inhabited by their creators**.

The women dimly **seen in the shadow** are talking softly.

When Participle II or a participial phrase is detached, its position is not fixed. It may occupy the initial position, the mid-position or the final

position in the sentence. Detached attributes are separated from the noun by a comma in writing and by a pause in speech. They are mostly confined to literary style.

Greatly excited, the children followed her into the garden.

Johnson, **left in charge of both officers**, marched about for a little while.

And people hurried by, **hidden under their dreadful umbrellas**.

Note I: As it has been mentioned above, Participle II of intransitive verbs can be used attributively mostly with the verbs denoting motion and passing into a new state:

a **withered** flower, a **fallen** star

Note II: A few participles change their meaning according to their position.

a) concerned:

'the people **concerned**' means 'the people who were affected by what was happening';

'a **concerned** expression' means 'a worried expression'.

b) involved:

'the people **involved**' means the same as the people concerned';

'an **involved** explanation' means 'a complicated explanation'.

c) adopted:

'the solution **adopted**' means 'the solution chosen';

'an **adopted** child' lives with people who are not his biological parents.

2. Participle II as an adverbial modifier.

In this function Participle II is preceded by the conjunctions **when**, **while**, **as if**, **as though**, **though**, **until**. Participle II can be an adverbial modifier:

a) of time.

The book will remain in the library **until asked for**.

When heated ice turns to water.

b) of condition.

She was about to take a step, which, **if mistaken**, might lead to further complications.

Your assistant called you leaving a message where he could be found **if needed**.

c) of comparison.

She screamed **as if badly hurt**.

He was in a hurry **as though pressed for time**.

d) of concession.

He didn't hurry **though pressed for time**.

Though proofread several times the text contained a number of misprints.

e) of cause (reason).

Wounded in the leg, he limped a little.

3. Participle II as predicative.

In spite of himself, Val was **impressed**.

She seemed **surprised**.

4. Participle II as part of a complex object.

I found her **changed**.

Predicative Constructions with the Participle

The participle constructions are: The Objective Participial construction, the Subjective Participial construction, the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction and the Prepositional Participial Construction.

Predicative Constructions with Participle I

1. **The Objective Participial Construction.**

The Objective Participial Construction is a construction in which the participle is in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. In the Objective Participial Construction Participle I Indefinite Active is used, and occasionally it occurs with Participle I Indefinite Passive.

The Objective Participle Construction is used:

a) with verbs denoting sense perception, such as **to see, to hear, to feel, to watch, to notice, to observe, to perceive, to smell** etc.

I saw **John playing tennis**.

We watched **her running along the street**.

She could feel **her hands trembling exceedingly**.

b) with various verbs of causative meaning, such as **to have, to get, to keep, to leave, to start** etc.

I won't **have you arguing** with me.

They **kept us waiting**.

Can you start **this thing going**?

Note: the verbs **to have, to get** may be used in the construction without their causative meaning.

We have **some people waiting for us**.

She has got **some guests staying with her**.

- c) occasionally with verbs expressing wish, such as **to want, to like.**

We don't like **you going away.**

2. **The Subjective Participial Construction.**

The Subjective Participial Construction is a construction in which Participle I stands in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case; the noun or the pronoun is the subject of the sentence. The predicate verb is usually in the Passive Voice.

They were heard **talking together.**

The horse was seen **descending the hill.**

3. **The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.**

The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction is a construction in which the participle stands in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case; the noun or the pronoun is not the subject of the sentence. In this construction all tense and voice forms of Participle I are used. The construction is used in the function of an adverbial modifier.

It can be the adverbial modifier:

- a) of time.

The novel having been read, Jane put it aside.

The guests having left, the house became solitary again.

- b) of cause (reason).

The wind being favourable, our yacht will reach the island in no time.

It being now pretty late, we took our candles and went upstairs.

- c) of attendant circumstances. In this function the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction is mostly placed at the end of the sentence.

Mabel hurried out of the car and walked away, **tears streaming down her face.**

Llewellyn looked through the window, **his glance travelling towards the bridge.**

- d) of condition. In this function Nominative Absolute Participial Construction occurs but seldom and is almost exclusively used with participles **permitting** and **failing**.

Weather (time, circumstances) permitting, we shall start tomorrow.

The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction often occurs in fiction and scientific literature; the use of this construction in Colloquial English is rare.

4. **The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.**

The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction is introduced by the preposition **with**. It is mostly used in the function of an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.

She was standing on the rock ready to dive, **with the green water below inviting her.**

Many of the men stretched out full length on the wet grass, **and with the rain falling steadily upon them,** were sleeping the sleep of exhaustion.

Predicative Constructions with Participle II

Participle II is used in the **Objective Participial Construction** and in the **Nominative Absolute Participial Construction**, both non-prepositional and prepositional.

1. **The Objective Participial Construction** with Participle II.

The Objective Participial Construction with Participle II is a construction in which Participle II is in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. The construction functions as a complex object to transitive verbs. It is used with verbs.

- a) of sense perception (**to see, to hear, to feel, to watch** etc.)
I saw **Jane addressed by a stranger.**
We found **the door locked.**
- b) of mental activity (**to think, to believe, to consider, to remember.**)
I considered **myself engaged** to him.
At first she thought **him hurt.**
- c) of wish (**to wish, to want, to like, to prefer.**)
I want **it done by 5 o'clock.**
I'd like **the letter answered immediately.**
- d) with the verbs **to have** and **to get**. In this case the Objective Participial Construction shows that the action expressed by the participle is performed at the request of the person denoted by the subject or the sentence.
I had **my coat altered.**
You **must have your photo taken.**
You **can get your clothes made** in England.

In interrogative and negative sentences the auxiliary verb **to do** is used.

Where **did you have your hair done?**

I **didn't have my watch repaired.**

Occasionally the meaning of the construction is different: it may show that the person denoted by the subject of the sentence experiences the action expressed by the participle.

The wounded man had **his leg amputated**.

2. **The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction** with Participle II.

1) Non-Prepositional.

The Nominative Absolute Construction is a construction in which Participle II is in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or the pronoun in the nominative case; the noun or the pronoun is not the subject of the sentence.

The job finished, they went home.

This construction can be used in the functions of an adverbial modifier:

a) of manner.

She sat on the sofa, **her legs crossed**.

b) of time.

Dinner served, she rang the bell.

c) of attendant circumstances.

She stood mute, **her lips pressed together**.

2) Prepositional.

The construction is introduced by the preposition **with** and its nominal element is hardly ever presented by a pronoun. The main functions of this construction are those of an adverbial modifier:

a) of manner.

Thoughtful, Andrew finished his omelette, **with his eyes all the time fixed upon the microscope**.

b) of attendant circumstances.

Twenty minutes later he came out of number 7, pale, **with his lips tightly compressed** and an odd expression on his face.

Absolute Constructions Without the Participle

There are two types of absolute constructions in which we find no participles. The second element of the construction is an adjective, a prepositional phrase, or an adverb.

1. **The Nominative Absolute Construction**. It is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of time or attendant circumstances.

Breakfast over, he went to his house.

He went homeward alone, **his heart full of strange emotion.**

Note: mind the difference between the meaning of the following construction 'The lesson/concert/lecture over ...' and 'The lesson/concert/lecture being over...' 'The lesson over ...' has a temporal meaning, whereas 'The lesson being over ...' has as a rule a causal meaning.

2. **The Prepositional Absolute Construction.** It is mostly in the function of an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.

I found him ready, and waiting for me, **with his stick in his hand.**

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the characteristic features of verbals?
2. How do they occur in a sentence?
3. What are the tense and voice distinctions of Participle I? What kind of actions do they denote?
4. In what cases can a prior action be expressed by Participle I Indefinite?
5. What functions does Participle I have in a sentence?
6. What actions does Participle II express?
7. When can Participle II be used in pre-position/post-position?
8. Does the position of Participle II influence its meaning?
9. What are the Predicative Constructions with Participle I?
10. What is the Objective Participial Construction?
11. Which verbs can it be used after?
12. What is the Subjective Participial Construction?
13. What do we call the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction? What are its functions?
14. After which verbs is the Objective Participial Construction with Participle II used?
15. Which other constructions can Participle II be part of?

THE GERUND

The Gerund is formed by adding the suffix **-ing** to the stem of the verb, and coincides in form with Participle I. The Gerund has **nominal** and **verbal properties**.

The nominal characteristics of the gerund are as follows:

1. The gerund can perform the function of **subject**, **object** and **predicative**.

Growing roses or collecting stamps are hobbies.

We all appreciate **your helping us**.

My hobby is **collecting stamps**.

2. The gerund can be preceded by a preposition.

I'm looking forward **to seeing** you at Christmas.

3. Like a noun the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or a possessive pronoun.

I'm annoyed about **John's forgetting** to pay.

Do you mind **my making** a suggestion?

The verbal characteristics of the gerund are the same as those of the participle:

1. The gerund of transitive verbs can take a direct object.

Avoid **using very long sentences**.

2. The gerund can be modified by an adverb.

She burst out **crying bitterly**.

3. The gerund has tense distinctions; the gerund of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions. The forms of the gerund in Modern English are as follows:

Voice	Active	Passive
Tense		
Indefinite	writing	being written
Perfect	having written	having been written

The Tense Distinctions of the Gerund

The tense distinctions of the gerund are not absolute but relative.

1. **The Indefinite Gerund Active** and **Passive** denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb; depending on the finite verb it may refer to the present, past or future.

It's not much use **buying** salmon if you don't like fish.

2. **The Perfect Gerund** denotes an action prior to that of the finite verb.
She denies **having spoken** to him.

Note: However, a prior action is not always expressed by a Perfect Gerund, in some cases we find an Indefinite Gerund. This occurs after the verbs, expressing recollection, gratitude, blame, reproach, punishment and reward, such as **to remember, to excuse, to forgive, to thank** etc. and after the prepositions **on/upon, after** and **without**.

I shall never forget **taking** this examination.

I remember **talking** to him once.

Thank you for **helping** me.

On reaching the end of the street we turned towards the river.

Jane, **after reflecting** a little, gave a long sigh.

The Voice Distinctions of the Gerund

The gerund of transitive verbs has special forms for the active and passive voice. The perfect passive gerund is seldom used.

It is to be observed that there are some verbs **to need, to want, to require, to deserve** and the adjective **worth**, which are followed by an active gerund, though it is passive in meaning.

Your hair needs **cutting**.

This house wants **painting**.

The child deserves **praising**.

Your suggestion is worth **talking over**.

The Functions of the Gerund in the Sentence

The gerund may be used in various syntactic functions. A single gerund occurs but seldom; in most cases we find a gerundial phrase or a gerundial construction.

1. The gerund as a **subject**.

Beating a child will do more harm than good.

Note: The gerund used as a subject may follow the predicate; in this case the sentence opens with the introductory **it**, (which serves as an introductory subject) or with the construction **there is**. In the sentence with the introductory **there** the gerund is preceded by the negative pronoun **no**.

It's no use **talking** like that to me.

Well. There is no **avoiding** him now.

2. The gerund as a **predicative**.
John's hobby is **collecting all sorts of bugs and butterflies**.
3. The gerund as **part of the compound verbal predicate**. (With the verbs denoting the beginning, the duration, or the end of the action).
Again you start **arguing**.
They kept on **talking**.
4. The gerund as an **object**.
The gerund may be used as a direct object and as a prepositional object. Predicative constructions with the gerund form a complex object.
They postponed **giving** a definite answer. (dir. ob.)
Roy accused me **of disliking him**. (prep. ob.)
Do you mind **Ann's joining us?** (compl. ob.)
5. The gerund as an **attribute**.
In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition and mainly modifies abstract nouns.
I had the pleasure **of living** with them the whole summer.
Lucy had the impression **of being carried upstairs**.
6. The gerund as an **adverbial modifier**.
In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition. It is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of time, manner, attendant circumstances, cause, condition, purpose and concession.
The most common functions are those of adverbial modifier of time, manner and attendant circumstances.
 - a) As an adverbial modifier of time the gerund is preceded by the preposition **after, before, on/upon, in, at** or **since**.
One day, **on returning to his hotel**, he found a note in his room.
And I'll wash the dishes and clean up **before coming to bed**.
 - b) As an adverbial modifier of manner the gerund is used with the prepositions **by, without, in**.
She dressed **without making a sound**.
We reached the river **by crossing the field**.
The day was spent **in packing**.
 - c) As an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances the gerund is preceded by the preposition **without**.
They danced **without speaking**.
She was not brilliant, not active, but rather peaceful and statuesque **without knowing it**.
 - d) As an adverbial modifier of purpose the gerund is chiefly used with the preposition **for**.
He took her to the station **for questioning**.

- e) As an adverbial modifier of condition the gerund is preceded by the prepositions **without, but for, in case of**.
 He has no right to come bothering you **without being invited**.
But for meeting John, I shouldn't have become an English teacher.
- f) As an adverbial modifier of cause (reason) the gerund is used with the preposition **for, for fear of, from, owing to, because of, on account of, through**.
 I couldn't speak **for laughing**.
Through being left out all night in the rain, the metal had rusted.
 He dared not speak **for fear of making a fool** of himself.
- g) As an adverbial modifier of concession the gerund is preceded by the preposition **in spite of**.
In spite of being busy, he did all he could to help her.

Predicative Constructions with the Gerund

Like all the verbals the gerund can form the predicative constructions, i.e. constructions in which the verbal element expressed by the gerund is in predicate relations to the nominal element expressed by a noun or pronoun.

The nominal element of the construction can be expressed in different ways.

1. If it denotes a living being it may be expressed:
 - a) by a noun in the genitive case or by a possessive pronoun.
 We were surprised at **your leaving the party**.
 Do you mind **John's closing the window**?
 - b) by a noun in the common case.
 I have a distinct recollection of **Lady Chiltern** always **getting** the good conduct prize!

There are cases when the nominal element of the construction, though denoting a living being, cannot be expressed by the noun in the possessive case, but only by a noun in the common case.

- a) when it consists of two or more nouns.
 I object to **Mary and Jane going out** on such a windy day.
- b) when it is a noun modified by an attribute in postposition.
 Did you ever hear of **a man of senses rejecting** such an offer?

- If the nominal element of the construction denotes a lifeless thing, it is expressed by a noun in the common case or by a possessive pronoun.
I said something about **my clock being slow**.
She spoke of my room, and of **its being ready** for me at night.
- The nominal element of the construction can also be expressed by a pronoun, which has no distinctions, such as **all, this, that, both, each, something**.
I insist on **both of them coming** in time.

Note: In informal English it is more common to use the noun in the common case and the personal pronoun in the objective case instead of the possessive case and a possessive pronoun, especially when these forms are functioning as the grammatical object of the sentence.
Do you mind **me making** a suggestion?
I'm annoyed about **John forgetting** to come.

The Use of the Gerund

In Modern English the gerund is widely used and often competes with the Infinitive.

In the following cases only the gerund is used:

- after the verbs:

to admit	to excuse	to postpone	to risk
to approach	to fancy	to practise	to suggest
to avoid	to imagine	to put off	to understand
to deny	to mention	to recollect	can't help
to detest	to mind	to resent	can't stand
to enjoy	to miss	to resist	

I really **appreciate** having time to relax.
You **mentioned** having been in hospital last year.
Have you **considered** getting a job abroad?
Excuse my interrupting you.
She **could not help** smiling.
Forgive my speaking plainly.
- With the verbs and verb phrases used with a preposition: **to accuse of, to agree to, to approve of** etc.
You did not **approve of** my coming.
I don't **feel like** joking.
I rushed out to **prevent** her **from** seeing this dreadful sight.

The Gerund and the Infinitive

The gerund and the infinitive have much in common since they both have some nominal and some verbal features. However, in the infinitive the verbal nature is more prominent, whereas in the gerund the nominal one.

The basic difference in their meaning is that the gerund is more general whereas the infinitive is more specific and more bound to some particular occasion. When they combine with the same verb the difference in their meaning and use should be fully realized.

1. to like.

like + the gerund = enjoy

I **like walking** in the rain.

like + inf. = choose to, be in the habit of, think it right to.

I **like to get up** early so I can get plenty of work done before lunch.

2. to love, to hate, to prefer.

these verbs + gerund express a more general or a habitual action.

Personally I **prefer working** in the morning.

Some people **hate working** in the early morning.

I **love lying** on my back and staring at the sky.

these verbs + inf. express a specific single action.

I **hate to interrupt** you but I have to.

I'd **love to come** and **see** you some time.

'Can I give you a lift?' – 'No, thanks. I **prefer to walk**'.

However there is not much difference between the two structures.

3. to begin, to start.

With these verbs either form may generally be used but again the gerund is preferable when the action is more general.

She **began singing** when a child.

She went over to the piano and **began to sing**.

No gerund is used:

a) when the finite verb is in the continuous form.

He is **beginning to study** French.

It's **beginning to rain**.

b) with the verbs **to understand, to realize, to see** (meaning **to understand**)

He **began to understand** how it was done.

c) when the subject denotes a thing, not a living being.

The door began to creak.

The clock began to strike.

4. **to remember.**
remember + gerund = remember what one has done, or what has happened.
I shall always **remember meeting** you for the first time.
remember + infinitive = remember what one has to do.
Remember to go to the post office, won't you?
5. **to forget.**
forget + gerund = forget what one has done.
I shall never **forget seeing** the Queen.
forget + infinitive = forget what one has to do.
She is always **forgetting to give** me my letters.
6. **to stop.**
stop + gerund = stop what one is doing or does.
I really must **stop smoking**.
stop + infinitive = make a break or pause in order to do something.
(an adverbial modifier of purpose).
Every half hour I **stop work to smoke** a cigarette.
7. **go on.**
go on + gerund = continue what one has been doing.
The teacher **went on explaining** the use of verbals.
go on + infinitive = change; move on to something new.
The teacher **went on to explain** the use of the gerund after some verbs. (explained one rule and then started on another).
8. **to regret.**
regret + gerund = be sorry for what has happened.
I don't **regret telling** her what I thought, even if it upset her.
regret + infinitive = be sorry for what one is going to say.
I **regret to inform** you that we are unable to offer you employment.
9. **allow, advise, forbid, permit.**
These verbs + gerund are used when there is no personal object.
Sorry, we don't **allow smoking** in the lecture room.
I wouldn't **advise taking** a car – there is nowhere to park.
These verbs + infinitive are used when we say who is allowed, advised.
We don't **allow** people **to smoke** here.
I wouldn't **advise** you **to take** car.
10. **to try.**
try + gerund = make an experiment; do something to see what will happen.
I **tried sending** her flowers but it didn't have any effect.

try + infinitive = make an effort; attempt to do something difficult.
 Please **try to understand**.
 I once **tried to learn** Japanese.

The Gerund and the Participle

Unlike the participle the gerund:

1. may be preceded by a preposition;
 That was my last chance **of seeing** him.
2. may be modified by a noun in the possessive case or by a possessive pronoun;
 Do you mind **my making** a suggestion?
 I'm annoyed about **John's forgetting** to pay.
3. can be used in the function of a subject, object and predicative;
Talking mends no holes.
 I hate **writing** letters.
 One of my bad habits is **biting** my nails.
4. in the function of an attribute and adverbial modifier it is always preceded by a preposition.
After discussing the plan we started to carry it out.
 He was born with the gift **of winning** hearts.

The Gerund and the Verbal Nouns

The gerund should not be confused with the verbal noun, which has the same suffix **-ing**. The main points of difference between the gerund and the verbal noun are as follows:

The Gerund	Verbal noun
1. Like all the verbals the gerund has a double character – nominal and verbal.	The verbal noun has only a nominal character.
2. The gerund is not used with an article.	The verbal noun may be used with an article. <i>The opening of Parliament took place on Monday.</i>
3. The gerund has no plural form.	The verbal noun may be used in the plural. <i>Our likings are regulated by our circumstances.</i>

4. The gerund of a transitive verb takes a direct object. A verbal noun cannot take a direct object; it takes a prepositional object with the preposition **of**. *The coming of the transistor could not have been foreseen.*
5. The gerund may be modified by an adverb. *Drinking, even temperately, was a sin.* The verbal noun may be modified by an adjective. *Better training is one of big challenges of the 1990s.*
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Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the characteristic properties of the Gerund?
2. What tense and voice distinctions does it have? What actions do they denote?
3. When can a prior action be expressed by the Indefinite Gerund?
4. What are the functions of the Gerund?
5. What do predicative constructions with the Gerund consist of?
6. After which verbs is only the Gerund possible?
7. After which verbs does the use of the Gerund or the Infinitive make difference?
8. How can we differentiate the Gerund from Participle I?
9. What is the difference between the Gerund and the Verbal Noun?

THE INFINITIVE

In Modern English the infinitive, like the participle and the gerund, has a double nature, **nominal** and **verbal**.

The nominal character of the infinitive is manifested in its syntactic functions. The infinitive can be used:

1. as the subject of the sentence.
To go on like this was dangerous.
2. as a predicative.
Her plan was **to drive to London during the night**.
3. as an object.
I have never learnt **to read or to write**.

The verbal characteristics of the infinitive are as follows:

- 1) the infinitive of transitive verbs can take a direct object.
He began **to feel some curiosity**.
- 2) the infinitive can be modified by an adverb.
I cannot **write so quickly**.
- 3) the infinitive has tense and aspect distinctions; the infinitive of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions.

In Modern English the infinitive has the following forms.

Voice	Active	Passive
Tense		
Indefinite	to write	to be written
Continuous	to be writing	—
Perfect	to have written	to have been written
Perfect continuous	to have been writing	—

The Tense and Aspect Distinctions of the Infinitive

Like the tense distinctions of all verbals those of the infinitive are not absolute but relative.

1. The Indefinite Infinitive expresses an action simultaneous with the action by the finite verb, so it may refer to the present, past or future.
I am glad **to meet** you.
I was glad **to see** you, Paul.
She will be very glad **to see** you.

2. The Continuous Infinitive also denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, but it is an action in progress. Thus the continuous infinitive is not only a tense form, but also an aspect form, expressing both the time relations and the manner in which the action is presented.

The leaves begin **to be growing yellowish**.

3. The Perfect Infinitive denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite verb.

I'm glad **to have seen you**.

After such verbs as **to mean, to expect, to intend, to hope**, used in the Past Indefinite, the Perfect Infinitive shows that the hope or intention was not carried out.

I meant **to have telephoned**, but I forgot.

4. The Perfect Continuous Infinitive denotes an action, which lasted a certain time before the action of the finite verb. It is not only a tense form, but also an aspect form.

He seems **to have been sitting** there all day.

The Voice Distinctions of the Infinitive

The infinitive of transitive verbs has special forms for the Active and the Passive voice.

It is glorious **to love** and **to be loved**.

In sentences introduced by **there is ...**, both active and passive infinitives are possible with a similar meaning. We use the active infinitive if we think more about the person who has to do the action than the action itself.

There is a lot of work **to do/to be done**.

There are six letters **to write/to be written** today.

We usually say that **a house is to let**, but **to be let** is also possible.

The passive infinitive **to be seen, to be found, to be congratulated** are common after **be**.

He **was** nowhere **to be seen**.

The dog **was** nowhere **to be found**.

You **are** **to be congratulated**.

Note the difference

between **something/anything/nothing to do** and **something/anything/nothing to be done**.

There's **nothing to do** – I'm bored. (There are no entertainments).

There's **nothing to be done** – we'll have to buy another one. (There's no way of putting it right).

To blame is often used in a passive sense.
Nobody **was to blame** for the accident.

The Use of the Infinitive without the Particle 'To' (The Bare Infinitive)

In Modern English the infinitive is chiefly used with the particle **to**. Still there are cases when the so-called bare infinitive (the infinitive without particle **to**) is used. They are as follows:

1. after auxiliary verbs.
We shall **go** there at once.
2. after modal auxiliary verbs, except the verb **ought**.
I cannot **read** this.
3. after verbs denoting sense perception, such as **to feel, to hear, to see** etc. (the infinitive as a part of the complex object).
I never saw you **look** so well.
I felt my heart **jump**.
4. after the verb **to let**. (The infinitive as a part of the complex object).
Let us **go** to the cinema.
5. after the verb **to make** in the meaning **compel, force, persuade, cause** and the verb **to have** in the meaning **cause to, cause to be**. (The infinitive as a part of the complex object).
They made me **repeat** the story.
I had them **take** my luggage.
6. after the verb **to know** when its meaning approaches that of **to see, to observe** (perfect tenses of **know** only).
I have so often known a change of medicine **work** wonders.

In this case, however, the particle **to** is sometimes used.

I have never known her **to weep** before.

Note: After the verbs **to hear, to see, to make, to know** in the Passive Voice **the to-Infinitive** is used.

He was heard **to mention** your name several times.

They were seen **to leave** the house early in the morning.

The child was made **to obey**.

7. after the verb **to bid**. The verb **to bid** is obsolete and is not used in colloquial speech. (bid-bade-bidden)
Bid him **come** in.
8. after expressions **had better, would rather, would sooner, cannot but, nothing but, cannot choose but**.
You had better **go** to bed.

I would rather not **speak** upon the subject.

I cannot but **think** so.

There was nothing left for him to do but **watch** and **wait**.

9. in sentences of a special type beginning with **why (not)**.

Why not **come** and **talk** to her yourself?

10. When two infinitive structures are joined by **and, or expect, but or than**, the second infinitive is often used without **to**.

I'd like to lie down and **go** to sleep.

Do you want to have lunch now or **wait** till later?

We had nothing to do except (to) **look** at the posters outside the cinema.

I'll do any thing but **work** on a farm.

Rather than **wait** any more, I decided to go home by taxi.

11. Clauses, which explain the exact meaning of **do** can have the infinitive without **to**.

All I **did** was (to) **give** him a little push.

'To' Used Instead of Whole Infinitive

Instead of repeating the whole of an infinitive expression, we can simply use the particle **to**.

I went because I wanted **to** (... = because I wanted to go there).

Perhaps I'll go to Brazil this summer: I'd very much like **to**.

Sometimes **to** can be dropped (particularly after adjectives and nouns). It can also be dropped after some verbs (such as **try**).

He'll never leave home: he hasn't got the **courage (to)**.

'Can you start the car?' – 'OK, I'll try.'

After **want** and **would like**, **to** cannot normally be left out. However, **to** is often dropped when **want** or **like** are used in subordinate clauses.

Come when you **want**.

I've decided to do what I **like**.

Split Infinitive

A split infinitive is a structure, in which **to** and the rest of the infinitive are separated by an adverb.

I'd like **to really understand** Nietzsche.

He began **to slowly get up** off the floor.

Split infinitive structures are quite common in English, especially in an informal style. A lot of people consider them **bad style**, and avoid

them if possible, placing the adverb before **to**, or in end position in the sentence.

He began **slowly to get up** off the floor.

However, it is not always possible to construct sentences in other ways without changing the meaning:

Your job is **to really make** the club a success. (Here **really** intensifies the meaning of **make**).

Your job is **really to make** the club a success. (Here 'your job is really ...' means 'The real purpose of your job...')

The Functions of the Infinitive in the Sentence

1. The Infinitive as the **subject**. In this function the infinitive may either precede the predicate or follow it. In the latter case it is introduced by the so-called introductory **it**, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence.

To make mistakes is easy.

It is easy **to make mistakes**.

If there are two or more homogenous infinitive subjects in a sentence, all of them keep the particle **to**.

To be alone, to be free from the daily interests and cruelty would be happiness to him.

It was awfully difficult **to do** or even **to say** nothing at all.

The predicate of the subject expressed by an infinitive always takes the form of the 3rd person singular.

Not to go back was all she wanted.

To forget the past seems impossible.

2. The infinitive as a **predicative**. In this function the infinitive may be introduced by the conjunctive pronouns or adverbs **what, whom, where, when, how**.

Your duty will be **to do the shopping and cook meals**.

The problem was **what to do**.

3. The infinitive as **part of the compound verbal predicate**:
 - a) with modal verbs, modal expressions the infinitive forms part of the compound verbal modal predicate.

Grandma **must be watering** the flowers.
The train **was to leave** at midnight.
 - b) with the verbs denoting the beginning, duration, or end of the action the infinitive forms part of a compound verbal aspect predicate.

She **began to recite** the poem and then she was interrupted.
They **continued to dance** to the music.

4. The infinitive as an **object**.

They planned **to go on holiday** together.

After verbs the infinitive may be either the only object of a verb or one of two objects.

- a) verbs that take only one object are: **to agree, to arrange, to attempt, to care, to like, to choose, to claim, to consent, to decide, to deserve, to determine, to expect, to fail, to fear, to forget, to hesitate, to hope, to intend, to learn, to like, to long, to love, to manage, to mean, to neglect, to omit, to plan, to prefer, to pretend, to refuse, to regret, to remember, to swear, to tend** etc.

You'll soon **learn to read**, sonny.

She **agreed to come** at ten.

- b) verbs that take two objects, the first of which is a noun or a pronoun and the second an infinitive. These are the verbs of inducement.

to advise	to direct	to induce	to permit
to allow	to encourage	to instruct	to persuade
to ask	to forbid	to invite	to recommend
to beg	to force	to leave	to request
to cause	to have	to let	to require
to command	to impel	to make	to tell
to compel	to implore	to order	to urge

Tell **him to phone** me.

He asked **her to explain** everything.

We strongly recommend **you to see** this film.

In the function of the object the infinitive may be preceded by a conjunctive adverb or pronoun.

I don't know | **what to say.**
 | **where to go.**
 | **when to come.**

5. The infinitive as **part of the complex object**.

I never saw **you act** this way before.

6. The infinitive as an **attribute**. In English the infinitive can modify:

- a) nouns, both abstract and concrete:

He needs a **place to live** in.

I have a lot of **work to do**.

- b) indefinite, negative pronouns:

We had **nothing to lose**. Have you **anything to read**?

- c) ordinal numerals, adjectives **much, little, (no)more, (no)less, little more, next, last, enough.**
 He was **the first to come.**
 Jane was **the last to reach** the hall.
 A man in your position has so **much to lose.**
 I have **little more to add.**

In this function the infinitive may be preceded by a conjunctive adverb or pronoun.

I have no **idea where to go.**

7. The infinitive as an **adverbial modifier.**
- a) of purpose. In this function the infinitive can be introduced by **in order** and **so as**. In negative sentences, **in order not to, so as not to** and **not to** are used.
 I think I shall go to London **to improve my English.**
 She opened the window **in order to air the room.**
 I left very early **so as to avoid traffic jams.**
 I'm going to start now **in order not to miss the beginning.**
- b) of result (consequence). This chiefly occurs after adjectives and adverbs modified by **too**, adjectives modified by **so** and nouns modified by **such**. In the last two cases the infinitive is introduced by **as**.
 He was **too weak to speak.**
 Her younger son is **talented enough to get the first prize.**
 He is **so kind as to help me.**
 My brother is not **such a fool as to give up his job.**
- c) of comparison (manner); in most cases with an additional meaning of purpose. In this function it is introduced by the conjunction **as if** or **as though**. After adjectives or adverbs in the comparative degree the infinitive is introduced by **than**.
 She bent down **as if to look at the flowers.**
 He stretched out his hand **as though to shield his face.**
 To do well is better **than to say well.**
- d) of attendant circumstances. The infinitive shows what other actions take place at the same time as the action of the predicate.
 She woke up to see that the sun was shining. (= She woke up and saw ...)
- e) of time. The infinitive indicates the time of the action or state of the predicate verb.
 Mrs Brown lived **to be 92** (till she was 92).
 I'm terrified **to see him** (= when I see him).

The Infinitive as Parenthesis

The infinitive used as parenthesis is usually part of the collocation, as in: **to begin with, to be (quite) frank, to be sure, to make matters worse, to put it mildly, to say the least, to tell the truth, needless to say, strange to say, so to speak, to cut a long story short, to say the least of it** etc.

To begin with, you have been lying to me all the time.

To be quite frank, I don't like him at all.

He was, **strange to say**, just an ordinary chap.

Predicative Constructions with the Infinitive

In Modern English we find the following predicative constructions with the infinitive:

the Objective with the Infinitive Construction,

the Subjective Infinitive Construction,

the For-to-infinitive Construction.

The Objective with the Infinitive Construction

The Objective with the Infinitive Construction is a construction, in which the infinitive is in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. In the sentence this construction has the function of a complex object. It is used in the following cases:

1. After verbs of sense perception, such as **to see, to feel, to watch, to observe, to notice**, and some others. After the verbs of sense perception only the Indefinite Infinitive Active is used. If the meaning is passive we use Participle II. If the process is expressed, Participle I Indefinite Active is used.

No one had ever **heard her cry**.

I'm sorry I didn't **notice you enter** the room.

I saw **the fire slowly conquered**.

He saw **his mother coming**.

Note I: If the verb **to see** is used with the meaning **to realize, to understand**, or the verb **to hear** with the meaning **to learn**, the Objective with the Infinitive cannot be used. In this case Subordinate Object clause is used.

I saw **that he didn't know anything**.

I hear **you have dropped the idea of leaving him**.

Note II: After the verb **to see** and **to notice** the infinitive of the verb **to be** is not used. Instead, a subordinate object clause is used.

I saw **that he was pale**.

2. After the verbs of mental activity, such as **to think, to believe, to consider, to expect, to suppose, to understand, to find** etc. After verbs of mental activity in the Objective with the infinitive construction the verb **to be** is generally used. The infinitive is used in any form, though the non-perfect forms are the most frequent.

I find **him to be a very experienced computer engineer**.

I thought **her to be watching TV** in the dining room.

We can't believe **him to have robbed the bank**.

Note: With the verbs **to think, to consider, to find** the same idea can be expressed without an infinitive.

He thought **her beautiful**.

She found **the subject rather interesting**.

You consider **yourself an impressive person**.

3. After verbs of declaring, such as **to pronounce, to declare, to report**.

They reported **the train to have arrived**.

4. After verbs of wish and intention, such as **to want, to wish, to desire, to intend, to mean, to choose** etc.

I wanted **the letter to be sent today**.

She desired **me to follow her upstairs**.

5. After verbs of emotion, such as **to like, to love, to hate, to dislike** etc.

She disliked **her mother to work till late at night**.

She hated **him to speak like that**.

6. After verbs denoting order and permission, such as **to order, to allow, to suffer, to have** etc.

The doctor ordered **the patient to be ready for the operation**.

I won't have **you speak like that**, dear girl!

7. After verbs denoting compulsion, such as **to make, to cause, to get, to have**.

I can't get (persuade, cause) **him to do it properly**.

She made **me obey**.

8. The Objective with the Infinitive Construction also occurs after certain verbs requiring a prepositional object, e.g. **to count on/upon, to rely on/upon, to look for, to listen to, to wait for** etc.

I rely **on you to come in time**.

Can't I count **upon you to help me?**

After the verb **to listen to** the infinitive is used without the particle **to**.
He was listening attentively **to the chairman speak**.

The Subjective Infinitive Construction

The Subjective Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relations to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case.

The Subjective Infinitive construction is used with the following groups or verbs in the passive voice:

1. Verbs denoting sense perception: **to see, to hear** etc.
The rider was seen **to disappear in the distance**.
2. Verbs denoting mental activity: **to think, to consider** etc.
The manuscript is believed **to have been written in the 15th century**.
3. The verb **to make**.
The boy was made **to read the book**.
4. Verbs **to see** and **to report**.
He is said **to have returned at last**.
5. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the word groups **to be likely, to be sure, to be certain** etc.
She is likely **to be late**.
He is sure **to become your friend**.
6. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the following pairs of synonyms in the Active Voice: **to seem** and **to appear, to happen** and **to choose, to prove** and **to turn on**.
The strange little man seemed **to read my thoughts**.
Nothing appeared **to be happening there**.
He proved **to be a healthy child**.
The night turned out **to be cold**.
Don't **you** happen **to know her?**

The For-To-Infinitive Construction

The For-To-Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun or pronoun preceded by the preposition **for**. The construction can have different functions in the sentence. It can be:

1. Subject. (often with the introductory **it**).
For me to do it is rather hard.
Perhaps **it** would be best **for me to come first**.

2. Predicative.
That was **for him to find out**.
3. Complex Object.
We are eager **for the concert to begin**.
4. Attribute.
It is the correct thing **for you to do**.
5. Adverbial modifiers.
 - a) of purpose.
I shall close the door **for you not to sit in the draught**.
 - b) of result.
The article is too long **for the students to translate in an hour**.

With the expressions **to be sorry**, **to be glad** the infinitive is used only if the subject of the sentence represents at the same time the doer of the action expressed by the infinitive.

I am glad (pleased) **to have got** a ticket for the concert.

In other cases a clause is used with **to be glad** and **to be sorry**.

I am glad you got a ticket for the concert.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What are the tense and voice forms of the Infinitive? What actions do they denote?
2. When is the Infinitive used without the particle **to**?
3. What are the functions of the Infinitive in a sentence?
4. What does the Objective with the Indefinite Construction consist of?
5. After which verbs can it be used?
6. When is the Subjective Infinitive Construction used?
7. What do we call the For-To-Infinitive Construction?

THE PREPOSITION

A preposition is a function word, which shows the relations between two notional words.

The student, whose mother tongue is not English, has several problems with prepositions:

1. Most English prepositions have several different functions and these may correspond to several different prepositions in another language.

<i>English:</i>	<i>Latvian:</i>
angry at (cause, reason)	dusmīgs par , dusmīgs uz
let it go at that	paliksim pie tā

2. In English a certain construction may require a preposition whereas a similar one in another language may not, and vice versa:

e.g. **at** home – mājās, **at** work – darbā

3. Different prepositions can have very similar uses:

in the morning, **on** Monday morning, **at** night

4. Many words used mainly as prepositions can also be used as conjunctions and adverbs.

They were here **before** six. (preposition)

He has done this sort of work **before**. (adverb)

She did it **for** him. (preposition)

I asked her to stay to tea, **for** I had something to tell her. (conjunction)

5. Many nouns, verbs and adjectives are normally used with particular prepositions.

the reason **for**, to agree **with** somebody, clever **at**

According to their morphological structure the prepositions may be divided into:

1. simple (at, by, in, on, for etc.)
2. derived (concerning, considering, including, granted etc.)
3. compound (whithin, outside, upon, onto, alongside etc.)
4. composite or phrasal (but for, because of, in front of, for the sake of, due to etc.)

According to their meaning prepositions may represent various types of relations, those of **place** and **time** are the most prominent and easy to identify. Other relationships such as **instrument**, **cause**, **purpose**, **manner**, **means** etc. may also be recognized, although it is difficult to describe prepositional meanings systematically in terms of such labels because the relations enumerated above to a great extent depend on the meaning of the words connected by prepositions.

My car is **at** the cottage. (place)
 There is a new roof **on** the cottage. (place)
 Tom went **to** the door. (direction)
 He was standing **by** his brother. (position)
 They were there **at** ten o'clock. (time)
 He'll do anything **for** money. (purpose)
Because of the drought, the price of bread was high that year.
 (cause)
 We were received **with** the utmost courtesy. (manner)
 Someone had broken the window **with** a stone. (instrument)
 I usually go to work **by** bus. (means)

Sometimes the relation indicated by a preposition is too abstract to be defined in words, as its use is often figurative or metaphorical, as in:
 Such behaviour is **beneath** him. (abstract, figurative)
 He is **in** difficulties. (preposition is used metaphorically)

Prepositions of Place

Prepositions of place:

above	below	near	past
across	between	next to	through
along	by/beside	off	to
among	down	on/onto	towards
around/round	from	opposite	under
at	in front of	out of	up <i>etc.</i>
away	in/inside	outside	
behind	in/into	over	

1. **In/into, on/onto, at.**

IN (something is around on all sides):

in the kitchen, **in** the pocket, **in** the bag

in + town/country:

She lives **in** Riga

They live **in** Latvia

in + street (GB):

He lives in Baker Street

INTO (movement, entrance):

to climb **into** the lorry

Thieves broke **into** my house

ON (surface):

on the roof, **on** the desk, **on** the hill

ON (a line):

Riga, **on** the river Daugava
a village **on** this road, a town **on** the boarder

on + floor:

on the second floor

on + street (USA):

on the Fifth Avenue

on + the radio/TV/ the phone:

Is there anything good **on** TV tonight?

ONTO (movement involving change of level):

People climbed **onto** the roofs.

The cat jumped **onto** the mantelpiece.

AT (position, a point in space):

someone **at** home, standing **at** the bridge, **at** the bus-stop

AT (for events):

at the meeting, **at** the match

at + home/address:

at 22 Riga Street, **at** my father's (house)

2. **In, at** (with buildings).

IN (inside the building):

There were many people **in** the cinema.

I'll wait for you **in** the restaurant.

AT (the normal purpose of the building):

I was **at** the theatre last night (= watching the performance)

We were **at** the pub yesterday (= having a drink).

3. **In the end/at the end.**

IN THE END (finally, after long time):

In the end, I got a visa to the USA

AT THE END (at the point where something stops):

I think the film is a bit boring **at** the end.

4. **In pen/pencil/ink etc.**

Please fill in the form **in** ink.

Some common phrases:

in prison/hospital

in the country

in the foreground

in the lesson

in the sky

in a queue/line/row

in a book/newspaper

in the middle/centre

in the back/front of

in this picture

in the background

the car

on the platform

on this page

on the island

on the farm

on the screen

on the bench

on the coast
on the right/left

on the back of an envelope

at the station/airport
at the seaside
at the top/bottom of a hill

at home/school/work
at the end of a corridor

5. **From, to, at, in, by, on, off, out, out of, for** (travel, movement).

FROM ... TO (**from** a standing place to our destination):

We drove/flew/walked etc. **from** Riga **to** Ççsis.
When is he coming back **to** Latvia?

ARRIVE IN/AT:

arrive **in** a town or country, **at** or **in** a village,
at any other destination
They arrived **in** London.
Soon they arrived **at** the crossroads.

HOME:

to go/get home (without a preposition)
It took us a long time to get home.

But: if **home** is immediately preceded by a word or phrase a preposition is necessary. She returned **to** her parent's home.

to be/like/stay/work etc. + **at** home, **at** + ... + home *or*
in + ... + home (but **in** cannot be followed directly by **home**):
I can do this work **at** home *or* **at/in** my own home.

BY, ON, GET IN/INTO/ON/ONTO/OFF/OUT OF (transport):

to travel/go **by** car (but: **in** the/my/Nick's car)
by bus/train/plane/helicopter etc.
by sea/air

to go/walk **on** foot

to get into/on/onto a vehicle

to go **on/by** a bicycle

to get out of/off a vehicle

to go/ride **on** a horseback

to get on/onto a horse/bicycle

to go **on** board a boat (=embark)

FOR (direction):

The ship was making **for** the open sea.

6. **Above, over, under, below, beneath.**

ABOVE, OVER can both mean 'higher than' and sometimes either can be used.

Flags waved **above/over** our heads.

The water came up **above/over** our knees.

ABOVE (not directly over):

We've got a little house above the lake.

ABOVE (measurement):

The temperature is eight degrees **above** zero.

She's well **above** average in intelligence.

OVER (covering 'on the other side of', 'across' and 'from one side to another'):

We put a rug **over** him.

He lives **over** the mountains

There is a bridge **over (across)** the river.

OVER ('more than', 'higher than'):

You have to be **over** 18 to see this film.

There were **over** 100,000 people at the Sony Festival.

OVER (used with meals/food/drink):

They had a chat **over** a cup of tea.

BELOW/UNDER (both can mean 'lower than'):

Look in the cupboard below/under the sink.

BELOW (not directly under):

A moment later the sun had disappeared **below** the horizon.

BELOW (measurements):

Parts of Holland are **below** sea level.

UNDER (covered):

The whole village was **under** water.

UNDER (less than):

There were **under** twenty people at the lecture.

UNDER (junior in rank):

He is **under** me (=I'm his immediate superior)

BENEATH (can sometimes be used instead of **under**, but it is safer to keep it for abstract meaning: 'not worthy of', 'unworthy of'):

His accusations are **beneath** notice.

It is **beneath** you to complain.

7. **Beside, between, among, in front of, opposite, before** (place).

BESIDE (at the side of, by, near to):

Who's the big guy sitting **beside** Jane?

We camped **beside** a lake.

BETWEEN (normally relates a person/thing to two other people/things):

The letter B comes **between** A and C. (of place)

She was standing **between** Alice and Mary. (of place)

An army major ranks **between** a captain and a colonel. (of rank, order etc.)

This happened **between** two world wars. (of time)

I'll be at the office **between** nine and eleven. (of time)

We need two metres **between** the windows (of distance, amount, measure etc.)

This liner sails **between** Southampton and New York. (of movement: to and from)

AMONG (when somebody or something is in a group, a crowd or a mass of people or things, which we do not see separately):

She was sitting **among** her children. (showing position)

You are only one **among** many who need help (to show inclusion, association, connection; 'one of')

Leeds is **among** the largest industrial towns in England. (followed by a superlative)

divide/share + between/among (before a series of singular nouns we usually use **divide/share between**. Before a plural noun, we can say **between** or **among**):

He divided his money **between** his wife, his daughter and his sister.

I shared the food **between/among** all my friends.

difference + between (not among):

What are the main differences between crows, rooks and jack-daws?

BEHIND (to the rear of; not having made so much progress):

The boy was hiding **behind** a tree.

There is an orchard **behind** the house.

This country is far **behind** its neighbours.

Mary is **behind** the other girls in sewing.

IN FRONT OF (opposite of **behind**):

There is a bus stop **in front of** the school. (= the bus stop is on the same side of the road as the school).

OPPOSITE (across a road/river/room etc. from):

There is a bus stop **opposite** the school. (= the bus stop is on the other side of the road from the school).

There is a garage **opposite** my house.

BEFORE is normally used to refer to time, but it can refer to place in a few cases:

- a) to talk about the order in which people or things come in queues, lists, written documents etc.

Do you mind? I was **before/in front of** you!

Her name comes **before** mine in the alphabet.

- b) to mean 'in the presence of (somebody important)'

I came right **before** the magistrates for dangerous driving last week.

- c) in the expressions **right before one's eyes**, **before one's very eyes**.

Prepositions of Time

Prepositions of time:

at	by	from	since
after	during	in	till/until
before	for	on	to

1. In, on, at.

IN

in + year/month/season:

in 2002, **in** June, **in** summer

in + a week or more:

in the Easter holiday, **in** the summer term

in + part of day

in the morning, **in** the evening

ON

on + day/date

on Wednesday, **on** the 15th March, **on** that day

on + a single day

on Easter Monday, **on** Christmas day

on + day + part of day

on Monday, **on** Tuesday evening

AT

at + clock time/meal time

at three o'clock, **at** lunch (time), **at** that time,
at the moment

at + two or three days:

at Easter/Christmas, **at** the weekend (USA: **on** the weekend)

at + age

at sixteen/at the age of sixteen

IN/ON/AT + night

I woke up **in** the night. (= in the middle of the night)

It happened **on** Monday night.

I can't sleep **at** night. (= when it is night).

IN TIME/ON TIME

In time means 'early enough', 'not late'.

Passengers should be **in time** for their train.

On time means 'at the right time', 'on schedule'.

The 8.15 train started **on time**.

IN (for a future time measured from the present):

The building will open **in** six weeks.

2. **For, since.**

FOR is used of a period of time.

Bake it **for** two hours.

He travelled in the desert **for** six months.

for + a period of time can be used with a present perfect tense or a past perfect tense for an action, which extends up to the time of speaking:

He has worked here **for** a year.

I've had this bike **for** six months.

FOR (indicating purpose) may be used before known periods:

I rented a house **for** my holidays.

I was educated **for** the law.

SINCE means from that time to the time referred to. It is often used with a present perfect or past perfect tense and indicates the point in time when the action began.

He has been here **since** Monday. (= from Monday till now)

He had not seen her **since** their quarrel.

3. **By, before.**

BY + a time/date/period (at that time or before/not later than that date):

The train starts at 6.10, so you had better be at the station **by** 6 o'clock.

BEFORE (earlier than):

He came two days **before** Christmas.

BEFORE (in the presence of, face to face with):

He was brought **before** the judge.

4. **After** (next, in order to):

Put the direct object **after** the verb.

5. **From, during, till/until, to.**

FROM gives the starting point of actions, events or states. It says when things begin or began.

I work **from** nine to five.

From his earliest childhood he loved music.

DURING is used to say **when** something happens, with known periods of time.

My father was in hospital **during** the summer.

It rained all Monday but stopped raining **during** the night. (at some point of time)

TO can be used of time and place; **TILL/UNTIL** of time only. We can say **from ... to** or **from ... till/until**.

They worked **from** five **to** ten/ **from** five **till** ten.

But: if there is no **from** we use **till/until**, not **to**:

Let's start now and work **till** 2 a.m.

UNTIL (TILL) is used when we talk about a continuous situation or state that will stop at a certain moment in the future.

Can I stay **until** the weekend.

Till is more informal than **until**.

I slept **till (until)** ten o'clock.

TILL/UNTIL is often used with a negative verb to emphasize lateness.

We didn't get home **till** 2 a.m.

You can't stay out **until** midnight.

Noun + Preposition

1. a cheque / demand / need / reason / application / request / wish / desire / preference / taste / appetite + **FOR**.

They sent me **a cheque for** £ 50.

There's **a need for** facilities.

There's no **demand for** the product.

I've got **no desire for** a fight.

He wrote an **application for** a job.

2. a rise / increase / fall / decrease / reduction + **IN/OF**.

We use **in** with words for increases and decreases, but we use **of** before a number.

There has been **an increase in road accidents** recently.

There was **a reduction of fifteen percent**.

3. an advantage/disadvantage + **OF** or + **IN** doing sth.

The advantage of living alone is that you can do what you like.

There are many **advantages in living** alone.

4. cause / experience / opinion + **OF**.

Nobody knows what **the cause of** explosion was.

I have some **experience of** management.

What's your **opinion of these rumours**?

5. photograph / picture + **OF**.

He always keeps **a photograph of his wife in his wallet**.

6. student / knowledge + **OF**.

She is **a student of** chemistry.

I have some **knowledge of** Italian.

7. damage / invitation / reaction / solution / answer / reply / key + **TO**.

I paid for the **damage to** the car.

Did you get an **invitation to** the party?

Do you think we'll find a **solution to** this problem?

The **answer to** your question is 'no'.

He gave me **the key to** the door of his room. (also: the key **to** the problem)

8. attitude + **TO/TOWARDS**.

His **attitude to/towards** his job is very negative.

9. relationship/connection/contact/contrast + **WITH** (one thing has a link with other).

Do you have a good **relationship with** your parents?

Police want to question a man in **connection with** robbery.

But: relationship / connection / contact / contrast / difference + **BETWEEN** (there is a link between two things).

Police have said that there is no **connection between** the two murders.

There are some **differences between** British English and American English.

Preposition + Noun

1. **ON** holiday / business / a journey / a trip / a tour / a cruise / an excursion / an expedition.

I am travelling **on business**.

One day I'd like to go **on a world tour**.

2. **ON** fire.

Look! The house is **on fire**.

3. **BY** cheque / credit card (but: **in** cash).

Did you pay **by cheque** or **in cash**?

4. **BY** accident / mistake / chance.

We met **by** chance.

I pressed the wrong button **by mistake**.

5. **ON** television / the radio / the phone.

I didn't watch the match **on television**. I listened to it **on the radio**.

I've never met her but I've spoken to her **on the phone**.

6. **ON** the market.

It's the best hi-fi **on the market**.

7. **ON** purpose.

I didn't break the glass **on purpose**.

8. (to go / to come) **FOR** a walk / a swim / a drink etc.

She always goes for a walk with her dog in the morning.

9. **FOR** breakfast / lunch / dinner.
What did you have **for lunch**?

Adjective + Preposition

- nice / kind / good / mean / stupid / silly / intelligent / clever / sensible / impolite / rude / unreasonable + **OF** someone to do something.
Thank you. It was **kind of** you to help me.
- nice / kind / good / generous / mean / (im)polite / rude / (un)pleasant / (un)friendly / cruel + **TO** someone.
She has always been **kind to** me.
- angry / annoyed / furious + **ABOUT** something *or* **WITH** someone **for** doing something.
What are you **angry about**?
They were furious **with me for** not inviting them to the party.
- delighted / pleased / satisfied / disappointed / bored / fed up + **WITH** something.
I was **delighted with** the present you gave me.
She got **bored with** doing the same thing every day.
- surprised / shocked / amazed / astonished + **AT/BY** something.
Everybody was **shocked at/by** the news.
- excited / worried / upset + **ABOUT** something.
Are you **excited about** going on holiday next week?
- afraid / frightened / terrified / scared / proud / ashamed / jealous / envious / suspicious + **OF** someone / something.
Are you **afraid of** dogs?
He was **suspicious of** my intentions.
- aware / conscious + **OF** something.
These days everybody is **aware of** the dangers of smoking.
- good / bad / excellent / brilliant / hopeless + **AT** (doing) something.
He is **good at** Mathematics.
- married / engaged + **TO** someone.
She is **married to** an American.
- sorry **ABOUT** something, **FOR** doing something or **FOR** someone.
I'm sorry **about** the noise last night. We were having a party.
I'm sorry **for** shouting at you yesterday.
I feel sorry **for** George. He has got no friends.
- impressed + **BY/WITH** someone / something.
I wasn't impressed **by/with** the film.

13. famous / responsible + **FOR** something.
The police are responsible **for** maintaining law and order.
14. different + **FROM (TO)** something.
Bill and I come from the same town but my accent is **different from** his.
15. interested + **IN** something.
They were not **interested in** what I was saying.
16. capable / incapable / full / short / tired + **OF** something.
In the cupboard I found a box **full of** old letters.
17. fond **OF** something / someone.
Ann is very **fond of** her younger brother.
18. keen + **ON** something.
I'm not **keen on** Indian food.
19. similar + **TO** something.
Our house is **similar to** theirs.
20. crowded + **WITH** (people etc.)
This part of town is usually **crowded with** people.

Verb + Preposition

1. apologize + **TO** someone **for** something.
I **apologized to** him **for** my mistake.
 2. apply + **FOR** a job (a place at university).
He has **applied for** several jobs but hasn't had any luck yet.
 3. believe + **IN** something.
Do you **believe in** God?
 4. belong + **TO** someone.
Who does the bag **belong to**?
 5. care + **ABOUT** someone / something (= think someone / something is important).
He is very selfish. He doesn't **care about** other people.
- care + **FOR** someone / something:
- a) like something (usually in questions and negative sentences).
Would you **care for** a cup of tea?
 - b) look after someone.
She needs someone to care for her.
6. to take care + **OF** someone / something (= look after).
Take **care of** yourself!

7. complain + **(to someone) ABOUT** someone / something.
He **complained to the manager** of the restaurant **about** the food.
8. concentrate + **ON** something.
He decided **to concentrate on** his studies.
9. consist + **OF** something.
The book **consists of** five chapters.
10. crash / drive / bump / run + **INTO** someone / something.
He lost control of the car and **crashed into** a wall.
11. depend + **ON** someone / something.
We may go sailing – it **depends on** the weather.
12. die + **OF** an illness.
Far more smokers than non-smokers **die of** lung-cancer.
13. dream + **ABOUT** someone / something (= while asleep).
I **dreamt about** you last night.
dream + **OF** something / doing something (= think of, imagine).
I often **dreamed of** being famous when I was younger.
14. hear + **ABOUT** something (= be told about something).
Do you want **to hear about** our holiday?
hear + **OF** someone / something (= know that someone / something exists).
Have you ever read any books by James Hudson?
No, I have never **heard of** him.
hear + **FROM** someone (= receive a letter / telephone call from someone).
Jill used to write to me quite often but I haven't **heard from** her for a long time now.
15. laugh / smile + **AT** someone / something.
Don't **laugh at** me!
16. listen + **TO** someone/something.
You must **listen to** this record. You'll love it.
17. look (gaze, stare) + **AT** someone / something (= point one's eyes at).
look + **AFTER** someone / something (= to take care of).
look + **FOR** someone / something (= try to find).
Stop **looking at** me like that: it's getting on my nerves.
Thanks for **looking after** me when I was ill.
Can you help me **look for** my keys?
18. rely + **ON** someone / something.
You can always **rely on** me.

19. search + **FOR** someone / something (= look for). **Without preposition** (look through, look everywhere in/on)
I've **searched** the whole house **for** my keys but I still can't find them.
The customs **searched** everybody's luggage, and they **searched** the man in front of me from head to foot.
20. shout + **AT** someone (= when you are angry).
If you don't stop **shouting at** me I'll come and hit you.
shout + **TO** someone (= to communicate = call to)
Mary **shouted to** us to come in and swim.
21. speak / talk + **TO/WITH** someone.
Could I speak to you, please?
22. succeed + **IN/AT** something.
He **succeeded in** business.
23. suffer + **FROM** an illness.
My wife is suffering from hepatitis.
24. think + **ABOUT/OF** someone / something (= consider, concentrate the mind on).
That's a good idea. I didn't **think of** that.
25. wait + **FOR** someone / something.
I'm not going out yet. I'm **waiting for** the rain to stop.

Verb + Object + Preposition

1. accuse someone **OF** (doing) something.
She **accused him of** cowardice.
2. blame someone / something **FOR** something.
Everybody blamed me **for** the accident.
or: I was to blame **for** the accident.
3. charge someone **WITH** (an offence, crime).
Three men have been arrested and **charged with** robbery.
4. compare someone / something **WITH/TO** someone / something.
If you compare these results **with/to** last year, you'll see the improvement.
5. congratulate someone **ON** (doing) something.
I congratulated him **on** his excellent exam results.
6. divide / cut / split something **INTO** (two or more parts).
The teacher divided/split the class **into** two groups.

7. explain something **TO** someone.
Can you explain this expression **to** me?
8. insure something **AGAINST** something.
You should insure camera **against** theft.
9. invite someone **TO** (a party, theatre etc.).
Joan has invited us **to** a party.
10. prefer someone / something **TO** someone / something.
I prefer hot weather **to** cold. I hate the cold.
11. provide / supply someone **WITH** something.
The hotel provided/supplied us **with** a packed lunch.
12. regard someone / something **AS** something.
I have always regarded you **as** one of my best friends.
13. remind someone **OF** someone / something (= cause someone to remember).
You reminded me very much **of** someone I used to know a long time ago.

remind someone **ABOUT** something (= tell someone not to forget).
Remind me **about** the meeting tomorrow night.
I am sure to forget otherwise.
14. spend (money) **ON** something.
How much money do you spend **on** food each month?
15. thank someone **FOR** something.
Don't forget to thank Dave **for** his help.
16. warn someone **ABOUT/OF** something.
A large sign warned motorists **about/of** danger.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the preposition?
2. What are the main problems with prepositions for students of English?
3. What groups may the prepositions be divided into:
 - a) according to their morphological structure?
 - b) according to their meaning?
4. What are the main prepositions of place?
5. What is the difference between the prepositions:
 - a) above / over;
 - b) below / under / beneath;
 - c) beside / behind / between / among?
6. What are the main prepositions of time?
7. What is the difference between 'in time' and 'on time'?
8. What does 'since' mean? When is it used?
9. In what way are 'till / until / to' used?

THE CONJUNCTION

The Conjunction is a function word, which indicates connections between parts of the sentence, clauses or sentences.

According to their morphological structure conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

1. Simple conjunctions: **and, or, but, till, after, that, where** etc.
2. Derived conjunctions: **until, unless, provided** etc.
3. Compound conjunctions: **whereas, wherever**.
4. Composite conjunctions: **as well as, in case, as long as, on condition that** etc.

According to their functions all conjunctions fall into two classes:

1. coordinating conjunctions.
2. subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions join homogeneous parts of a simple sentence (words, phrases), clauses of equal rank in a compound sentence or independent sentences. Some of them can only join coordinated clauses (**so, for**), others only homogeneous parts of simple sentences (**both ... and**), others are used to join both clauses and homogeneous parts of the sentence (**and, but, or, either ... or, neither ... nor** etc).

Coordinating conjunctions always stand between the elements they join. The most common coordinating conjunction is **and**.

He plays squash **and** rugby.

He works quickly **but** accurately.

I make the payments **and** keep the accounts.

We came first **but** we didn't win the race.

They are ugly **and** expensive; **but** people buy them.

Subordinating conjunctions join subordinate clauses to main clauses, although some of them may join a word or phrase within a simple sentence. They are positionally less fixed than coordinating conjunctions and need not necessarily be between the elements they join, but may precede both the subordinate and the main clause.

Promise me **that** you will be in time.

She will come **when** she can.

When he was eight, he got work in another factory.

According to their meaning coordinating conjunctions may be subdivided into:

1. Copulative conjunctions, which denote addition; sometimes opposition or explanation, such as: **and, nor, neither ... nor, as well as, both ... and, not only ... but (also), besides**.
I'm an old man **and** I'm sick.

I had to visit a sick friend of mine; **besides** I didn't know you would come.

2. Disjunctive conjunctions, which denote separation, such as: **or, otherwise, either ... or.**

I'll call you on Saturday **or** on Sunday.

The majority of the inhabitants had escaped, **or** they had hidden.

3. Adversative conjunctions denote that two ideas contradict each other: **but, still, yet, nevertheless, however.**

They hadn't trained hard, **but/however/nevertheless/all the same** they won.

You aren't rich; **still** you could do something to help him.

4. A causal conjunction denotes reason: **for.**

We had better close the window, **for** it is rather cold.

The days were short, **for** it was now December.

5. Resultative conjunctions: **so, therefore, hence.**

Our cases were heavy, **so** we took a taxi.

The fog is at Heathrow; **therefore** the plane has been diverted.

Subordinating conjunctions can be divided into:

- 1) those introducing subject, predicative and object clauses: **that, if, whether.**

Whether he will come remains undecided.

The reason was **that** he did not want to do it himself.

I know **that** you speak the truth.

- 2) those introducing adverbial clauses. There are eight types of adverbial clauses:

Kind of clause	Usual conjunction	Example
1. of place	where, wherever	You can go wherever you like.
2. of concession	though, although, while	I saw you yesterday though you were one block away.
3. of time	when, before, after, since, while, as, till, until	The sun was still low when he went to the beach.
4. of reason / cause	as, because, since	Since you object, I shan't insist on our going there.
5. of condition	if, unless	If he comes, tell him to wait.
6. of purpose	lest, that, in order to, so that	He rose gently to his feet lest he should disturb her.
7. of result	so that, that	The night was so dark that we lost our way.
8. of manner / comparison	as, like, the way, as ... as, as if, than	The task was more difficult than we had expected.

Many of the subordinating conjunctions introduce different kinds of clauses.

That may introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, adverbial clauses of purpose and of result.

That he will come is certain.

Our attitude simply is **that facts are facts**.

He told me **that he would come**.

I shall explain it once more **that you may understand it well**.

The load was **so heavy that he couldn't lift it**.

If introduces subject clauses, object clauses and adverbial clauses of condition.

It made little difference **if I talked or not**.

Jane wondered **if Brian and Margaret were really suited for one another**.

If it is late, we must stop our work.

As introduces adverbial clauses of time, of cause, of comparison and of concession (if the predicative stands first).

As he shaved he thought about coming interview.

As he shaved with a blunt razor he didn't make a very good job of it.

He was crawling now **as Bill had crawled**.

Tired as he was he offered to carry her.

Whether can introduce subject clauses, predicative clauses and object clauses.

Whether he will come is uncertain.

The thing to be settled on now is **whether anything can be done to save him**.

Time will show **whether I am right or wrong**.

As if, as though may introduce predicative clauses and adverbial clauses of comparison.

It looks **as if it were going to rain**.

We could see his lips moving, from time to time, **as though he were talking to himself**.

Many conjunctions and prepositions are homonymous:

He has been with us **since** his arrival. (preposition)

He has been with us **since** he arrived in Riga. (conjunction)

We shall discuss it **after** the lecture. (preposition)

We shall discuss it **after** the lecture is over. (conjunction)

There are also homonymous adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions:

I have not seen her **since**. (adverb)

I have not been there **since** April. (preposition)

I have been reading **since** I came home. (conjunction)

I had never been there **before**. (adverb)

We shall discuss it **before** the lesson. (preposition)

Don't go away **before** I come back. (conjunction)

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the conjunction?
2. What groups are conjunctions divided into:
 - a) according to their morphological structure;
 - b) according to their functions;
 - c) according to their meaning?
3. What are the functions of coordinating conjunctions?
4. What are the functions of subordinating conjunctions?
5. What can subordinating conjunctions introduce?
6. What conjunctions are homonymous with adverbs and prepositions?

THE CONJUNCTS

(The Linking Adjuncts)

A conjunct is an adverbial with a joining (or connective) function, often that of joining a clause or sentence to an earlier clause or sentence.

Conjuncts have a variety of meanings. They may indicate:

1. Addition: **also, as well, at the same time, besides, furthermore, moreover, on top of that, too.**

Furthermore, more machines will mean fewer jobs.

The drug has powerful side effect. **Moreover** it can be addictive.

Sugar is bad for teeth. It can **also** contribute to heart disease.

2. A Parallel: **again, equally, in the same way, likewise, similarly.**

The boy was forbidden to go out. Younger children **likewise** stayed at home.

The son will follow his father's example and **similarly**, the daughter will model herself on her mother.

3. Contrasts and alternatives: **all the same, by contract, conversely, however, instead, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, rather, still, though, yet.**

He had forgotten that there was a rainy season in the winter months. It was, **however**, a fine, soft rain and the air was warm.

Her aim is to punish the criminal. **Nevertheless**, she is not convinced that imprisonment is always the answer.

4. Causes: **according, as a result, consequently, hence, so, thereby, therefore, thus.**

It isn't giving any detailed information. **Therefore** it isn't necessary.

Oxford and Cambridge have a large income of their own. **So** they are not in quite the same position as other universities.

5. Sequence in time: **afterwards, at the same time, beforehand, finally, in the meantime, meanwhile, previously, subsequently** etc.

Susan ordered another coffee. **Meanwhile** outside it began to rain. She wanted to laugh and **at the same time** she wanted to cry.

6. Enumeration: **first, firstly, second, secondly** etc. **next, then, lastly, finally, in conclusion** etc.

What are the advantages of geo-thermal energy? **Firstly**, there is no fuel required, the energy already exists. **Secondly**, there is

plenty of it. **Finally**, I want to say something about the heat pump.

7. Explanation: **namely, in other words, for example (e.g.), for instance, that is (i.e.), viz, say.**

Only one boy was absent, **namely** Harry.

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the Conjunct?
2. What may conjuncts indicate? Give examples.

THE INTERJECTION

The Interjection is a part of speech, which expresses various emotions without naming them.

Interjections express different kinds of feelings, such as:

1. joy (hurray, hurrah):
Hurrah for the Queen!
2. grief, sorrow (alas, dear me, dear, oh):
Alas! The white house was empty and there was a bill in the window 'To let'.
Dear, dear, what changes!
3. approval (bravo; hear, hear):
Bravo! Well done!
4. contempt (pooh, gosh, bosh, pah, bah, fie):
Fie upon you, you ought to be ashamed!
5. triumph (aha).
6. impatience (bother):
Oh, bother! I can't see anyone now. Who is it?
7. anger (damn):
Damn your impudence!
8. surprise or annoyance (Goodness gracious, My God):
'Good Heavens!' cried my mother, 'you'll drive me mad!'

Some interjections are used merely to attract attention (hallo, hi, hey, here):

Hallo! What's happening now?

Oh dear! I've lost my pen.

The meaning of other interjections is very vague, they express emotion in general and the specific meaning depends either on the context, or the situation, or the tone, with which they are pronounced.

Oh! Really? (surprise)

Oh! How glad I am to see you. (joy)

Oh! Don't be a stupid ass! (anger)

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the interjection?
2. What do interjections express?
3. What does the meaning of some interjections depend on?

THE PARTICLE

The particle is a part of speech, which either emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word, or phrase, or clause.

Particles are invariable and have no syntactical function in the sentence. They form a whole with the part of the sentence (a word or a phrase) they refer to. Particles may combine with any part of speech.

Isn't it **just** marvellous?

She lives **just** round the corner.

Particles generally stand before the word they refer to but they may also follow it.

I **only** wanted to make you speak.

This book is for university students **only**.

According to their meanings particles fall under the following main groups:

1. Limiting particles: **only, merely, solely, but, alone, barely** etc.

Only the students were present.

Man cannot live on bread **alone**.

2. Intensifying particles: **just, even, yet, still, all, simply** etc.

I **simply** do not understand you.

You are **just** the person I need.

They did not **even** know that he was married.

3. Connecting particles: **also, too** (which may function as conjuncts).

He was silent. James, **too**, was silent.

He came in and took off the hat and overcoat. Then his brother came in and he **also** took off his hat and overcoat.

4. Specifying particles: **right, exactly, precisely, just**.

Draw a circle **right** in the middle of the map.

We were **just** about to leave.

What **exactly** do you mean?

They arrived **precisely** at ten.

5. The Additive particle: **else**. It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs. It shows that the word it refers to denotes something additional to what has already been mentioned.

Something **else**, nobody **else**, what **else**, where **else**.

6. The negative particle: **not**.

Not a word was said about it.

Not everyone likes this book.

Some particles (just, simply, yet, precisely etc.) are homonymous with adverbs:

She is old **too**. (particle)

She is **too** old. (adverb)

He is **just** the man I'm looking for. (particle)

He has **just** arrived. (adverb)

Other particles are homonymous with adjectives (**only, even**), conjunctions (**but**), pronouns (**all**), statives (**alone**).

Only a doctor can do that. (particle)

She is the **only** person for the job. (adjective)

Comprehension Questions:

1. What is the particle?
2. Do particles have any functions in the sentence?
3. What parts of speech may particles combine with?
4. What is the place of particles in the sentence?
5. What groups do particles fall under according to their meanings?
6. What particles are homonymous with adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions and pronouns?

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