

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ВОЛИНСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ ЛЕСІ УКРАЇНКИ**

КАФЕДРА ПРАКТИКИ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

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ENGLISH SYNTAX

**Навчально-методична розробка
для студентів факультету іноземної філології**

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Навчально-методична розробка з теорії та практики синтаксису сучасної англійської мови призначена для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня спеціальностей «014 Середня освіта (Англійська мова та зарубіжна література)» та «035 Філологія. Мова і література (Англійська). Переклад».

Розробка є складовою навчально-методичного забезпечення освітнього компоненту «Англійська мова», в якій описано основи синтаксичної будови англійської мови, зокрема синтаксис простого і складного речення, запропоновано схеми аналізу простого і складного речення та подано систему вправ.

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THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Classification of simple sentences

A **simple sentence** is a sentence expressed by one clause containing the subject and the predicate.

The classification of simple sentences is based on two principles:

- 1) according to **the purpose of the utterance**;
- 2) according to **the structure**.

According to the **purpose of the utterance**, there are four types of simple sentences: **declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory**.

The **declarative sentence** states a fact in the affirmative or negative form.

e.g. *He joined the conversation.*

The **interrogative sentence** contains questions. There are four types of questions: **yes/no questions (general)**; **“wh” questions (special)**; **alternative questions**; **tag (disjunctive) questions**.

The **imperative sentence** expresses a command, a request, an invitation, a warning, etc. Imperative sentences have the verb in the imperative mood.

Commands are generally characterized by a **falling tone**. Such sentences usually don't have the subjects.

e.g. *“Put down that gun, Wicks, and put up your hands”*

Requests and **invitations** are generally characterized by a **rising tone**.

e.g. *'Come in! Open the window, please!*

To make the imperative sentence **emphatic**, place **do** at the beginning. e.g. *Do come back!*

Negative imperative is formed by placing **don't** at the beginning. e.g. *Don't go home!*

The common variant of forming **the negative imperative** with **let's** is:

e.g. *Let's not argue about it!*

The **exclamatory sentence** expresses some kind of emotion or feeling. It often begins with the words **what** and **how**. **What** refers to a **noun**, **how** to an **adjective** or an **adverb**. It is always in the **declarative form**, i.e. **no inversion** takes place. The exclamatory sentences are generally spoken with **the falling tone** and have an exclamation mark in writing.

e.g. *'What nasty weather we are having today! How fast she is walking! How I agree with you!*

According to their structure simple sentences are divided into **two-member** and **one-member** sentences. The usual type of a sentence is a **two-member sentence**, which comprises a subject and a predicate.

e.g. *Coffee was taken to the library.*

A **two-member sentence** may be **complete** and **incomplete**. It is **complete** when it has the subject and the predicate. e.g. *Tim passed him the milk.*

It is **incomplete** when one of the principal parts or both of them are **missing**, but can be easily **understood from the context**. Such sentences are called **elliptical**.

e.g. *Where are you going? – To the cinema. Who did it? – John of course.*

The following parts of the sentence may be **omitted**:

the subject: e.g. *See you tomorrow.* (“**I**” is omitted.)

the predicate: e.g. *Nobody under the table, nobody under the sofa.*

In questions: e.g. *Oh. You serious?* (“**Are**” is omitted.)

Sometimes **several parts** of the sentence are **omitted**, especially:

a) **in an answer to a question or in lively speech:** e.g. “*Where is he?*” – “***In the picture-gallery.***”

b) **in interrogative sentences:** e.g. *Know what I mean?* (“**Do you**” is omitted)

c) **after an infinitive to:**

e.g. A: *Oh dear! Take me home!*

B: *I’d love to.* (“**take you home**” is omitted)

A **one-member** sentence is a sentence having only one member, which is neither the subject nor the predicate. Such sentences are generally used in **descriptions** and in **emotional speech**.

e.g. *The grass, this good, soft, lush grass. The sky, the flowers, the songs of birds! Only to think of it!*

Thank you! Sorry! Please. Never mind. “Have a drink?” – “Thanks, very much!”

Simple sentences, both two-member and one-member, can be **unextended** and **extended**. A sentence consisting only of the primary or principal parts is called an **unextended sentence**.

e.g. *John is an engineer.*

Mor was touched.

Extended sentence is a sentence consisting of **the subject, the predicate and one or more secondary parts** (objects, attributes, or adverbial modifiers).

e.g. *My friend John is an excellent doctor.*

At these small stations the trains waited only a minute.

EXERCISES. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Classification of simple sentences

Ex. 1. Define the kinds of sentences according to the purpose of the utterance.

1. "What a curious feeling!" said Alice. 2. "Oh, my ears and whiskers, how late it's getting!" 3. "Stop this moment, I tell you!" 4. "Dear! Dear! How queer everything is today!" 5. "Who in the world am I? Ah, that's the great puzzle!" 6. "Oh, dear, how puzzling it all is!" 7. "Come up again, dear!" I shall only look up and say, "Who am I, then?" 8. "How can I have done that?" she thought. 9. "Oh, Mouse, do you know the way out of this pool?" 10. "Oh, I beg your pardon!" cried Alice hastily.

Ex. 2. Define the kinds of sentences according to the purpose of the utterance.

1. "But who is to give the prizes?" quite a chorus of voices asked. 2. "Let's go on with the game," the Queen said to Alice. 3. "How puzzling all these changes are!" 4. "Come, there's half my plan done now!" 5. "Tell us a story!" said the March Hare. 6. "Who's making personal remarks now?" the Hatter asked triumphantly. 7. "Take some more tea," the March Hare said to Alice very earnestly. 8. Alice did not quite know what to say to this. 9. "How are you getting on now, my dear?" 10. "What's your name, child?" asked the Queen.

Ex. 3. Point out two-member sentences. Say whether they are complete or incomplete (elliptical) and one-member sentences.

1. I went down on my knees at once. 2. "Is Dr. Livesey in?" I asked. – "No," she said. 3. "And who's that?" cried the squire. "Name the dog, sir!" 4. "Where are we?" I asked. "Bristol," said Tom. "Get down." 5. "You didn't know his name, did you?" – "No, sir." 6. "Mr. Silver, sir?" I asked, holding out the not. "Yes, my lad," said he. 7. "Who did you say he was?" he asked. "Black what?" – "Dog, sir," said I. "So?" cried Silver. "In my house! Ben, run and help Harry." 8. "And you don't like Mr. Arrow?" – "I don't, sir." 9. "Thank you, my man," says Captain Smollett. 10. The hills ran up clear above the vegetation in spires of naked rock.

Ex. 4. Point out two-member sentences. Say whether they are complete or incomplete (elliptical) and one-member sentences.

1. "And how many birthdays have you?" – "One." 2. "And if you take one from three hundred and sixty-five, what remains?" – "Three hundred and sixty-four, of course." 3. "How old are you?" – "Seven years and six months!" Humpty Dumpty repeated thoughtfully. 4. "Must a name mean something?" Alice asked doubtfully. – "Of course, it must," Humpty Dumpty said with a short laugh. 5. "Don't stand chattering to yourself like that. But tell me your name and your business." 6. "Are there many crabs here?" said Alice. "Crabs and all sorts of things," said the Sheep. 7. "Oh, what a lovely day!" 8. "I'm not a bird!" – "You are," said the Sheep. 9. "Can you row?" the Sheep asked. "Yes, a little – but not on land – and not with needles." 10. "Father! Father!" the Sheep cried again. 11. "Who are you?" I asked. "Ben Gunn," he answered. 12. "Did you hit your man?" asked the captain. "No, sir," replied Joyce. "I believe not, sir." 13. "Round the house, lads! Round the house!" cried the captain. 14. "Much hurt?" I asked him. 15. "A dear little crab!" thought Alice.

PARTS OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Parts of the sentence are usually classified into **main** and **secondary**. The **main parts** of the sentence are **the subject** and **the predicate**. The **secondary parts** of the sentence are **the object, the attribute, the apposition and the adverbial modifier**. The secondary parts of the sentence modify the main parts or each other. Besides, there are so-called **independent elements**, that is, elements standing *outside the structure* of the sentence, and therefore of lesser importance.

THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE SENTENCE. THE SUBJECT

The subject is grammatically *independent* of the other parts of the sentence. In English **in declarative sentences** it normally comes immediately before the predicate, whereas in **questions** its position is immediately after the predicate. It means that in English sentences any word or words, which occur in these positions, are to be treated as **the subject** of the sentence.

Ways of expressing the subject

The subject may be:

a) a noun in the common case (including substantivized adjectives and participles) or a nominal phrase with a noun:

e.g. *The meetings took place in the Parish Hall. The grocer's was full.*

b) a substantivized adjective or participle:

e.g. *The poor were against their oppression.*

c) a pronoun – personal, demonstrative, defining, indefinite, negative, possessive, interrogative:

e.g. *It was a beautiful way for her to do it.*

Who told you to buy this book?

d) a numeral (cardinal or ordinal):

e.g. *The four at the table sat frozen. The third was his uncle.*

e) an infinitive or an infinitive phrase:

e.g. *To deny the past is to deny the future.*

f) a gerund or a gerundial phrase:

e.g. *Walking is a healthy exercise.*

g) any other word when it is substantivized (used as quotations).

e.g. *"But" is a conjunction.*

h) an syntactically indivisible group:

e.g. *Twice two is four. The needle and thread is lost.*

i) a clause:

e.g. *That he was a doctor of high reputation appeared to be the truth.*

It as the subject of the sentence

It as a subject may be **notional** (representing *a living being or a thing*) and **formal** (when it *does not represent any living being or thing* but performs a purely grammatical function).

1. As a **notional** subject the pronoun *it* may be used in the following cases:

a) **when it stands for a definite thing or some abstract idea (the personal *it*).**

e.g. *I bought a book. It was very interesting.*

b) **when it points out some person or thing expressed in the sentence by a predicative noun (the demonstrative *it*).** e.g. *It was a pretty furnished room.*

2. As a **formal** subject *it* may be used as: a) **the impersonal *it***; b) **the introductory *it***; c) **the emphatic *it***:

a) **the impersonal *it*** is used in the sentences denoting *time, distance, measurements, describing various states of nature*. e.g. *It was almost dark. It took her an hour to climb up the steep trail under the oaks.*

b) the formal subject *it* is **introductory (anticipatory)** if it introduces the notional subject expressed by *an infinitive, a gerund, an infinitive phrase, a gerundial phrase, a predicative complex, or a clause*. Such sentences contain two subjects: **the formal (introductory) subject *it*** and the **notional subject** expressed as stated above. **The notional subject** in such sentences is placed after the predicate. The sentence begins with the pronoun *it*.

Sentences with introductory *it* can be transformed into sentences with the **notional subject** in its usual position before the predicate. e.g. *It was easy to deal with him.* → *To deal with him was easy.*

c) **The emphatic *it* is used for emphasis.** e.g. *It was Helen who did shopping yesterday.*

The formal (introductory) subject *there*

When the subject of the sentence is indefinite (a pen, pens, some pens), it is often placed after the predicate verb and the sentence begins with the introductory (formal) subject *there*. Most typically, a sentence (a clause) with *there* has the following structure:

there + be + indefinite noun phrase (+ place or time position adverbial)

e.g. *There are some messages for you on your desk.*

Sentences introduced by *there* express **the existence or coming into existence** of a person or non-person denoted by the subject. As the notional subject usually introduces a new idea, **the noun** expressing it is often used with **the indefinite article**. e.g. *There was a little pause.*

The notional subject may be also **indefinite pronouns** (*some, any, somebody*, etc.), **negative pronouns** (*nobody, nothing, no one, none*, etc.), **a gerund or by a clause**. e.g. *There was no talking that evening.*

The predicate in such sentences is generally **a simple verbal predicate** expressed by the verbs *to be, to appear, to live, to come, to go* or some other similar verbs. e.g. *There came a laugh, high, gay, sweet.*

EXERCISES. THE SUBJECT

Ex. 1. Point out the subject and say by what it is expressed.

1. Maybe there's a cat around. 2. At least a dozen were at the pool this evening. 3. These will take root in about a month. 4. His alarm-clock bell awakened Mary in the morning. 5. The fresh grey morning air made him throw back his shoulders and step lightly over the damp lawn. 6. Behind the farm the stone mountains stood up against the sky. 7. Who is it this time? The Prince again? 8. Jody tried to leap into the middle of his shadow at every step. 9. The blue eyes were sternly merry. 10. His steps were slow and certain. 11. "How are all the folks?" 12. Now Billy was hurrying toward the house too.

Ex. 2. Point out the subject and say by what it is expressed.

1. There was no buffalo, no antelope, not even rabbits. 2. Mrs. Tiflin turned and led the way into the house. 3. Outside the dining-room windows the big moths battered softly against the glass. 4. Driving out here got my appetite up. 5. Just the two of us could clean up a deer's ham. 6. That was the time for the leader to be on the watch. 7. The family and Billy Buck sat in front of the fireplace in the other room. 8. Everyone but Jody remained silent. 9. There was a little square sandy led kept for rotting the chrysanthemums. 10. The horse and the donkey drooped like unwatered flowers. 11. That sounds like a nice kind of a way to live. 12. The irritation and resistance melted from Elisa's face.

Ex. 3. State the nature of "it". Translate into Ukrainian.

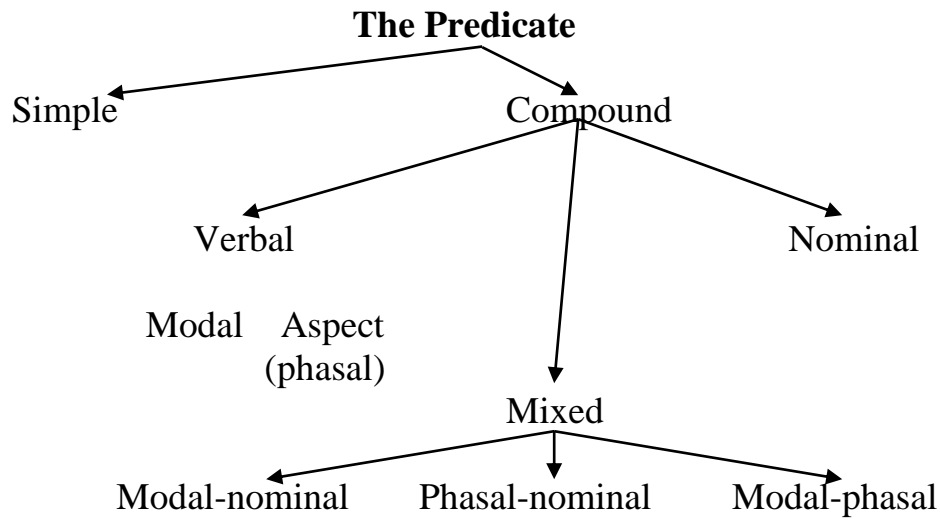
1. It began to rain. 2. It wasn't difficult to love her. 3. It was she who narrowed her eyes. 4. It is so awful. 5. It meant a lot to her. 6. It was her mother who hated her. 7. It was right to do it. 8. The breeze was steady. It had backed a little further into the north. 9. It crossed my mind to ask her once more and then she nodded. 10. It was ridiculous to try. 11. It smelled a bit musty, with undertones of some grapefruity, appley perfume. 12. It was Bee who was a drug addict. 13. It was very pleasant to look out in the street. 14. It was packed full of businessmen. 15. It was piled high with cosmetics. 16. It was a one-road show. 17. It's thirty kilometers from here. 18. It was Catherine Barkley. 19. It is a question of time. 20. It's a natural thing. 21. It was dark in our room except for the small light of the night over the town. 22. It was his knee all right.

Ex. 4. State the nature of "it". Translate into Ukrainian.

1. Why! It is only a lovely little girl. 2. It was almost dark. 3. Who is it this time? The Prince again? 4. It would be better to wait a few years though. 5. No, it's not a prince. It's a poor man. 6. "It's just infested with life," she thought. "It's just bursting with life." 7. "It must be something gnawing on the logs," she said. 8. It was impossible to say, you see. 9. It was a beastly way for her to do it. 10. But it was a horrible way to do it. 11. It would be like staring at a cripple. 12. It's a strange thing, this "knowing". 13. It is nothing but an awareness of details. 14. It's a good ranch, isn't it. 15. It was the ultimate! 16. It was a deadly satire. 17. It is true. It was a sheriff. – But it is a lie. 18. It was restlessly still. It really did seem deserted. 19. Is it far from the main road? 20. It was too hard on me. 21. It was better than any holidays. 22. It's a secret now.

THE PREDICATE

The **predicate** is the second principal part of the sentence, which expresses **an action, state or quality** of the person or thing denoted by the subject. It is grammatically dependent upon the subject. According to the structure and the meaning of the predicate we distinguish **two main types: the simple predicate and the compound predicate**. There is also a type of predicate, which combines the elements of the two above. Thus it is called **the mixed type of predicate** (see the diagram below).



The simple verbal predicate

The **simple verbal predicate** is:

1) A **finite verb** in a simple or a compound tense form:

e.g. *They **reached** the studio.*

2) A **phraseological unit**. Here belong:

– **word combinations** (*verb + noun* with the indefinite article) **denoting single actions** such as *to pay a visit, to have a swim, to have a talk, etc.*

e.g. *It's good **to have a swim** on a hot day.*

– (*verb + noun abstract*) phrases **denoting various kinds of actions** such as *to get rid of, to make up one's mind, to take care of, to make fun, to change one's mind, to pay attention to, to lose sight of, to pay a visit, etc.*

e.g. *Burton **gave** a kindly little **chuckle**.*

*They **take** good **care of** you.*

The Compound Predicate

The compound predicate may be **verbal** or **nominal**.

The Compound Verbal Predicate

The compound verbal predicate may be of two types:

- 1) **the compound verbal modal predicate;**
- 2) **the compound verbal aspect (phasal) predicate;**

1) **The compound verbal modal predicate** consists of a **modal part** (expressed by a modal verb or the verbs with the modal meaning, a modal expression) **and an infinitive** (or sometimes a **gerund**).

Modal verbs: *can, may, must, should, have to, would, ought to, dare, need.*

Modal expressions: *to be + infinitive, to have + infinitive, to be able to, to be going to, to be anxious, to be ready, to be eager, to be glad, to be allowed, to be willing, to be obliged, to be capable, had better, would rather, would have, etc.*

The verbs with the modal meaning (attitudinal verbs): *to hope, to expect, to intend, to attempt, to try, to wish, to want, to desire, to like, to hate, to mean, to plan, to have, to mind, to fail, etc.*

e.g. *She is going to visit him next Sunday.*

The combination **can't help + gerund** also forms a compound verbal modal predicate.

e.g. *I couldn't help smiling.*

The predicate of this type may be called a **compound verbal attitudinal predicate**.

Attitudinal verbs do not denote actions but **express** various modal meanings: *intention, determination, attempt, desire, hope, attitude, etc.*

e.g. *She must be willing to come here again.*

2) **The compound verbal aspect (phasal) predicate** consists of an **aspect (phrasal) verb** and an **infinitive or a gerund**.

The aspect verbs are of **beginning**: (*to begin, to start, to commence, to set about, to talk to, to fall to, to come*), **duration** (*to go on, to keep, to proceed, to continue*), **repetition** (*would, used* (denoting a repeated action in the past)) and **cessation** (*to stop, to finish, to give up, to leave off, etc.*).

e.g. *Give up smoking.*

Note: The difference in the functions of the gerund and the infinitive after the verb **to stop** is as follows:

e.g. *She stopped talking to him.* (part of the compound verbal aspect predicate) – *Вона перестала з ним говорити.*

She stopped to talk to him. (**stopped** – the simple verbal predicate, **to talk** – the adverbial modifier of purpose) – *Вона зупинилась, щоб поговорити з ним.*

The Compound Nominal Predicate

The compound nominal predicate consists of a **link verb** and a **predicative** (*the nominal part of the predicate*). According to their **meaning** all link verbs can be divided into **two large groups**:

1) **link verbs of being and remaining;**

2) **link verbs of becoming.**

1) **Link verbs of being and remaining:** *to be, to remain, to keep, to continue, to look, to smell, to stand, to sit, to lie, to shine, to seem, to prove, to appear, to stay*, etc.

e. g. *His voice sounded cold and hostile.*

2) **Link verbs of becoming:** *to become, to grow, to turn, to get, to make, to come, to go, to leave, to run*, etc.

e.g. *Outside it was getting dark.*

The snow turned into a cold rain.

The Predicative can be:

1) **a noun in the common case** (occasionally by a noun in the possessive case):

e.g. *My sister is a doctor.*

2) **an adjective or participle II** (very seldom participle I):

e.g. *Mor was silent.*

Note 1: It should be remembered that in some cases a predicative adjective in English corresponds to an adverbial modifier expressed by an adverb in Ukrainian. Particular attention should be paid to such verbs as *to look, to feel, to sound, to smell, to taste*.

e. g. *She looks beautiful.* – *Вона виглядає чудово.*

3) **an infinitive, infinitive phrase or an infinitive construction:**

e. g. *Our intention is to help you.*

4) **a gerund or a gerundial phrase:**

e. g. *Seeing is believing.*

5) **a numeral, cardinal or ordinal:**

e. g. *Helen is twenty.*

6) **a pronoun:**

e. g. *The house was no longer theirs.*

7) **a prepositional phrase:**

e. g. *I am on your side.*

8) **an adverb** (an adverb used as a predicative loses its adverbial meaning and begins to indicate state):

e.g. *How are you? – I am so-so.* (a predicative)

Compare: *She speaks English so-so.* (an adverbial modifier of manner)

9) **a clause:**

e.g. *That's what has happened.*

Note 2: Besides the predicative referring to the subject, there is another type of predicative to the object, so called **Objective Predicative**. It does not form part of the predicate. In this case the predicate is simple.

e.g. *They painted the door green.*

The Combination **TO BE + PARTICIPLE II**

The combination **to be+ participle II** can denote *an action*, in which case it is a **simple predicate** expressed by *a verb in the passive voice*. It can also denote *a state*, then it is a **compound nominal predicate** consisting of *a link verb and a predicative*.

e.g. *The statue is broken.* (The predicate *indicates* the state of the statue).

When I came up to the gate, it was already locked. (The predicate *indicates* the state of the gate at a given moment).

When I came up to the gate, it had already been locked. (The predicate *indicates* an action completed before a definite moment in the past).

It is sometimes difficult to discriminate between the verb **to be + participle II** as *a simple and as a compound nominal predicate*.

1. We clearly have **the passive voice (simple predicate)**:

a) when the doer of the action is indicated and is the preposition *by*:

e.g. *They were interrupted by Miss Bennet.*

b) when there is an adverbial modifier of place, frequency or time:

e.g. *His right arm was broken in many places.*

c) when the verb *to be* is used in the Continuous, Perfect or in the Future tense:

e.g. *Be careful, the door is freshly painted* (compound nominal predicate)

Oh, has it already been painted? (the passive voice)

But: when the verb **to be** is in *the present or past perfect inclusive* and the nominal verb admits of the continuous form, we usually have a compound nominal predicate.

e.g. *The documents are ready. They have been typed for two hours.*

d) when the verb *to be* is associated with participle II of durative verbs (such as *to like, to love, to honour, to hate, to admire*, etc.):

e.g. *He was admired for his courage.*

Is he generally liked?

But: Such participles as *disappointed, distressed, irritated, vexed, surprised, astonished, amazed, frightened, alarmed*, etc. which **express mental states** usually form *a compound nominal predicate* even if there is an object introduced by the preposition **by**. This object does not denote the doer of an action but the cause of the state.

e.g. *I was surprised to see her.*

2. When these criteria cannot be applied the context itself helps to decide whether the predicate is a simple or a compound nominal one.

Mixed Types of Compound Predicate

Compound predicates can *combine* elements of different types. Thus we have:

1. **The compound modal nominal predicate:**

e.g. *“You needn’t be afraid”, he answered smiling.*

2. **The compound aspect (phasal) nominal predicate:**

e.g. *At night the sky had begun to be overcast..*

3. **The compound modal aspect (phasal) predicate:**

e.g. *“Could somebody finish translating?”*

EXERCISES. THE PREDICATE
The Combination *TO BE* + *PARTICIPLE II*

Ex. 1. Point out the predicates and say what kind they are.

1. Suddenly she clutched his hand more tightly. 2. He was growing impatient. 3. His conversation remained strangely impersonal. 4. He could never resist the temptation to flirt. 5. He gave a flattered laugh. 6. She could never have been pretty with anything but the prettiness of youth. 7. What a fool she had to be! Kitty began to think of him at all. 8. He stopped to talk to her. 9. Harris had a smile on Montmorency's eyes. 10. I want to say something to you. 11. She became portentous in her gravity. 12. He ought to be more moved. 13. Yet she must have chosen to go.

Ex. 2. Point out the predicative and say by what it is expressed.

1. Beauty is alive and everlasting. 2. I was aware again of that feeling of discomfort. 3. Their highest concept of right conduct, in his case, was to get a job. 4. The living-room was pleasant at night. 5. She was delightful working in the garden. 6. She was so pretty, so cool, and perfect. 7. The King turned pale, and shut his notebook hastily. 8. Alice was not much surprised at this. 9. "It's really dreadful," she muttered to herself. 10. That's the first question, you know. 11. "The man's a perfect trump," declared the squire. 12. I was so terrified by the idea of the seafaring man with one leg. 13. I was far less afraid of the captain himself than anybody else. 14. He was the most overriding companion ever known. 15. He was a very silent man by custom. 16. "Right you were, sir," replied Silver. 17. It was a strange collection.

Ex. 3. Point out the predicates and say what kind they are.

1. They talked and sang and read together in a wonderful and unspeakable intimacy. 2. I might think differently of him now. 3. The train was crowded. 4. She needn't be afraid of that. 5. He began to earn money for his master. 6. Miss Barkley was sitting on a bench in the garden. 7. One decision at least had been definitely put off. 8. "Oh, God! They're obviously paralyzed and can't move." 9. Glory can't continue discussing the situation in her family. 10. That was unacceptable. 11. Hope was beginning to look pale. 12. She is able to steal the heritage. 13. It began to rain. 14. There was a dark night. 15. The grey wolf-cub was different from the others. 16. In order to make him interesting he was kept in a rage all the time. 17. He never stopped walking round his enemy. 18. Every day the wolf-cub tried to get to the light. 19. White Fang continued to growl at the master outside.

Ex. 4. State where the combination to be + Participle II is the Passive Voice (simple predicate) and where it is a compound nominal predicate.

1. The Battle place was offered for sale by a Monterey realty company. 2. The Battle farm was haunted. 3. At the end of six months he was elected a member of the school board. 4. He (Edward Wicks) was known as the thickest man in the valley. 5. The oil company was formed in Salinas with the purpose of boring a well in the southern part of Monterey county. 6. John Whiteside was often consulted in such matters. 7. But Shark's mind was already made up. 8. Her life was sufficiently complicated without the added burden of another's thoughts and problems. 9. Miss Martin was overcome with the genius of Tularecito. 10. Miss Martin's clothes were torn to streamers.

SUBJECT PREDICATE CONCORD (AGREEMENT)

In the English language the predicate verb agrees with the subject in number and person. Thus a singular noun-subject requires a singular verb-predicate, a plural noun-subject requires a plural verb-predicate.

The predicate is used in the **singular** when **the subject is** :

1) a gerund, an infinitive phrase, a prepositional phrase or a clause introduced by a conjunction.

e. g. *Growing flowers is her hobby.* (a gerund)

To know everything is to know nothing (an infinitive phrase)

After the meeting is the time to speak (a prepositional phrase)

Whether you find me or not does not concern me. (a clause)

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

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

What I want to do is to save us.

2) arithmetic expressions, such as arithmetical addition, subtraction, division.

e. g. *Twelve divided by two is six.*

Note: However multiplication admits of two variants. e. g. *Twice two is/are four.*

3) a definite, indefinite or negative pronoun *each, either, every(-body, -one, -thing), some(-body, -one, -thing), nobody, no one, nothing, neither,* etc.

e. g. *Every bush and every tree was in bud.*

Neither of you is wanted.

Nobody is present.

Note: None, originally *singular*, belongs also here when reference is made to one person. e.g. *...none knows better, what those fine words mean.*

In other cases **none** has a *plural* verb-predicate.

e. g. *None of them have come.*

All in the sense of *все* has a *singular* verb, while **all** in the sense of *все* takes a *plural* verb: e.g. *All that he did was complain about everything. Not all were invited.*

4) pronoun *who, what*:

e.g. *What is there? Who has come? Who is this man?*

Note: With **relative pronouns** (*who, which, what*) the predicate *agrees* with its **antecedent**.

e.g. *Do you know the man who is standing there?* (The man is standing...)

Do you know the men who are standing there? (The men are standing...)

But: It's me who has done it.

5) the emphatic *it*:

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

It's they who are responsible for the delay.

6) the word-group *many a + noun*:

e.g. *Many a lie has been told.*

7) plural nouns or phrases when they are used as *names, titles of books, magazines, newspapers, etc.*:

e.g. "Gulliver's travels" is full of satire.

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

e.g. "The Canterbury Tales" consist of about seventeen thousand lines of verse.

8) a noun in the plural denoting *time, measure or distance*, when the noun represents the amount or mass as a whole:

e.g. Ten dollars is too much to pay.

Eight hours of sleep is enough.

Five thousand miles is too far to travel.

9) collective nouns, which are plural in meaning but singular in form (family, group, company, government, committee, etc.) if the collective is taken as a whole.

e.g. My family is small.

A new government has been formed.

But: The verb is *plural* if the persons or things, which form the *collective*, are considered separately.

e.g. The Government were seated on his left and the Opposition on his right.

The family were alone in the parlor.

The word **data** is an irregular plural noun, but it takes a singular verb, though a plural verb is also used especially in a very formal English:

e.g. The **data** in the census report is very interesting.

The **data** in the census report are very interesting.

10) two nouns expressing one person or thing:

e.g. The painter and decorator has come.

The bread and cheese was presently brought in and distributed...

But: The painter and the decorator have come.

The repetition of the article shows that two different persons are meant.

11) such invariable singular nouns as *hair, money, gate, information, progress, advice, etc.*:

e.g. The gate is open.

The information was usually interesting.

Her hair is fair.

But: There are two hairs in your milk!

Note: The corresponding Ukrainian nouns used as subject are either plural (грома), or have both the singular and then plural forms (новина-новини).

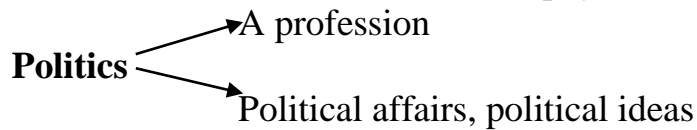
12) invariable singular nouns ending in -s *news, works (завод), headquarters (штаб), billiards, dominoes, checkers*; fields of study that end in -ics *linguistics, economics, physics, etc.*; certain illnesses that end in -s *measles, mumps, diabetes, rabies, rickets, shingles, etc.*; sometimes a proper noun that ends in -s, is singular:

e.g. No news is good news.

Physics is easy for her.

Rabies is an infectious and often fatal disease.

Note: Nouns in **-ics** may have a plural verb-predicate when *denoting qualities, different activities, etc.* (*gymnastics* – “physical exercises”)



e.g. *Politics is a risky profession.*

Politics have always interested me.

Statistics is singular when it refers to a field of study.

e.g. *Statistics is an interesting field of study.*

When it refers to particular numbers, it is used as a countable noun: singular = one statistic (no final -s); plural = two statistics.

e.g. *This statistic is correct. Those statistics are incorrect.*

13) there is a strong tendency to use the verb in the singular instead of plural when the verb precedes the subject (usually in interrogative sentences) and when the sentence begins with here or there:

e.g. *Where is my coat and hat?*

Is she and Peter to meet you at the station?

And here was a man, was experience and culture.

Note: If the subjects are of different number the predicate agrees with the subject first.

e.g. *There was a rose and some other flowers in the vase.*

There were many notebooks and a textbook on the table.

In **informal style**, however, **the singular verb** is often used in **both cases**.

e.g. *There's too many of them living up there.*

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

14) if the subject is a word consisting of two nouns connected by the preposition with, or the expression together with, the predicate is in the singular:

e.g. *A woman with the child was standing on the platform.*

The predicate is used in **the plural**:

1) when there are two or more homogeneous subjects connected by the conjunction and or asyndetically:

e.g. *Mr. Murdstone and I were soon off...*

Note: When a *singular noun-subject* has **two attributes** characterizing the same person or non-person connected by **and it has the singular verb and the article is not repeated**.

e.g. *A well-equipped and extensive factory was visited by the delegation yesterday.*

But: If the attributes characterize different persons or non-persons the verb is **in the plural and the article is repeated, or the article is used once and the noun is used in the plural**.

e.g. *The black and the white car were badly damaged.*

The black and white cars were badly damaged.

2) when subjects are expressed by such invariable plural nouns as *goods* (товар, товари, вироби), *contents* (зміст, суть), *riches* (багатство, скарби), *clothes* (одяз), *wages* (зарплата), *eaves* (карниз, звис даху):

e.g. *The goods were delivered on time.*

His clothes were shabby.

3) with *homogeneous subjects* connected by *both ... and*:

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

Both the bread and the butter are fresh.

4) when the subjects are expressed by collective nouns denoting individuals, such as *cattle* (худоба), *poultry* (домашня птиця), *police* (поліція), *infantry* (піхота), *guard* (звардія), *jury* (присяжні), etc., though singular in form, always have a plural verb-predicate:

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

Note: the noun *people* (народ, нація) has a *singular* verb.

e.g. *This people lives in the North.*

When the word *people* has a final -s (*peoples*) it is used to refer to ethnic or national groups.

e.g. *All the peoples of the world desire peace.*

5) with *homogenous subjects* connected by the conjunctions *not only...but also*, *either...or*, *or*, *neither...nor* the verb-predicate agrees with the nearest noun-subject:

e.g. *Neither you nor I am right.*

Neither I nor you are right.

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

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

My sister as well as my parents is a teacher.

7) if the subject is a syntactic word-group, the first element of which denotes an indefinite number or amount, such as *a number of...*, *a variety of...*, *the majority of...*, *a lot of...*, *plenty of...*, *a mass of...*, etc., the predicate may be in the singular or in the plural. In most cases the form of the predicate depends on the form and meaning of the second element, which from a semantic point of view is the dominant element of the word-group:

e.g. *"There is a lot of truth in that" said Johnson cautiously.*

A lot of people are coming.

"There are a lot of things still for you to believe", says Mr. Eversham, beaming.

8) if the subjects are substantivized adjectives denoting groups of people and preceded by *the*: *the young*, *the elderly*, *the dead*, *the poor*, *the rich*, *the blind*, *the deaf*, *the old*, *the mute*, *the eminent*, etc.

e.g. *The poor are helped by government programmes.*

EXERCISES. SUBJECT PREDICATE CONCORD (AGREEMENT)

Ex. 1. Comment on subject-predicate agreement.

1. Most people like to go to the zoo. 2. Oranges, tomatoes, cabbage, and lettuce are rich in vitamin C. 3. The number of employers in my company is approximately ten thousand. 4. Half of the students in the class are from India. 5. Half of this money is mine. 6. The fruit in this bowl is rotten. 7. Some of the apples in that bowl are rotten. 8. A number of students are absent today. 9. One of the chief materials in bones and teeth is calcium. 10. What percentage of the people in the world is illiterate? 11. None of us knew the answer to that question. 12. Fifty minutes is the maximum length of time allowed for the exam.

Ex. 2. Choose the correct answer.

1. Every man, woman, and child (need, needs) love. 2. My dog, as well as my cats, (likes, like) cat food. 3. Classical and light music (has, have) both their admirers. 4. The red and white roses (is, are) both beautiful. 5. Everybody (was, were) glad to meet with that young man. 6. The young man with a dog (was, were) standing on the platform waiting for the train to start. 7. There (are, is) plenty of rooms at the hotel. 8. One of my friends (lives, live) in London. 9. None of my friends (lives, live) in Kyiv. 10. The United Nations (has, have) its headquarters in New York City. 11. Mathematics (is, are) her favourite subject. 12. Measles (is, are) an illness. 13. Today's news (is, are) interesting. 14. Five kilometers (is, are) too far to walk. 15. Chinese (is, are) spoken in China. 16. The Chinese (has, have) an interesting history. 17. The poor (is, are) helped by government programmes. 18. Portuguese (is, are) somewhat similar to Spanish, (isn't, aren't) it? 19. Many people in the world (does, do) not have enough to eat. 20. Statistics (is, are) a branch of Mathematics.

Ex. 3. Use the proper form of the verb instead of the infinitives in brackets.

1. I can wait; four weeks (to be) not so long. 2. The ship proved to be a good ship, the crew (to be) capable seamen. 3. Police (to be) running for the spot. 4. Every man and every woman (to be) to take part in the elections. 5. Neither Helen nor Kate (to be) at home. 6. Nobody (to know) I am here. 7. Each of us (to be) ready to help Oliver. 8. A variety of questions (to be put) to the lecturer. 9. My family (to be) early risers. 10. Then horse as well as the rider (to be hurt) by the fall.

Ex. 4. Use the proper form of the verb instead of the infinitives in brackets.

1. Twenty five metres (to be) a good race for a boy under ten. 2. A great number of students (to be) present at the meeting. 3. The variety of pictures at this exhibition (to please) me. 4. The cattle (to be) up in the hills. 5. The family (to be assembled) in the breakfast room. 6. Neither of them (to be) at fault. 7. The family (to be) alone in the parlour. 8. The Government (to be) seated on his left and the Opposition on his right. 9. My face, neck and hands (to be) burnt to a cherry-brown. 10. Where (to be) she and her baby to sleep that night? 11. Every bush and every tree (to be) in bud. 12. Neither of you (to be) wanted.

THE SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

The **secondary parts** of the sentence are: **the object, the attribute, an apposition and the adverbial modifier.**

THE OBJECT

The object is a secondary part of the sentence which completes or restricts the meaning of a verb or sometimes an adjective, a word denoting state or a noun.

e.g. *Nan spread out **the paper** on the table.*

Ways of expressing the object

The object can be expressed by:

1) a noun in the common case:

e.g. *Mor began to walk across **the playground** in the direction of Library.*

2) a pronoun (personal in the objective case, possessive, defining, reflexive, demonstrative, indefinite):

e.g. *"You must tell **me all** about Mr. Demoyte", said Miss Carter suddenly.*

Note: Here we must mention the peculiar use of **the pronoun *it*** in the function of a formal object, which is called **introductory** (or **anticipatory**) *it*, or in the function of a real (notional) object.

The formal *it* is *characteristic of literary style* and is mostly used after certain verbs followed by adjectives (sometimes nouns). Here belong such verbs as ***to think, to find, to consider, to make*** etc. After these verbs *it* introduces a real object expressed by an infinitive or gerundial phrase or by a subordinate clause.

e.g. *He made **it** a point **to save** so much every week. (introductory **it**).*

*"What's the book, Don?" he asked. Donald passed **it** over without a word. (notional **it**)*

3) an infinitive, an infinitive phrase, or an infinitive construction. After the verbs *to advise, to ask, to decide, to discover, to discuss, to explain, to forget, to find out, to know, to learn, to remember, to show, to teach, to feel, to understand* the object may be expressed by the conjunctive infinitive phrase:

e.g. *We plan **to go on holiday together**. We didn't know **what to say**.*

4) a gerund, a gerundial phrase, or a gerundial construction:

e.g. *Tim loved **showing things**.*

5) a clause (called an object clause), which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

e.g. *I shall decide **what to do about it**.*

*He felt **that his wishes had crystallized**.*

6) various predicative complexes:

e.g. *Everything depends **on your coming in time**.*

7) a group of words, which is one part of the sentence, i.e. a syntactically indivisible group:

e.g. *You'll see a good deal of that child...*

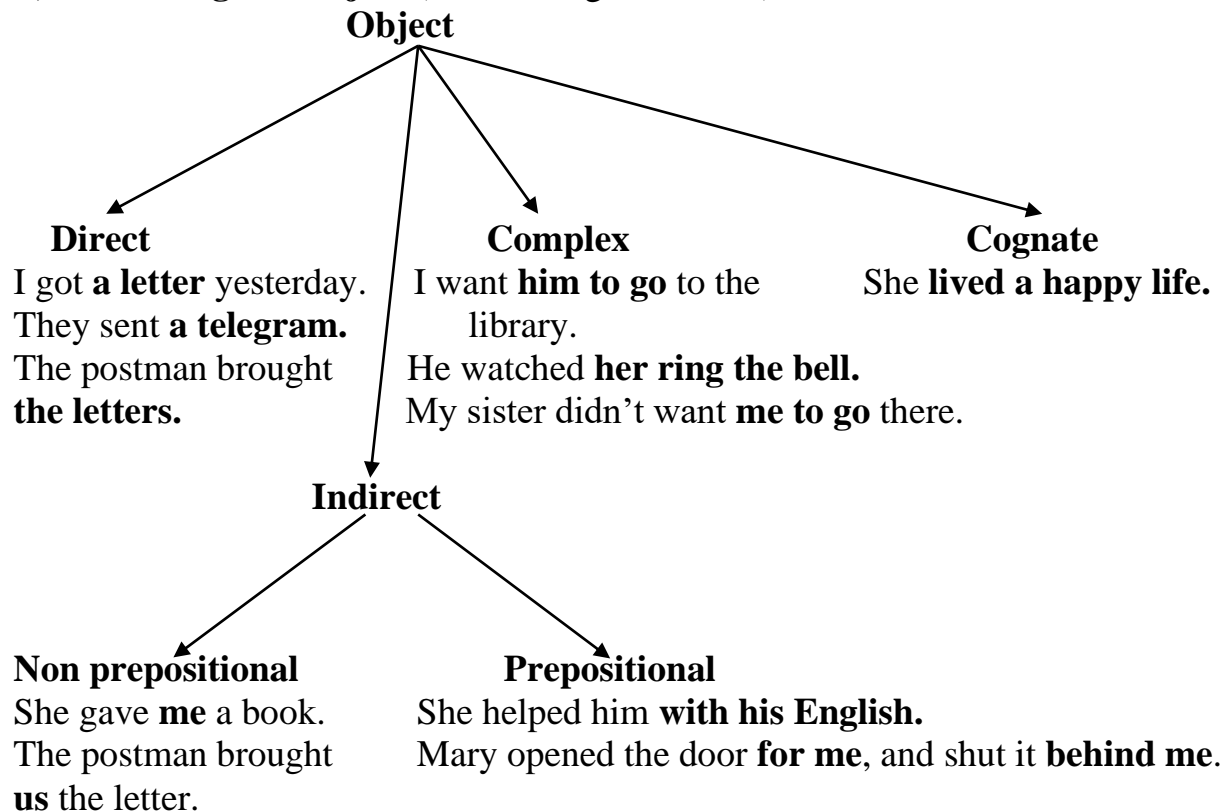
He found a number of persons in the Morse house.

8) a numeral:

e.g. *At last he found three of them high up in the hills.*

Kinds of objects

There are following kinds of objects in English: **the direct object, the indirect object, and the cognate object** (see the diagram below).



The Direct Object

A noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called **a direct object**.

The direct object immediately *follows the transitive verb*, which governs it (if there is no indirect object). Very often the direct object in English corresponds to the indirect object in Ukrainian:

Compare:

1. *I help her* (direct object) – *Я допомагаю їй* (indirect object, accusative case).

2. *I addressed her* (direct) – *Я звернувся до неї* (indirect prepositional object).

Mind the following!

To address smb – звертатися до когось; *to affect smb* – впливати на когось, щось; *to answer smth* – відповідати на щось; *to approach smb, smth* – підійти, наблизитись до когось/чогось; *to attend smth* – бути присутнім на чомусь; *to enjoy smth* – отримувати задоволення від чогось; *to enter smth* – входити у, заходити,

вступати; *to follow smb* – іти слідом, іти за кимсь; *to join smb, smth* – приєднуватися, входити в компанію, сполучатись з чимось; *to mount smth* – підніматися, сходити, зійти на щось, вилізти на щось, сісти верхи (на коня); *to need smth, smb* – мати потребу в чомусь, в комусь; *to play smth* – грати на чомусь, в щось; *to reach smth* – доходити, простягатись (до якогось місця), дійти, досягати чогось, дотягуватися до чогось; *to watch smb, smth* – слідкувати за кимсь, чимось, стежити, спостерігати, наглядати за кимсь, чимось.

There are a few English verbs which can have **two direct objects**. These verbs are: *to ask, to answer, to take, to envy, to hear, to forgive*:

e. g. *I asked Tom a few questions. (I asked a few questions. I asked Tom.)*

Answer me this question. (Answer me. Answer this question.)

The Indirect Object

The indirect object usually *denotes the person* towards whom the action of the finite verb is directed. There are **two types of indirect object**:

I. The indirect object **of the first type**, which **expresses the addressee of the action**. It is used with transitive verbs and has the following characteristics:

a) it cannot be used without the direct object. It is used with *transitive verbs* which take a direct object, so *it hardly ever stands alone*.

e.g. *I sent him a letter yesterday.* (him – an indirect object, a letter – a direct object)

b) the indirect object has a fixed place in the sentence – it precedes the direct object.

In this case it *is used without a preposition*.

e.g. *Mor offered her a handkerchief.*

c) the indirect object may follow the direct object. In this case the indirect object is used *with a preposition to* or sometimes *for* if the indirect object expresses the person for whose benefit the action is performed. These prepositions make the indirect object more prominent. e.g. *She handed her bouquet to Rain.*

Note 1. There are a number of verbs after which the indirect object is used with the preposition *to* even when it comes before the direct object. These verbs are: *to explain, to dictate, to suggest, to relate, to announce, to communicate, to introduce, to repeat, to dedicate, to point out*, etc.

e.g. *I shall dictate to you the names of books to be read for your examination.*

The teacher explained to Helen a new grammar rule.

Note 2. There are three verbs, which may take an indirect object without any direct object. In this case the indirect object is used *with the preposition to*. These verbs are: *to read, to write, to sing*. With the verb *to write* both forms are possible.

e.g. *Please write to me as often as you can. Won't you write me how you all are?*

II. The indirect object **of the second type** is *a prepositional object* that follows both transitive and intransitive verbs and completes their meaning. The prepositional phrase is *an object* when it denotes a certain person or thing connected with the action expressed by the verb. The prepositional phrase is *an adverbial modifier* when it serves *to indicate the time, place, manner, etc., of an action*. This difference of meaning is

shown in the question put to an object, or to an adverbial modifier. Asking of an object, we use a pronoun (*who, what, etc.*)

e.g. *With whom did you go to the concert? – I went with my brother* (an object)

We use an *adverb* when the question refers to an adverbial modifier.

e.g. *How did you manage to lift that heavy box? – I did it with great difficulty* (an adverbial modifier).

Sometimes one and the same prepositional phrase may be interpreted in two ways:

e.g. *What do you keep those instruments in? – I keep them in a glass box* (an object).

Where do you keep those instruments? – I keep them in a glass box (an adverbial modifier).

The Complex Object

The direct and the prepositional indirect object may be *simple* and *complex*.

The complex object consists of two parts (components). The first part is a noun in the common case or in the possessive case, **a personal pronoun** in the objective case, or **a possessive pronoun; the second part is an infinitive** (The Objective with the Infinitive Construction), **a gerund** (The Gerundial Construction), **a participle** (The Objective Participle Construction).

e.g. *My mother insists on my going there.* (gerundial complex)

I saw her swimming in the river. (the objective participle complex)

My sister didn't want me to go there. (the objective with the infinitive complex)

The Cognate Object

The cognate object is a special kind of object, which has the following peculiarities:

1) it is used *with intransitive verbs* though it has *no preposition*;

2) it is expressed with **a noun**, which is *either of the same root as the verb or is similar to it in meaning*;

3) it is almost regularly attended by an attribute with which it forms a combination that is close in meaning to an adverbial modifier: *to live a happy life = to live happily; to die a death of a hero = to die like a hero; to sigh a heavy sigh = to sigh heavily, etc.*

The verbs that most frequently take a cognate object are: *to live (a life); to smile (a smile); to laugh (a laugh); to die (a death); to sigh (a sigh); to sleep (a sleep); to dream (a dream); to run (a race); to fight (a fight).*

e.g. *Here she stopped and sighed a heavy sigh. She died a violent death.*

Listening to a funny story he laughed a hearty laugh.

He has lived a long and interesting life.

THE ATTRIBUTE

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence, which *denotes the qualities of a person or thing* expressed by a noun (or pronoun) in any of its functions in the sentence. An attribute can be *either in pre-position or in post-position* to the word it modifies.

Ways of Expressing the Attribute

An attribute may be:

1) **an adjective**.. e.g. *an **English tweed** coat.*

Adjectives with suffixes *-able, -ible*, which are usually *derived from verbs*, are placed in post-position owing to their predicative character.

e.g. *He is the only person **reliable** (= who may be relied)*

An adjective used as an attribute to a pronoun always follows it:

e.g. *Is there anything **new** in this information?*

Adjectives with the prefix *a-* such as: ***alive, awake, asleep, afraid, etc.*** always follow their head-noun:

e.g. *He spoke like a man **afraid**.*

*I am the **happiest** man **alive**.*

2) **a pronoun (possessive, defining, demonstrative, interrogative, relative)**. An attributive pronoun is placed before the noun, which it modifies.

e.g. ***Her** daughter Hilda was a pretty, doll-like baby...*

3) **a numeral (cardinal or ordinal)**. A numeral is placed before its head-noun.

e.g. ***Two or three** days went by.*

*Ours was **the first** boat...*

4) **a noun**:

e.g. *The Banks' gave one of their parties under the **oak** trees on the flat.*

*John was **my mother's** youngest brother.*

5) **a prepositional phrase**. A noun with a preposition used as an attribute is in post-position.

e.g. *...a girl **in a cotton dress and straw hat** ran up to him...*

The preposition *of* is often dropped with nouns *of colour, price, size, age, etc.*

e.g. *A room **the same size** as yours was shown to us.*

Note: Care should be taken not to consider every pre-positional phrase following a noun as an attribute to that noun because the prepositional group may be connected with the predicate in the function of *a prepositional object or adverbial modifier*.

e.g. *The letter **from my brother** gave me much pleasure. (attribute)*

*I have received a letter **from my brother**. (prepositional object)*

*He wrote me a letter **from London**. (adverbial modifier)*

6) **an adverb** in pre-position and post-position.

e.g. *The **then** Government did not respond to this just claim. The room **upstairs** was light and spacious.*

7) **a participle or a participial phrase**.

e.g. *The **frozen** ground was hard as stone. She was looking at her daughter **playing** in the yard.*

8) **a gerund, gerundial phrases or gerundial complexes.** A gerund with a preposition used as an attribute *follows the noun* it modifies. Here are the nouns after which the gerund is used as an attribute: *of (chance, habit, idea, trouble, risk, method, way, custom, fear, manner, means, problem, necessity, possibility, pleasure, right, hope, intention, importance, effort, feeling, sound, gift, sing, etc.), for (instruction, apology, explanation, reason, preparation, excuse, plan), in (experience, use, skill, interest, sense, harm, difficulty), at (astonishment, disappointment, surprise).*

Gerunds generally characterize non-persons from the point of view of their function or purpose.

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

*Hand in hand with reading, he had developed the habit **of making** notes...*

9) **an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or an infinitive construction.** The infinitive as an attribute is always used *in post-position*.

e.g. *This is the book **to read**. There's nobody here **for him to play with**.*

Position of an attribute

1. When two or more attributes denoting *age, colour, material* and *nationality* refer to the same noun in pre-position, the order is as follows: **various, age, colour, material, nationality, Noun**, e.g. *pleasant old red lacy Turkish slippers*.

2. *In post-position* the following attributes are used:

a) most adjectives in **-able** and **-ible**; b) adjectives **proper** and **present**; c) adjectives after indefinite and negative pronouns,

e.g. *The only person **visible** was John. All the people **present** welcomed him. There was something **interesting** in his eyes.*

EXERCISES. THE SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

THE OBJECT. THE ATTRIBUTE.

Ex. 1. Point out the kind of object and say by what it is expressed. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. He could see the man and Great Beaver talking together. 2. For the next four days he lived a simple and blameless life on thin captain's biscuits. 3. I can't send Posy to school. 4. I couldn't use it. So I sold it and bought those for you. 5. I don't want to see the dead! 6. Gerald took her arm and passed it through his. 7. He stopped to talk to her. 8. I want to say something to you 9. I am going to speak to you very seriously. 10. He ought to stop doing nothing. 11. Mamphela smiled at that and sat down at the typewriter. 12. Everyone smiled at this remark. 13. Sally found it difficult to visit anybody herself.

Ex. 2. Point out the object and the attribute and say by what they are expressed.

1. The old man looked at him with his sunburned, confident loving eyes. 2. His hope and his confidence had never gone. 3. My big fish must be somewhere. 4. Small pictures and photographs were dotted about at intervals on the walls. 5. The brilliant cinerarias threw little haloes of colour into the air. 6. The fresh grey morning air made him throw back his shoulders and step lightly over the dump lawn. 7. A stream of juniors went by, carrying additional chairs. 8. Rain's face he could hardly see. 9. At that moment an efficient-looking butler, hired for the occasion, appeared and ushered Mor away into the adjoining Common Room. 10. Nan put down her fruit knife noisily and drank some water. 11. Looking at her son the mother smiled a happy smile. 12. The room was hot, with a scent of new bread. Brown, crisp leaves stood on the hearth. 13. The stay-at-home mothers stood gossiping at the corners of the alley... 14. The house of Whiteside was John's personality solidified. 15. I'm risking my life and the lives of these good gentlemen every second.

Ex. 3. Point out the object and the attribute and say by what they are expressed.

1. Away, near the mouth of the river, a great fire was glowing among the trees. 2. The slopes of the knoll and all the inside of the stockade had been cleared of timber to build the house. 3. The cold evening breeze whistled through every chink of the rude building. 4. The tops of the trees shone rosily in the sun. 5. This little whiff of temper seemed to cool Silver down. 6. Silver's face was a picture. 7. The old man sighed a deep sigh. 8. And just at that moment came the first news of the attack. 9. I could see the truth of Silver's words the night before. 10. A tall tree was thus the principal mark. 11. The top of the plateau was dotted thickly with pine trees of varying height. 12. The little girl smiled wearily. 13. John's leather chair and his black meerschaum and his books reclaimed him again from the farm. 14. Her face was angry. 15. Junius fainted on the steps of his boarding house. 16. Junius inspected each one, and finally went to live on the farm of the widow Quaker. 17. By this time she had found her way into a tidy little room with a table in the window. 18. This fifth trip was quite different from any of the others.

THE APPOSITION

The apposition is a part of the sentence expressed by a noun or nominal phrase and referring to another noun or nominal phrase (the head word), or sometimes to a clause. The apposition may give another designation to, or description of, the person or non-person, or else, put it in a certain class of persons or non-persons. In the latter case it is similar to an attribute, as it characterizes the person or non-person denoted by the head word.

e.g. *He knows about everything – a man of the world.*

Then there was “Mr. W. Bones, mate”.

Like the attribute, the apposition may be in pre-position or post-position. However, unlike the attribute, which is always subordinated to its head word and is usually connected with other parts in the sentence only through it, words in apposition are, at least syntactically, coordinated parts, that is, **both the head word and the apposition are constituents of the same level in the sentence.** This may be illustrated by two possible types of transformation of the sentence with words in apposition.

e.g. *Mr. Brown, the local doctor, was known to everybody.*

The local doctor, Mr. Brown, was known to everybody.

However, an apposition can rarely replace the head word in the sentence. Substitution is possible if the apposition denotes the same person or non-person as the head word.

The Close Apposition

A close apposition (невідокремлена прикладка) stands in close connection with the head word and is not separated by commas. The head noun is often a proper name; the apposition denotes rank, profession, relationship, title, kinship terms, geographical denotations, etc.: Doctor Watson, Sir Peter, Mr. Brown, Mount Everest, the River Thames.

e.g. *Dr. Phillips left the house in disgust. Is Miss Hilda all right?*

The close apposition precedes the head noun, except in some phraseological combinations where the apposition follows the head noun (*William the Conqueror, Richard the Lion Hearted*).

The stress is on the head noun. In geographical names the apposition follows the head noun. The stress is on the apposition (*The River Thames, Mount Everest*). The apposition follows its head noun also in some other cases: the opera “**Natalka Poltavka**”, The newspaper “**Tribune**”. A special case presents those instances when the head noun – a common noun such as *city, town, isle, lake, straits*, etc. – is followed by an appositive noun – a geographical proper name – preceded by the preposition *of*: the City **of London**, the Isle **of Man**, the Strait **of Dover**.

The Loose or Detached Apposition

A loose apposition (відокремлена прикладка) follows the head noun, has the force of a descriptive attribute, is always separated by commas and has a stress of its own, as it forms a separate sense group. It is wider in its meaning than the close apposition:

e.g. *My brother-in-law, Mr. Smith, is a writer.*

EXERCISES. THE APPOSITION

Ex. 1. Point out the apposition and say whether it is close or loose (detached).

1. The head of Job Anderson, the boatswain, appeared at the middle loophole. 2. Captain Smollett rose from his seat, and knocked out the ashes of his pipe in the palm of his left hand. 3. The captain sat down to his log, and here is the beginning of the entry — “Alexander Smollett, master; David Livesey, ship’s doctor; Abraham Gray, carpenter’s mate; John Trelawney, owner; John Hunter and Richard Joyce, owner’s servants; Thomas Redruth, owner’s servant; James Hawkins, cabin boy.” 4. Five grown men, and three of them — Trelawney, Redruth, and the captain — over six feet high, was already more than she was meant to carry. 5. “Mr. Hands,” he said, “here are two of us with a brace of pistols each.” 6. Squire Trelawney, Dr. Livesey, and the rest of the gentlemen asked me to write down the whole particulars about Treasure Island. 7. “Dogger,” said Mr. Dance, “you have a good horse.” 8. “Is Dr. Livesey in?” I asked. 9. Then there was “Mr. W. Bones, mate.” 10. “Mr. Silver, sir?” I asked, holding out the note.

Ex. 2. Point out the apposition and say whether it is close or loose (detached).

1. To complete his strange appearance, Captain Flint sat perched upon his shoulder and gabbling odds and ends of purposeless sea-talk. 2. Later on I’ll get Mrs. Whiteside to go and call with me. 3. Is Miss Hilda all right? 4. Dr. Phillips looked uneasily at Helen and cleared his throat. 5. I’m sorry to have a talk this way before you, Mrs. Van Denenter. 6. A man in his office told him of the warm, protected valley, the Pastures of Heaven. 7. At last Miss Morgan tried to help him. 8. Mrs. Munroe and her daughter Mal were strolling by his house. 9. Do you remember the post card of that lovely house in Vermont? Uncle Keller sent it.

Ex. 3. Point out the apposition and punctuate the sentence accordingly.

1. “Has Mr. Trelawney not told you of the buccaneers? He was one of them.” 2. Mr. Arrow and the captain were to sleep on deck in the companion. 3. I had soon remembered the voice of Captain Flint. 4. I began to think of clearing it from its last passenger — the dead man O’Nail. 5. “Why John you’re not afraid?” asked Doctor Livesey. 6. Mama Torres, a lean dry woman with ancient eyes, had ruled the farm for ten years. 7. Aunt Sophie sent a vase, father bought a chair. 8. It is a statue of the boy David. 9. John Whiteside always remembered how his father read to him the three great authors: Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon.

Ex. 4. Point out the apposition and punctuate the sentence accordingly.

1. Later on I’ll get Mrs. Whiteside to go and call with me. 2. Is Miss Hilda all right? 3. Dr. Phillips looked uneasily at Helen and cleared his throat. 4. I’m sorry to have a talk this way before you Mrs. Van Denenter. 5. A man in his office told him of the warm protected valley the Pastures of Heaven. 6. Mrs. Quaker had two small boys and kept a hired man to work the farm. 7. At last Miss Morgan tried to help him. 8. Mrs. Munroe and her daughter Mal were strolling by his house.

THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIER

The **adverbial modifier** is a secondary part of the sentence, which modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. According to their meaning adverbial modifiers may be classified as follows:

The adverbial modifier of place and direction

This adverbial expresses 1) place proper (Ann was born **in Lutsk**); 2) direction (Our family moved **to Kyiv** two years ago); 3) distance (Mary lives **far from her parents**). The identifying questions are: **where?** – for place proper, **where to?** – for direction, **where? how far?** – for distance.

e.g. *Outside the rain was falling steadily. Mor paid the taxi-driver and stacked up the suitcases on the platform.*

Adverbials of distance may give the idea of measure and thus overlap with adverbials of measure. e.g. *Max lives two miles from me.*

The adverbial modifier of time

The adverbial modifier of time has four variations: 1) time proper; 2) frequency; 3) duration; 4) time relationship.

1. **Adverbials of time proper.** Adverbials of time proper give the time of some event. They may be expressed:

a) **by an adverb** (*tomorrow, yesterday, now, nowadays, tonight, at night, etc.*) or adverbial phrases (*some days later, late at night, early in the morning, etc.*)

e.g. *Tomorrow morning I'll give that cat something to remember.*

b) **by a non-prepositional noun phrase**, often containing such words as *this, that, next, last, any* (*that night, this morning, next Sunday, last year, any minute, etc.*)

e.g. *"I had ten-inch blooms this year", she said.*

c) **by a noun preceded by a preposition or by a prepositional phrase**, most frequently with a noun as headword.

e.g. *At the end of the week she had her birthday party.*

d) **by a noun, adjective or adverb** preceded by the conjunction **when** (*when a child, when young, when there, when at school, etc.*) e.g. *When angry count a hundred.*

e) **by a participle or a participial phrase, a gerund with a preposition or with a prepositional gerundial phrase.**

e.g. *One day, on returning to his hotel, he found a note in his room. (gerund)*

Rounding the corner, I immediately caught sight of Mr. Davies. (participle)

f) **by an absolute construction.**

e.g. *The meal over, they went with Thomas to the fuel store.*

2. **Adverbials of frequency** indicate how often the event denoted by the predicate takes place. The adverbial of frequency may be an adverb (*often, seldom, always, ever, never, sometimes, once, twice, etc.*), an adverbial phrase (*twice a week, once a blue moon, etc.*), a

non-prepositional phrase with the pronoun *every* or the noun *time* (*every morning, every year, many a time, several times*), or by a prepositional phrase *from time to time*.

e.g. *Tim always got on well with the boys.*

3. **Adverbials of duration** indicate a period of time during which some event takes place. They may be an adverb (*long, lately, of late*), by a prepositional phrase (the preposition may be *for, during, since, till, until*), by a noun or non-prepositional noun phrase introduced by the conjunction *while*, or by an infinitive.

e.g. *Harry was looking seriously at the fire for a long time.*

4. **An adverbials of time relationship** present the idea of time as related to some other event in time. This adverbial is expressed by such adverbs as *still, yet, already, at last, before, after*, by a noun, a gerund, or a prepositional phrase with the prepositions *by, before, after*. e.g. *The train has left already* means that **it has left by this time**.

The adverbial modifier of manner

Adverbials of manner are mainly adverbs or prepositional phrases introduced by the propositions *with, without, by, by means of, or with the help of*, the latter three suggesting means. The identifying questions are **how? in what way? by what means?**

e.g. *Once more he passed by table without stopping. She left him staring after her.*

Some adverbials of manner border on the prepositional object in cases like the following: e.g. *He opened the tin with a knife.*

The identifying questions are either **How did he open the tin?** or **What did he open the tin with?**

The adverbial modifier of degree and measure

The **adverbials of degree** are expressed mainly by adverbs and by prepositional phrases introduced by the preposition *to*. The identifying questions are **how much? to what extent?**

e.g. *"I think, it's pretty easy. I entirely agree with you. I quite understand you."*

The **adverbials of measure** are usually expressed by a noun denoting a unit of measure (length, time, weight, money, temperature). Such nouns are preceded by numerals or the indefinite article and are usually used after verbs denoting processes allowing measurement, such as *to measure, to last, to wait, to sleep, to walk, to run, to weigh, to cost*. e.g. *He was now a hundred yards from the water.*

The adverbial modifier of cause (reason)

The identifying questions of these adverbial modifiers are **why?** and **for what reason?** This adverb is used mainly as a conjunctive adverb. The following prepositions may be used: *because of, due to, owing to, on account of, for the reason of, thanks to* and some others. A number of polysemantic prepositions acquire causal meaning when combined with nouns denoting a psychological or physical state.

e.g. *She can't speak for happiness (anger, fear, joy). She cried out of fear (anger).*

He was trembling with hatred.

Participial phrases are freely used as adverbials of reason.

e.g. *Wanting a cigarette, I took out my case.*

Having lost the book, Helen couldn't prepare the topic.

The adverbial modifier of purpose

This adverbial answers the identifying questions **what for? for what purpose?** It is most frequently expressed by an infinitive phrase or a complex.

e.g. *Soames put on his coat so as not to be cold.*

The adverbial of purpose may also be expressed by a prepositional phrase, nominal or gerundial, introduced by a preposition *for*.

e.g. *He stepped aside for me to pass.*

The adverbial modifier of result (consequence)

The adverbial of result has no identifying questions. It refers to an adjective or an adverb accompanied by an adverb of degree, such as *too, enough, sufficiently, so ... (as)*. The adverbial of result is expressed with an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or complex.

e.g. *The unexpected offer of shelter was too unexpected to be resisted.*

Mr. Rokesmith has been so polite as to place his sitting-room at our disposal today. He didn't run fast enough to catch the train.

The adverbial modifier of condition

The identifying questions are **in what case? or on what condition?** The adverbial of condition is generally expressed by a noun or a pronoun with a preposition, or by a prepositional phrase (nominal or sometimes gerundial) with the prepositions *but for, except for, without*.

e.g. *But for the rain the weather would be fine.*

This adverbial is sometimes expressed by a participle or an adjective with the conjunctions *if* or *unless*.

e.g. *I shall buy this book if necessary.*

The adverbial modifier of concession

The identifying question is **in spite of what?** The adverbial of concession is expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by *in spite of, despite, for all, with all* and phrases with the conjunction *though*.

e.g. *Even Miriam laughed in spite herself.*

England! With all thy faults, I love thee still...

The adverbial modifier of comparison

This adverbial is introduced by the conjunctions *than, as, as if, as though* or the preposition *like*. The adverbial with *than* is preceded by the comparative of the adverb or the adjective it modifies, the adverbial with *as* – by the correlative adverbs *as* or *so*.

e.g. *Ann speaks English better **than** Mary. John is not **so** tall as his brother.
I never used to be **like this**. Her lips moved **as if** to warn him.
Tom speaks French **as a born** Frenchman.*

The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances

These adverbials have no identifying questions. The adverbial of attendant circumstances expresses some fact that accompanies the event presented by the modified part of the sentence. This adverbial may be expressed by a gerundial phrase, a participial phrase and any kind of absolute construction, and rather rarely by an infinitive phrase. The infinitive phrase is often found after the verb-predicate expressed by the verbs of motion (*to come, to run, to rush, leave, to return, to drive away, to get to some place, to arrive, etc.*)

e.g. *She left the room **without saying good-bye**. She rushed home **to find a thief exploring the house**.*

The adverbial modifier of exception

This adverbial is expressed by nouns or prepositional phrases with the prepositions *but, except, but for, except for, save for, apart from, aside from, with the exclusion of*.

e.g. *Your dictation is good **except for some spelling mistakes**.*

*Our cat eats nothing **but fish**.*

As you have already noticed, in the majority of cases, an **identifying question may help you to distinguish between adverbial modifiers from the semantic point of view**. **When?** suggests time, **where?** – place, **in what case?** – condition, etc. However, it is not always possible to find an identifying question for every adverbial. **Sometimes one and the same question word may correspond to different kinds of adverbials**. Thus **how?** may suggest **manner, comparison and degree**. On the other hand such adverbials are those of **result** and **attendant circumstances** have no corresponding question words.

Ways of expressing the adverbial modifiers

An adverbial modifier may be :

1. An adverb or adverbial phrase.

e.g. *Mor was irritated and **slightly** shocked.* (adverbial modifier of degree)

*They spoke **politely** about the current and the depths* (adverbial modifier of manner)

2. A noun, pronoun or numeral, preceded by a preposition (a prepositional nominal phrase).

e.g. *... he could not eat **for happiness**.* (adverbial modifier of cause or reason)

3. A noun without any preposition (a non-prepositional noun phrase) expressing *extent, distance, definite and indefinite time, price, etc.* The latter may contain such words as *this, that, every, last, next, etc.*

e.g. *He wandered **miles and miles**.* (adverbial modifier of distance)

*Come **this way**, please.* (adverbial modifier of direction)

Wait a minute! (adverbial modifier of time)

4. A noun with accompanying words or a syntactical word-combination.

5. A noun, a pronoun, an adjective, an infinitive, a participle, an infinitive or a participial phrase, an adverb, introduced by subordinate conjunctions.

e.g. *Helen knows English better **than** I.* (adverbial modifier of comparison)

*I'll buy this book **if necessary.*** (adverbial modifier of condition)

*They stood around her **though at a little distance**...* (adverbial modifier of concession)

Adverbial modifiers conjunctions are usually detached.

6. A non-finite verb forms:

a) a gerund or a gerundial phrase:

e.g. *How did you get out **without his seeing you?*** (adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances)

b) an infinitive, an infinitive phrase or an infinitive construction:

e.g. *To do well is better than **to speak well.*** (adverbial modifier of comparison)

*He is clever enough **to solve any problem.*** (adverbial modifier of result)

*He opened the study door, and held it **for her to pass in**...* (adverbial modifier of purpose)

c) a participle, a participial phrase or a participial construction:

e.g. ***Hoping to catch** the train, we took a taxi.* (adverbial modifier of reason).

EXERCISES. THE ADVERBIAL MODIFIER

Ex. 1. Point out the kind of an adverbial modifier and state by what it is expressed.

1. The children all stood holding their breath. 2. He can't be far away yet. 3. Across the threshold lay a great wolf. 4. A bee buzzed across their path. 5. Now we must get back to Folmund. 6. Then the bulldozers came to tear apart the wooden houses. 7. The crowd was listening quietly now. 8. At last Woods swam to the edge. 9. Woods stared silently at Mapetla. 10. The two teams were already on the field. 11. This time the laughter was louder. 12. Richard sat very still.

Ex. 2. Point out the kind of an adverbial modifier and state by what it is expressed.

1. Instantly she abandoned her plan. 2. Posy tried to say it in the same deep voice as she. 3. They had to wait in it quite a long time. 4. The summer term at the academy was fun. 5. Madame was still sitting in front of her samovar. 6. You can take them tonight. 7. For once in her life she was punctual. 8. After those first two nights of fearful loneliness, he never spent another evening in his closed-up house. 9. In Salinas he went straight to the public library. 10. Pat looked at it twenty times a day. 11. Pat blushed furiously.

Ex. 3. Point out the kind of an adverbial modifier and state by what it is expressed.

1. For ten years Pat Humbert drove above the valley in search of company. 2. The light had become painfully bright. 3. The prior's hearty warm-cheeked face went dark at the mention of Savonarola's name. 4. Dr. Livesey came late one afternoon to see the patient. 5. The girl (Aileen) was really beautiful and much above the average intelligence and force. 6. To cross from one end to the other was difficult because of the water. 7. To draw one does not need big muscles. 8. Her (Aileen's) eyes gleamed almost pleadingly... 9. She was remaining upstairs to give Mary full pleasure of being the hostess at her own party. 10. This, of course, in her present mood, was so incredibly beautiful...She began to laugh. 11. To live on good terms with people one must share their work and interests.

Ex. 4. Point out the kind of an adverbial modifier and state by what it is expressed.

1. Her marriage was more or less fixed for the twenty-eighth of the month. 2. Lately he'd made efforts to bring the matter up with Brian or Colin. 3. ...And our Alice is a great one for wanting a place of her own. 4. But for you we would never see him. 5. Bill was much too exhausted from his night vigil to be of any further help. 6. The day of our wedding came. He was to call for me to choose the furniture. 7. But for sheer coincidence, you would hardly be likely to run across him in this busy place. 8. He was beginning to sound really angry. 9. I gave up the attempt and went upstairs to unpack. 10. I wouldn't be what I am but for him. 11. Now, there is something peculiarly intimate in sharing an umbrella. 12. Thanks to his parents he got a decent education.

Ex. 5. Analyse the sentences, define the type of an adverbial modifier.

1. He looked very much like Lincoln as a young man. 2. In Cape Town black workers could get work without permits. 3. Nothing was to be seen on the top except a suit of very good clothes, carefully brushed and folded. 4. Evidently George and the sheriff were getting along in a very friendly way, for all the former's bitter troubles and lack of means. 5. The fire flowed up like a broad stream. 6. She ran off at once in the direction it pointed to, without trying to explain the mistake.

THE DETACHED (LOOSE) SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

The **detached secondary parts of the sentence** are those parts which acquire a certain grammatical and semantic independence in the sentence and they are much looser connected with the parts of the sentence on which they depend.

e.g. *Having posted the letter, he went into the dining-room.* (= when he had posted the letter). The detached secondary parts of the sentence may be adverbial modifiers, attributes, appositions, prepositional indirect objects and the detached specifying parts of the sentence (уточнюючі члени речення).

The Detached Adverbial Modifier

The **detached adverbial modifier** (of *place, time, condition, concession, manner or comparison, attendant circumstances*) may be expressed by an adverb, a participle, an adjective, a noun or a gerund with a preposition. The detached adverbial modifier is usually extended, but sometimes also unextended. The detached adverbial modifier may stand either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence, sometimes in the middle of it.

e.g. *Without saying anything to Christine, he began to look for a convenient consulting-room up the West. She glanced, sideways, at the old couple.*

The Detached Attribute

A **detached attribute** can modify not only a common noun as an ordinary attribute does but also a proper noun and a pronoun. A detached attribute can be expressed by an adjective or a participle and may stand before or after the word it modifies. When a detached attribute (an adjective or a participle) stands before the word it modifies, it has often additional adverbial meaning (*cause, condition, time, concession, comparison*) in addition to its attributive meaning.

e.g. *Thus encouraged, Oliver tapped at the study door.*

If the detached attribute stands at the end of the sentence, it may either have an additional adverbial meaning or express a state of the subject attending an action. In the case it approaches in its meaning that of a predicate, the difference consisting only in that the predicate in a double predicate is never detached. Compare:

Mont Blanc appears – still, snowy, and serene. (detached attribute)

The sun rose hot and unclouded. (predicatives in a predicate)

The Detached Object

The prepositional indirect object is often detached.

e.g. *Huckleberry Finn was there, with his dead cat.*

The Detached Specifying Parts of the Sentence

A specifying part of the sentence makes the meaning of some other part of the sentence more precise, but is not homogeneous with the latter. The specifying parts of the sentence may be extended or unextended, expressed by the same part of the speech as the words, to

which they refer, or with some other part of the speech, connected with the word, to which they refer either asyndetically or by means of conjunctions: *that is, namely*, etc.:

e.g. *We walked a very long distance, about six miles.* – the noun (**distance**) is specified by another noun (**miles**).

There, in the wonderful pine forest, we spend a delightful fortnight. – here an adverb (**there**) is specified by a noun (**forest**).

EXERCISES. THE DETACHED (LOOSE) SECONDARY PARTS OF THE SENTENCE

Ex. 1. Point out what parts are detached and by what they are expressed.

1. They searched every nook and corner round, together and separately. 2. Having crossed the marsh, I saw a trace of white over the moor. 3. She glanced, sideways, at the old couple. 4. But, far all that, they had a very pleasant walk. 5. Round the broken top of the tower ivy bused out, old and handsome. 6. He was a bright boy, healthy and strong. 7. He came in, with a large parcel under his arm. 8. Stout, middle-aged, full of energy, she bustled backwards and forwards from the kitchen to the dining-room. 9. As always, there were people in the park. 10. On the landing, close to the open door, she stood still.

Ex. 2. Point out what parts are detached and by what they are expressed.

1. Unbelievably, his eyes fixed, lips tightly compressed, Brande stared at the advancing youth. 2. We reached the station, with only a minute or two to spare. 3. In her excitement, Maria jammed the bedroom-door together. 4. Fleur rose from her chair – swiftly, restlessly, and flung herself down at the writing-table. 5. The Corporal lit a pipe, carefully, because the enemy was close. 6. They drove on, without speaking again, to Stanhope Gate. 7. Nicolas lay there, his brow still contracted, filled with perplexity and confusion. 8. Lizzy, a black-eyed child of seven, looked very shy ... 9. In the east mountain peaks – fingers of snow – glittered above the mist. 10. Thus encouraged, Oliver tapped at the study door.

Ex. 3. Point out what parts are detached and by what they are expressed.

1. It was wonderful up here, with the sun burning hot in the sky clear-blue already. 2. He was lying very still, ... with the sunlight falling across the foot of his bed. 3. A soft rain has begun to fall, hissing gently on the leaves. 4. Slowly, very silently, she went. 5. While skating along at full speed, they heard the cars from Amsterdam coming close behind them. 6. Restless, unhappy, puzzled, he wandered round and about all the afternoon. 7. Weary with watching and anxiety, he at length fell asleep. 8. Impatient for the light of spring, I have slept lately with the blind drawn up ... 9. Night came wonderfully there, among the throng of dark tree trunks. 10. An elderly lady, though not very far advanced in years with a proud carriage and a handsome face, was in the doorway as we alighted.

Ex. 4. Analyse the sentences, point out the detached parts and punctuate accordingly.

1. Below me spread a long reach of the lake steel-grey between its dim colourless shores. 2. David appeared in the open door one hand clutching a sheaf of bills under his other arm an account book. 3. Down below in the garden beds the red and yellow tulips heavy with flowers seemed to lean upon the dusk. 4. Having knocked on his door she firmly entered Grandpa's room. 5. A leaf golden yellow drifted to her feet.. 6. At that moment she saw him standing at a little distance under one of the trees the back turned towards her. 7. The boy was visible below the younger child still trotting behind him. 8. Blind and almost senseless like a bird caught in a snare he still heard the sharp slam of the door. 9. He ate little quickly watchfully. 10. He and his brothers were waiting in the courtyard to receive him the sun shining on their bare heads.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS. HOMOGENEOUS PARTS

A word or a group of words that has no grammatical connection with the sentence in which it stands is called **an independent element of a sentence**.

The independent elements are: **interjections**, **direct address** and **parenthesis**.

Interjections are a specific class of words or expressions which we use to express a strong feeling such as *joy, sorrow, surprise, indignation, pain, horror*, etc., and which we often say loudly and emphatically. **Oh** has some degree of surprise or emotion. **Wow** means that the speaker is surprised or impressed. **Ow** – an expression of sudden slight pain. **Ouch** Аһ! Оһ! – a cry expressing sudden pain. **Whoops, oops** – when someone has fallen, dropped something, or made a mistake.

e.g. *Oh wow, they really did that tree nice. Ow! I've got the stomach ache.*

Wow, what a fantastic dress!

"Ah, of course, I have been there many times."

Oops, I nearly dropped my cup of tea!

A **direct address** which is used to arouse the attention of somebody is also an independent element of the sentence:

e.g. *"Bill, I'm afraid it's your son and young Carde."*

"What do you say, Don?"

A **parenthesis** expresses the speaker's attitude towards the utterance. It is connected with the rest of the sentences rather semantically than grammatically. No question can be put to it. Very often it is detached from the rest of the sentence and consequently it is often separated from it by commas or dashes.

e.g. *"Can I trust you, I wonder?"*

"Of course, I wanted to come."

A **parenthesis** can be expressed by:

1. **Modal words**, such as *perhaps, no doubt, indeed, in fact, evidently, may be, certainly, decidedly, truly, naturally, actually, surely, assuredly, possibly, obviously*, etc., modal expressions or whole sentences which have modal force. Very often such clauses are stereotyped conversation formulas, such as: *I think, I believe, I expect, I dare say, I suppose, I guess, I hope, I see, you know*, etc.

e.g. *But it's obviously a good picture.*

Perhaps it was silly of me.

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

e.g. *"Yet", he thought, "I may have failed to understand her, but I have at least tried."*

Anyhow, nothing had been settled yet.

3. **Prepositional phrases**, such as: *by the way, on the other hand, at least, on the contrary, in short, by the by, to begin with, to tell the truth, in a word, in truth, in my opinion, on the one hand, to one's surprise, as for me, at any rate, upon my word*, etc.

e.g. *On the other hand, she might wish to keep the affair quiet...*

4. **Infinitive and participial phrases**, such as: *to tell the truth, to be sure, to begin with, to do somebody justice, frankly speaking, generally speaking, strictly speaking, comparatively speaking*, etc.

e.g. *"I'm sure that's not it", I said. To tell you the truth, I don't want to go there. I'd like some salad to begin with. That was, so to speak, another gift for you.*

Homogeneous Parts

There are sentences which contain several homogeneous (однорідні) parts: two or more subjects to one common predicate, two or more predicates to one common subject, two or more objects of a similar kind to one verb or adjective, etc.

Homogeneous parts may be connected either by means of coordinating conjunctions or *asyndetically*. They are separated from each other by pauses in speech and by commas in writing.

From the point of view of their syntactical function there may be:

1) **homogeneous subjects:**

e.g. *Raymond's nose and ears were terribly punished by the sun.*

2) **homogeneous predicates:**

e.g. *Mor mixed some brandy with black coffee and drank it.*

3) **homogeneous predicatives:** e.g. *Her eyes seemed glazed and sightless.*

4) **homogeneous objects** (direct and indirect):

e.g. *He soon got to know his brothers, father and mother.*

5) **homogeneous attributes:** e.g. *He was a big, simple, young man.*

6) **homogeneous adverbial modifiers:**

e.g. *He said this without thought, automatically.*

Homogeneous parts may be connected by different coordinating conjunctions:

a) copulative conjunctions *and, nor, neither...nor, as well as, both...and, not only...but also:*

e.g. *He carried in chairs and tables. Neither I nor my descendants will be able to move.*

b) disjunctive conjunctions *or, either...or*

c) adversative conjunction *but* and conjunctive adverb *yet:*

e.g. *There was a room, rather dark, but full of dark light, really.*

EXERCISES. INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS. HOMOGENEOUS PARTS

Ex. 1. Point out all the independent elements and say by what they are expressed.

1. Bill, I'm afraid, it's your son and young Carde. 2. Still, neither of them appeared to be moving. 3. There had been problems, of course, and moments of decision. 4. Almost at once, however, certain other and quite irrational feelings came to plague her. 5. Perhaps she had been taken ill. Perhaps she had decided not to come. Perhaps she had been offended at something he had said yesterday. 6. "Well, you tell me what that is, Bledyard," said Mor. 7. "In fact", he said, "according to Mr. Everard she's a very shy, naive girl." 8. I wonder how much longer the heat wave will last. 9. Of course he no longer loved her. 10. Evvy started, as usual, with a little joke. 11. Anyway, she wouldn't come back in night. 12. Of course I wanted to come.

Ex. 2. Point out all the independent elements and say by what they are expressed.

1. Maybe they aren't used to it yet. 2. At least a dozen were at the pool that evening. 3. "To outside, Jody," he said. 4. "Sure, I guess you could," said Billy Buck. 5. Well, where is he? 6. Is it like to rain, Billy? 7. Who's the letter from, Care? 8. Well, he hasn't enough to keep him busy. 9. Why, this is Saturday. 10. Well, what of it? 11. Well, it's everything to him. 12. Maybe I better walk up the road to meet him.

Ex. 3. Point out homogeneous parts, define them and say by what they are expressed. Define repetitions if there are any.

1. He'd come in and seen a strange topee in the hall and had come upstairs and found your room locked. 2. They were newly and remotely happy. 3. He was a short, square-built old fellow, with thick bushy hair and a grizzled beard. 4. I had to work at his picture and to paint him entirely different. 5. Santos placed his hands on Glory's lips and kissed her. 6. He soon got to know his brothers, sisters, father and mother. 7. A man can be destroyed but not defeated. 8. He turned on the step and looked down upon him. 9. Yudrun was very beautiful, soft-skinned, soft-limbed. 10. Yudrun was becoming flushed and exited over her own cleverness.

Ex. 4. Point out the ways of sentence extension (homogeneous parts, explanatory words or phrases, different kinds of repetitions, etc.).

1. Then a very strange and a very cruel thing happened. 2. The leather chairs shivered and shrank like live things from the heat. 3. They could see the big black pipe hanging over the mantel. 4. The flame covered the square of the room and blotted it out. 5. Bert had come back and was standing helplessly beside John. 6. John looked up at him and smiled with a kind of horrified amusement. 7. John Whiteside stood up from the sawbuck and straightened his shoulders and sighed. 8. He saw the gesture and smiled at her. 9. A young priest with a clean rosy face and a pride in his new serge cassock answered, "But it has worked." 10. They climbed stiffly from their seats and stood on the ridge peak and looked down into the Pastures of Heaven.

SIMPLE SENTENCE ANALYSIS

Plan

1. According to the purpose of the utterance it is a:

- **declarative** (affirmative/negative);
- **interrogative** (general (yes/no) question/ special (wh) question/ alternative question/ disjunctive (tag) question);
- **imperative**;
- **exclamatory sentence**.

2. According to the structure it is a:

- **two member** *complete* (if there are both subject and predicate) / *incomplete* (if one or both principal parts are missing, but can be easily understood from the context)
 - extended (if there are one or more secondary parts: object, attribute, adverbial modifier) /
 - unextended (if there are only principal parts of the sentence)
- **one-member** (consists of only one member, which is neither subject, nor predicate, used in descriptions and emotional speech) **sentence**.

3. The principal parts of the sentence are:

- **the subject**. It is expressed by....
- **the predicate**. It is a

-*simple* verbal predicate

It is expressed by the verb “to.....” in (tense form)

-*compound* - verbal modal predicate

It consists of the modal verb “.....” and the infinitive “to”

- verbal aspect (phasal) predicate

It consists of the verb of the beginning/continuation/end of the action “to.....” in (tense form) and the infinitive/gerund “”

-nominal

It consists of the link verb “to.....” in (tense form) and the predicative “....”, expressed by (part of speech).

- *mixed type*, namely - modal aspect predicate

- modal nominal predicate

- aspect nominal predicate

It consists of ...

4. The secondary parts of the sentence are:

- **the object** (direct, indirect, complex, cognate);
- **the attribute**;
- **the apposition**;
- **the adverbial modifier** (of time, place and direction, manner, degree and measure, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, comparison, exception, attendant circumstances).

It is expressed by...

Examples of simple sentence analysis.

1. Hope was beginning to look pale.

According to the purpose of the utterance it is a declarative sentence.

According to the structure it is a simple two-member complete unextended sentence.

Hope is the subject expressed by a noun in the common case.

Was beginning to look pale is the predicate. It is a compound aspect (phasal) nominal predicate (a mixed type). It consists of the phasal verb “to begin” in the past continuous active form, and a nominal part “to look pale”. **To look** is a link verb expressed by the infinitive. It is a link verb of being. **Pale** is a predicative expressed by an adjective in the positive degree.

REVISION

The Simple Sentence

Ex. 1. Analyze the following sentences. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. "Who cares for you?" said Alice. 2. She gave a little scream, half of fright and half of anger, and tried to beat them off, and found herself lying on the bank, with her head on the lap of her sister. 3. "Wake up, Alice dear!" said her sister. "Why what a long sleep you've had!" 4. "Oh, I've had such a curious dream!" said Alice. 5. It was a curious dream, dear, certainly. 6. So she sat on, with closed eyes, and half believed herself in Wonderland. 7. The white Rabbit put on his spectacles. "Where shall I begin, please your Majesty?" he asked. 8. There was dead silence in the court. 9. The King turned pale, and shut his notebook hastily. 10. "Well, I shan't go, at any rate," said the Alice. 11. "It's the oldest rule in the book," said the King. 12. "Are they in the prisoner's handwriting?" asked another of the jurymen. 13. "Consider your verdict," he said to the jury, in a low trembling voice. 14. "What do you know about this business?" the King said to Alice. "Nothing," said Alice. 15. "Oh, I beg your pardon!" she exclaimed in a tone of great dismay. 16. In his explanation there was a tone of apology.

Ex. 2. Analyze the following sentences. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. Near the King was the white Rabbit, with a trumpet in one hand, and a scroll of parchment in the other. 2. So she began looking at everything about her to pass away the time. 3. In the very middle of the court was a table, with a large dish of tarts upon it. 4. Alice had never been in a court of justice before. 5. "Herald, read the accusation!" said the King. 6. "Call the first witness," said the King. 7. "Give you evidence," said the King, "and don't be nervous". 8. He kept shifting from one food to the other, looking uneasily at the Queen. 9. In his confusion he bit a large piece out of his teacup instead of the bread-and-butter. 10. This, of course, Alice could not stand. 11. "Well, I never heard it before," said the Mock Turtle. 12. The hedgehog was engaged in a fight with another hedgehog, which seemed to Alice an excellent opportunity for croqueting one of them with the other. 13. "Hush! Hush!" said the Rabbit in a low, hurried tone. 14. "It wasn't very civil of you to sit down without being invited," said the March Hare. 15. The door led right into a large kitchen, which was full of smoke from one end to the other.

Ex. 3. Analyze the following sentences. Translate into Ukrainian.

1. The Duchess was sitting on a three-legged stool in the middle, nursing a baby. 2. "But am I to do?" said Alice. "Anything you like," said the Footman, and began whistling. 3. "A likely story indeed!" said the Pigeon. 4. She was a good deal frightened by this very sudden change. 5. "It is a very good height indeed!" said the Caterpillar angrily. 6. "Not quite right, I'm afraid," said Alice timidly. 7. "What size do you want to be?" it asked. "Oh! I'm not particular as to size," Alice hastily replied. 8. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the mushroom. 9. "So you did, old fellow!" said the others. 10. Alice heard the Rabbit say "A barrowful will do, to begin with". 11. "A barrowful of what?" thought Alice. 12. "There goes Bill!" "Catch him, you by the hedge!" 13. She waited for some time without hearing anything more.

THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

The composite sentence is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses. Within a composite sentence the clauses may be joined by means of coordination or subordination, thus forming **a compound** or **a complex sentence** respectively.

Coordination is a way of linking grammatical elements to make them equal in rank.

Subordination is a way of linking grammatical elements that makes one of them dependent upon the other (or they are mutually dependent).

e.g. *I will keep her with me, **and** you will come as always, **but** no one else must interfere.* (coordination)

*There were now so many different things to worry about, **that** they didn't know **what** to do.* (subordination)

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

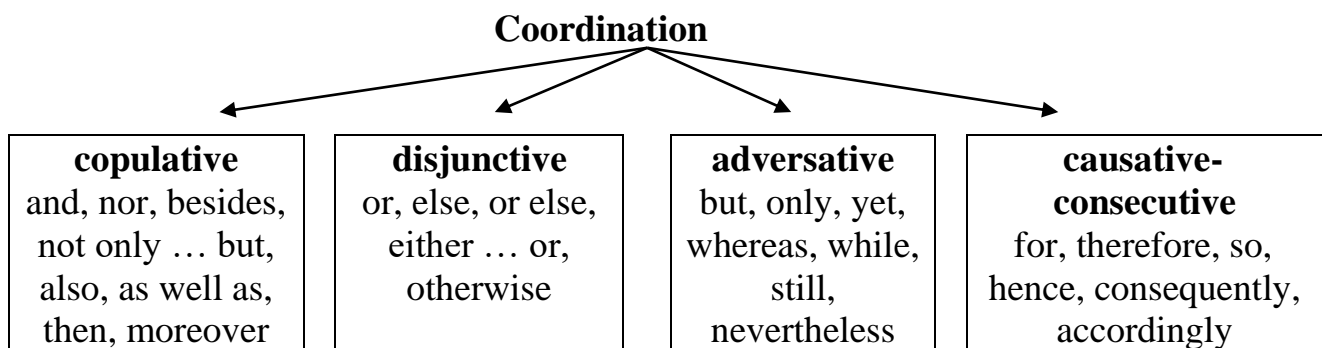
The compound sentence is the sentence which consists of two or more independent clauses. In a compound sentence the clauses may be connected:

a) syndetically i.e. by means of connectors: coordinate conjunctions (**and, or, but, else, nor, for,** etc.) or conjunctive adverbs (**moreover, besides, otherwise, however, yet, still, therefore, nevertheless,** etc.)

e.g. *It was only five o'clock, **but** she needed to go to bed.*

b) asyndetically, i.e. without any connector.

From the point of view of the relationship between coordinate clauses, we distinguish four kinds of coordinate connection: **copulative, adversative, disjunctive** and **causative-consecutive**.



The type of connection is expressed not only by means of coordinating connectives, but also by the general meaning of clauses conveyed by their lexical and grammatical content.

Copulative coordination implies that the events or ideas conveyed by coordinate clauses are merely joined in time and place. The copulative connectors are: the conjunctions **and, nor, neither... nor, not only... but (also), as well as,** and the conjunctive adverbs **then, moreover, besides**.

e.g. *They both got up and left the tea things on the table, **and** Mr. Tuinnus once more put up his umbrella and gave Lucy his arm, and they went out into the snow.*

e.g. *I didn't hurt you, **nor** did I frighten you.*

Disjunctive coordination implies a choice between two mutually exclusive alternatives. The disjunctive conjunctions are **or, either... or**, the conjunctive adverbs are **else (or else), otherwise**.

e.g. *Did you desire to be Wamphyri, **or** was it forced upon you?*

Adversative coordination joins clauses containing opposition, contradiction or contrast. Adversative connectors are: the conjunctions **but, while, whereas**, the conjunctive adverbs **however, yet, still, nevertheless**, and the conjunctive particle **only**.

e.g. *Over and over he called to them, **but** they did not come.*

Causative-consecutive coordination joins clauses connected in such a way that one of them contains a reason and the other – a consequence. The second clause may contain either the reason or the result of the event conveyed by the previous clause. This type of coordination is expressed by the only causative conjunction **for**, consecutive conjunctions **so, so that** and consecutive adverbs **therefore, accordingly, then, hence, thus, consequently**. A causative clause may be also joined *asyndetically*.

e.g. *At first I thought that they were brother and sister, they were so much alike.*

Causative conjunction **for** introduces coordinate clauses explaining the preceding statement.

e.g. *From the first day the children of the school adored her, **for** she understood them.*

EXERCISES. THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

Ex. 1. Point out sentences with a) syndetic and b) asyndetic coordination. Comment on the type of coordination (copulative, adversative, disjunctive and causative-consecutive).

1. That isn't too far from this crumby place, and he comes over and visits me practically every week end. 2. I sat next to her once in the bus from Hagerstown and we sort of struck up a conversation. 3. Quite a few guys came from these very wealthy families, but it was full of crooks anyway. 4. They didn't have a maid or anything, and they always opened the door themselves. 5. It's partly true, too, but it isn't all true. 6. He made out like he was only pinching it, but he was really getting the old thumb right in there. 7. It was only about two inches away, but he missed anyway. 8. It was a very cruel thing to do, in chapel and all, but it was also quite amusing. 9. She stood up and turning to him stretched out her arms: he took her in his and kissed her.

Ex. 2. Point out sentences with a) syndetic and b) asyndetic coordination. Comment on the type of coordination (copulative, adversative, disjunctive and causative-consecutive).

1. Of course he didn't care for her; she bored him to death. 2. She was a wonderful mother, and she was a gentlewoman. 3. He was painstaking, industrious, and capable, but he had not the will to advance himself. 4. Kitty was lively; she was willing to chatter all day long and she laughed easily. 5. He was fond of games; he played tennis and bridge. 6. He was well-dressed, the best-dressed man in the room, and he wore his clothes well. 7. Walter looked at his guest with a cold and ironic gaze, but he was evidently not a little amused by him. 8. He tried to put them on, but his nervousness, for her alarm was affecting him, made him clumsy. 9. Her voice was deep, low, and controlled, and either she spoke in English or in French, she spoke slowly. 10. Not only she began to regain her spirits; but she felt better and stronger.

Ex. 3. Point out sentences with a) syndetic and b) asyndetic coordination. Comment on the type of coordination (copulative, adversative, disjunctive and causative-consecutive).

1. All day he hung round the cove, or upon the cliffs, with a brass telescope; all evening he sat in a corner of the parlour next the fire, and drank rum and water very strong. 2. Then followed a battle of looks between them; but the captain soon knuckled under, put up his weapon, and resumed his seat, grumbling like a beaten dog. 3. Soon after Dr. Livesey's horse came to the door, and he rode away; but the captain held his peace that evening, and far many evenings to come. 4. It was a bitter cold winter, with long, hard frosts and heavy gales; and it was plain from the first that my poor father was little likely to see the spring. 5. He sank daily, and my mother and I had the entire inn upon our hands; and were kept busy enough, without paying much regard to our unpleasant guest. 6. First he recognized the doctor with an unmistakable frown; then his glance fell upon me, and he looked relieved. 7. But suddenly his colour changed, and he tried to raise himself, crying.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

The complex sentence is the sentence which consists of two or more clauses that are linked by means of subordination. The clauses are not equal in rank, one of them being **the main (principal) clause** and others being **dependent (subordinate) clauses**. The most frequent function of the subordinate clauses is that of an adverbial modifier.

Types of adverbial clauses

According to their semantics we distinguish **adverbial clauses of time, place, manner, comparison, condition, concession, purpose, cause, result**.

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of time (temporal clause).

An **adverbial clause of time** shows the time of the action expressed in the principal clause. The action may be expressed by a finite or non-finite form of the verb. The identifying questions for temporal clause are: **When? How long? At what time?** An adverbial clause of time may be introduced by conjunctions (**as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, while, now that, till, until, after, before, since**) or recently formed conjunctions and phrasal conjunctions (**the time (that), the day (that), the moment, the instant, next time, every (each) time, directly, immediately, instantly, once**). Every conjunction in the above list imparts a particular shade of meaning to the temporal relation – priority, simultaneity, succession of actions, the beginning or the end of the action, repetition, coincidence of two actions, gradual development of a process, etc.

e.g. *Did he say anything special to you **before I came**?* (priority of the action in the subordinate clause)

*... I was watching his eyes pretty closely **while we were exchanging these remarks** ...* (simultaneity)

***When those two were gone** Jolion did not return to his painting.* (succession of actions)

*He had only spoken that one word **since he entered the room**.* (subordinate clause shows the starting point of the action in the principal clause)

***As they approached the house**, they became quieter and quieter.* (gradual development of a process)

Note 1. The conjunction **when** introducing adverbial clauses of time should not be confused with the adverb when introducing **subject clauses, predicative clauses, object clauses, and attributive relative clauses**.

e.g. *She did not turn nor give any sign of recognition **when Maria entered**.* (adverbial clause of time)

***When they'd come** was not clear.* (subject clause)

*The question is **when the document will be signed**.* (predicative clause)

*There was no net and the boy remembered **when they had sold it**.* (object clause)

*It seemed that the valley lay crouched in waiting for the time **when Bobbie should go to school**.* (attributive clause)

Note 2. The conjunction **as** may be used to join clauses of **cause, manner, concession, comparison** and also to introduce **parenthetical clauses**.

e.g. *As he was new to the area, he did not know anyone.* (clause of cause)

Let me have a cup of China tea as strong as you can make it. (clause of manner)

He kissed her quickly and ran towards the wicket as fast as he could. (clause of comparison)

Simple as it seem you will have to work a great deal on it. (clause of concession)

I was in real distress, as I can tell you. (parenthetical clause)

Note 3. Adverbial clauses of time introduced by subordinating conjunction **since** should not be confused with **adverbial clauses of reason (cause)** which has explanatory meaning.

e.g. *The Lord of the Rings has been read by many people since it finally appeared in print.* (clause of time)

Katherine was glad of every weakness in her daughter since each one made her feel closer and more worthy. (clause of cause)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of place

An **adverbial clause of place** defines the place or the direction of the action expressed in the principal clause. It may be introduced by one of the following conjunctions: **where, whence, wherever, everywhere (that)** and conjunctive adverbs with prepositions. A clause introduced by **wherever** can express direction as well as position. Subordinate clauses introduced by **where** indicate: 1) the place where the action is going on (де?); 2) the place towards which the action is directed (куди?); 3) the starting point of the action (звідки?).

To indicate direction, **to** is sometimes added; to indicate the starting point, **from where (whence)** is used.

e.g. 1) *They had stopped to rest beneath a finger-post where four roads met.*

2) *Trask ... stepped across the room to where David Chung was still mazed, staggering.*

3) *Carol was now standing on the jetty, just inches away from the front of the boat and no more than ten feet away from where the man was sitting.*

Note. Adverbial clauses of place introduced by the conjunction **where** should not be confused with **predicative** or **object clauses** introduced by the conjunctive adverb **where** or its derivatives, or with **attributive clauses** introduced with the relative adverb **where**. The discrimination is determined by the meaning and nature of the word the clause refers to.

e.g. *Now tell me where it is.* (object clause) *The end of the pass was now in sight, where the mountains sloped down to Starside's plains.* (clause of place) *Langdon had already discerned that this was where Sam's body lay.* (predicative clause) *He moved to the bedroom where his father lay on the bed.* (attributive clause)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of manner

Adverbial clauses of manner characterize in a general way the action expressed in the principal clause. Therefore they may have different reference. The most common conjunctions to introduce them are **as** and **the way**. In such adverbial clauses the idea of comparison is often implied,

e.g. *Joe left the house as he had entered it...*

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of comparison

Adverbial clauses of comparison denote an action with which the action in the principal clause is compared.

e.g. *He was white, as if he had not slept for many nights.*

Clauses of comparison may be introduced with conjunctions **as** (with **as, so, not so** in the principal clause), **like, as if, as if** (with **as** in the principal clause), **as though, than**.

e.g. *It's unlikely they (constants) stayed the same as they were fixed a month ago.*

Complex sentences where the principal and subordinate clauses are connected by **the** with a comparative (**the more... the more, as ... so**, etc.) show a correlative increase, quantitative or qualitative, in both the principal and the subordinate clause:

e.g. *The more we reflect upon this question, the harder it is to answer.*

In the above type of complex sentences both clauses may be elliptical, especially in colloquial speech and proverbs:

e.g. *The sooner, the better. The more, the better. The nearer the bone, the sweeter the flesh.*

Compare with the Ukrainian: *Чим раніше, тим краще. Чим більше, тим краще. Що на дні, то й найсолодше.*

Note. The conjunctions **as if** and **as though** may also introduce **appositive** and **predicative clauses**, as the comparative meaning may combine with different syntactic connections.

e.g. *She looked at me as if nothing was wrong.* (adverbial clause)

She had a look as if she had something in her mouth. (appositive clause)

She looked as if she had something in her mouth. (predicative clause)

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of condition

Adverbial clauses of condition state some condition (either real or unreal) which is necessary for the realization of the action expressed in the principal clause. Adverbial clauses of condition may be introduced by the conjunctions: **if, even if, only if, unless** (ЯКЩО НЕ), **once, in case, suppose, supposing, on condition that, in the event that, provided** (ПРИ УМОВІ), **whether or not**, etc. There are also several conjunctions derived from verbal forms, sometimes followed by the optional **that**: **provided (that), providing (that), suppose (that), supposing (that), considering (that), given (that), granted (that), granting (that), admitting (that), presuming (that), seeing (that)**. Clauses beginning with **unless** express the only possible condition, which will make the action in the main clause possible. The verb is always in the affirmative form after **unless**.

e.g. *Unless somebody interferes, there may be a disaster.*

The conjunctions **provided** and **providing** open a clause containing some desirable condition for the fulfillment of the action expressed by the predicate in the main clause.

e.g. *And you can do what you please, **provided** you do it neatly and don't make a row over it.*

The conjunctions **suppose** and **supposing** always imply that the condition is merely hypothetical.

e.g. ***Suppose** someone gained access to this lab, what do you imagine it would be after?*

The conjunction **whether or not** expresses the idea that neither this condition nor that condition matters; the result will be the same. **Whether or not** can be substituted by **even if**.

e.g. *I'm going to go swimming tomorrow **whether or not** it is cold. (or **whether** it is cold or not) = **Even if** the weather is cold, I'm going to go swimming.*

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of concession

In complex sentences with **concessive clauses** there is a contrast between the content of the principal clause and that of the subordinate one: the action or fact described in the principal clause is carried out or takes place despite the action or state expressed in the subordinate clause. This type of clause is introduced by: the conjunctions **although, though, if**; correlative conjunctions **though...yet, whether...or**; conjunctive pronouns or adverbs **whoever, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever** (which may stand for almost any part of the sentence), **as**; or composite conjunctions **no matter how, no matter what, for all that, despite that, in spite of the fact, despite the fact, even if, even though even when**.

e.g. ***However** ignorant he was – (The focus is the predicative.) Яким би неосвіченим він не був...*

*Late **as** it was – Хоча було пізно... Як би пізно не було...*

*Try **as** he might – (The focus is the notional part of the predicate.) Хоч як би він не старався...*

***Whoever** may come – (The focus is the subject.) Хто б не прийшов...*

There is some similarity between **clauses of condition** and **concession**. The difference lies in the fact that whereas conditional clauses state the dependence of one action or circumstance on another, concessive clauses imply a contrast or lack of dependence between them. Thus the following sentences with concessive clauses

e.g. *Although the weather was fine, he did not go for a walk (the second statement is surprising in the light of the first) may be rephrased using coordinate clauses joined by the contrastive **but**.*

e.g. *The weather was fine, **but** he did not go for a walk.*

In complex sentences with a conditional clause the dependence has no contrast.

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of purpose

Clauses of purpose generally state the purpose of the action, which is expressed in the main clause. Adverbial clauses of purpose are introduced by conjunctions **that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that.**

e.g. *I tell you all this **so that** you may understand me perfectly.*

Note. The conjunctions *that, so that, lest, so* are found not only in **clauses of purpose**: *that* may introduce **subject clauses, predicative clauses, and object clauses**; *so that* may introduce **clauses of result, lest – clauses of cause, subject clauses, predicative clauses and object clauses**; *so* – **clauses of result and of cause.**

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of cause.

Adverbial **clauses of cause** (or causative clauses) express the reason, cause, or motivation of the action expressed in the principal clause or of its content as a whole. Causative clauses may be introduced by the conjunctions **as, because, since, so, that, lest, seeing (that),** considering; or by the composite conjunctions **for the reason that, in view of the fact that, in so far as (insofar as), by reason of, now that.** Of these the conjunction **as** is preferable when the sentence opens with a clause of cause.

e.g. *As he was tired he preferred to stay at home. Since there is no help, let us try....*

“And why didn’t you tell me?” – “Because I forgot, simply.”

Unlike **because**, the conjunctions **since** and **as** introduce clauses with an explanatory meaning, or else that of motivation.

e.g. *Since we are here, we may start our work.*

Note. Causative relation may be found in compound sentences with the coordinating conjunction **for**. Its coordinate character is unmistakably shown by the fact that the clause with **for** cannot stand before the other half of the sentence.

e.g. *Their mother didn’t know it, **for** she was confined, and the neighbours who came to help in the house hadn’t the courage nor the cruelty to tell her.*

In colloquial English a clause of cause may be joined rather loosely to a sentence which cannot be its main clause:

e.g. *Are you going to the post-office? Because I have some letters to post. (I ask you this because I have some letters to post.)*

The complex sentence with an adverbial clause of result (consequence)

An adverbial clause of result denotes some consequence or result of the action expressed in the principal clause. It may be introduced by the conjunction **so that, or so/such ... that, (and) as a result, (and) as a consequence, consequently, so.** Clauses of result introduced by **so that** express pure result, they are usually separated from the principal clause by a comma.

e.g. *Impatient for the light of spring, I have slept lately with my blind drawn up, **so that at waking, I have the sky in view.***

Adverbial clauses of result introduced by the conjunction **that** with **so** or **such** in the principal clause comprise an additional meaning of degree. Such clauses are not separated from the principal clause by a comma.

e.g. *So sudden it was, and so unexpected that Buck was taken aback.*

He is so weak physically that he can hardly move.

THE COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE

A **compound-complex sentence** is a sentence consisting of two or more coordinative clauses one of which at least has one or several subordinate clauses.

e.g. *She was filled with a new sense of peace; she felt protected and clothed against the tragedies which had beset her for so long. He was sorry; he didn't know how it had happened.*

EXERCISES. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

Ex. 1. Point out adverbial clauses of time and place.

1. My mother died when I was only four years old... 2. Sometimes at night when she couldn't go to sleep, Mrs. Turpin would occupy herself the question of who she would have chosen to be if she couldn't have been herself. 3. The lawyer stood a while when Mr. Hyde had left him 4. He was wild when he was young... 5. On Monday Poirot was out all day, but when he returned in the evening, he flung himself into his chair with a sign of satisfaction. 6. Just as he disappeared from view a woman rushed into the room.

Ex. 2. Clauses of manner and comparison. Put the verbs in brackets into the correct tense.

1. Does he ever have a holiday? It seems as though he ... (work)... seven days a week! 2. My father is so proud of his cooking – he behaves as though he (be) a trained chef. 3. The boy was staring at the motorbike as if he (never/see) one before. 4. She is so skinny! She looks as though she (never/eat) a proper meal in her life! 5. He slept for ten hours last night but today he's acting as though he (not/have) any sleep at all. 6. She isn't a member of the aristocracy but she acts as though she (be). 7. My brother isn't rich but he spends money as if he (be) a millionaire. 8. He talked about Hawaii as if he (be) there, but we knew he hadn't.

Ex. 3. Point out the adverbial clauses of condition and concession.

1. I am devoted to Maxim ... though we always bicker like cat and dog when we meet. 2. Old as they were, her aunts also did their share. 3. What happens to the fifth wheel doesn't matter so long as the car runs. 4. Although she said nothing I felt guilty... 5. You gave her the wounds she died of. There is the truth for your comfort, however you like it. 6. And he followed her out of the door, whatever his feelings might be. 7. I could work faster if your irons were only hotter. 8. She was not looking at him, but she seemed to be listening, as though perhaps she was impressed not so much by what he was saying as by the simple, anxious tone of his voice. 9. If I am not mistaken, several interesting things will take place there before long.

Ex. 4. The adverbial clauses of concession. Choose the correct word or phrase out of the underlined in each sentence.

1. I read the book you suggested. I didn't enjoy it, although/however. 2. In spite of/Although we warned him, Harry still got lost. 3. Although/However I like it here, I won't stay here long. 4. Cars are convenient, on the other hand/whereas, they cause pollution. 5. I didn't have much time, but/however I managed to visit lots of places. 6. Catherine won the race, although/despite she fell over. 7. Although/In spite of the train was delayed, it arrived on time. 8. I didn't manage to jump over the wall, although/yet I tried twice. 9. However/Despite the great danger, we decided to attempt the rescue. 10. In spite of the fact that/Despite she is disabled, she plays a lot of sports. 11. He decided not to do the computer course, although/whereas it would have been useful to him.

Ex. 5. Combine the sentences, using adverbial clauses of purpose. Use different conjunctions (*that, so that, lest, so as, so, in order that, for fear that*). Purpose can be expressed in various ways. Look at the examples, then rewrite the sentences in as many ways as possible.

He left early. He wanted to catch the train.

*He left early so that he would/could catch the train. He left early to catch the train. He left early **in order not to miss** the train. He left early **with the aim of catching** the train. He left early so that he wouldn't miss the train.*

*He left early **with a view to** catching the train.*

1. The bank contacted me. They informed me that I was overdrawn. 2. The burglar wiped the gun. He didn't want to leave his fingerprints. 3. He doesn't carry a lot of cash. He might get robbed. 4. She saved money. She intended to buy a house. 5. I ran. I wanted to catch the bus. 6. Jane gave Bob her phone number. Then Bob could ring her. 7. Let's buy some Cola. We may have guests. 8. This is a tin opener. You use it to open tins.

Ex. 6. Combine the sentences, using adverbial clauses to show cause. Use different conjunctions or conjunctive phrases (*as, because, since, so, that, lest, considering, for the reason that, in view of the fact that* etc.)

We can go swimming every day. The weather is warm.

*We can go swimming every day **now that** the weather is warm.*

1. All of the students had done poorly on the test. The teacher decided to give it again. 2. Cold air hovers near the earth. It is heavier than hot air. 3. You paid for the theater tickets. Please let me pay for our dinner. 4. Larry is finally caught up on his work. He can start his vacation tomorrow. 5. Our TV set was broken. We listened to the news on the radio. 6. My brother got married last month. He's a married man now, so he has more responsibilities. 7. Oil is an irreplaceable natural resource. We must do whatever we can in order to conserve it. 8. Do you want to go for a walk? The rain has stopped.

Ex. 7. Comment on the use of *so that* and *so...that*. Define the kinds of clauses.

1. Was I breathing so loudly that you could hear me? 2. At last it (the argument) grew so heated that the cook was called from the kitchen to be interpreter. 3. Darkness had fallen and a keen blizzard was blowing, so that the streets were nearly deserted. 4. I crouched against the wall of gallery so that I should not be seen. 5. They were rich and I was poor, so that it was no easy matter for me to follow them. 6. I turned away, so that Frith should not see my face.

Ex. 8. Distinguish between adverbial clauses of result and adverbial clauses of cause. Join the sentences using the words in brackets.

*It was a hard job. We were exhausted by the time we had finished. (**such...that**)*

*It was **such** a hard job **that** we were exhausted by the time we had finished.*

1. He'd forgotten to bring the report with him. He had to go home and get it. (**because**) 2. The food was bad. We complained to the manager. (**Since ...**) 3. It was a long journey. They packed some food to take with them. (**due to the fact**) 4. I hate sailing. I get seasick. (**because**). 5. Their house is too small. They are going to look for a larger one. (**consequently**) 6. Sharon is busy this weekend. She can't come to the

seaside with us. (**Since**) 7. The exam was difficult. Many students failed. (**such...that**) 8. They fell behind with the project. They had to work overtime. (**as a result**) 9. Their flight was delayed. They spent the night in a hotel. (**as**).

Ex. 9. State what kinds of clauses are introduced by *as*. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. As Gabriel never ate sweets the celery had been left for him. 2. I'll do as I like. 3. Gerald, come near to me. Quite close to me, as you used to do when you were a little boy ... 4. I went through the long drawing-room, as he had directed ... 5. But this writing-table, beautiful as it was, was no pretty toy ... 6. What we are interested in, as author and reader, is the fact that publishing in England is now an integral part of big business. 7. As he had a liking for the spot, he seldom let a week pass without paying it a visit. 8. As he spoke there was a sharp ring at the bell.

Ex. 10. Define the kinds of clauses introduced by *that*. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. The box that the fur came out of was on the bed. 2. "I sit alone that I may eat more," said the Baron, peering into the dusk ... 3. I remember the landscape was buried deep in snow, and that we had very little fuel. 4. His smile was so easy, so friendly, that Laura recovered. 5. What you really demand is that I shall protect your son? 6. Silently she crossed the kitchen and opened the door that led to a dairy. 7. ... England in May on a day when the bees found the cherry blossom very white and sweet in the sunshine, an England that was full of those faint perfumes that eschew the high roads. 8. It chanced that his way lay up the Rue Drouot ... 9. She kept her back to the window that he might not see her rising colour. 10. Any evil that people say of him is false. 11. In a word, everything that goes to make life precious, that boy had.

Ex. 11. Point out the adverbial clauses of manner, comparison, degree and result; isolate the conjunctions by which they are introduced.

1. I love her more than I have ever told you, far more. 2. There was something so honest and frank in Joe's speed that Mr Haredale put his hand in his involuntarily, though their meeting was suspicious enough. 3. Here the visitor, all unconscious of Mrs. Sparsit's magnanimous words, repeated his knock so loudly that the light porter hastened down to open the door. 4. The weather was wet and cold for quite a week, as it often can be in the west country in early summer ... 5. Lily seldom made a mistake in the orders, so that she got on well with her three mistresses. 6. He always treated boys as if they were his equals. 7. He heard the thundering and surging out of doors, and it seemed to him as if his late angry mood were going about trying to get at him. 8. All at once her vision narrowed and she saw everything as if it were happening in a small room far away, or as if she were looking at it through the wrong end of a telescope. 9. She looked to him much the same child as he had met six years ago ... 10. The change was so sudden that I was shocked and a little scared. 11. He went into the house by the back door ... as though he'd something to hide.

PARENTHETICAL CLAUSES (PARENTHESES)

A **parenthetical clause** (parenthesis) interrupts another sentence with which it is either not connected syntactically or is only loosely connected with separate parts of the sentence. Parenthetical clauses are often called **comment clauses**, because they do not simply add to the information given in the sentence, but comment on its truth, the manner of saying it, or express the attitude of the speaker toward it. In some cases it is direct address to the listener or reader. Parenthetical clauses may be patterned like different communicative types of sentences or clauses – statements, questions, imperative or exclamatory sentences or clauses.

e.g. *He waited (**which was his normal occupation**) and thought, like other citizens, of the cost of living...* (Some information is added.)

*It was – **why hadn't he noticed it before?** – beginning to be an effort for her to hold her back straight.* (a parenthetical clause patterned like a **why-question**)

*I felt – **such curious shapes egoism takes!** – that they had come because of me.* (a parenthetical clause patterned like an exclamatory sentence)

Clauses patterned like main clauses with verbs of saying and those denoting mental activity (**he thought, the author said**, etc.) may have an inverted order (**thought he, said the author**). Quite a number of parenthetical clauses are stereotyped conversation formulas, used to attract the listener's attention or to show the reaction of the speaker:

I hope/ I expect – я сподіваюся

I see – розумію

I believe – я думаю (сподіваюся)

As far as I know – наскільки мені відомо

I guess – я гадаю

As far as I remember – наскільки я пам'ятаю

I say – послухай

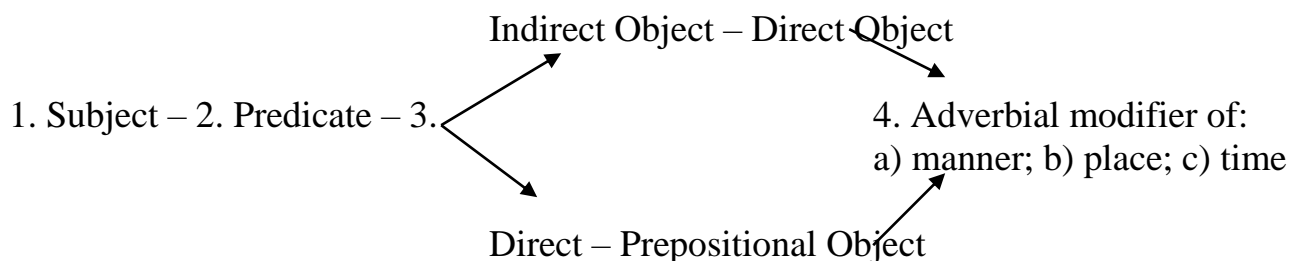
You see – бачиш, розумієш

WORD ORDER

The absence of inflections makes English a word order language not an inflected one: that is, the order of words is essential to the meaning of a sentence. A change in order means a complete change in meaning.

e.g. *The dog bit the man. The man bit the dog.*

The standard word order pattern in a declarative sentence has the following form:



Adverbials may be placed in:

1) front position: e.g. *Now she was entering the kitchen.*

2) contact position: e.g. *Mor **immediately** began to feel guilty.*

3) interposition between the elements of a composite verbal part or between the parts of a compound predicate:

e.g. *She was **completely** absorbed in what she was doing.*

This position is occupied mainly by adverbs of indefinite time and degree: **already, always, sometimes, often, still, just**, etc.

4) final position:

e.g. *Anyhow, nothing had been settled **yet**.*

EXERCISES. PARENTHETICAL CLAUSES (PARENTHESES). WORD ORDER

Ex. 1. Point out parenthetical clauses. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. "Well ma'am, she will soon be quite comfortable, I hope," returned Mr. Chillip. 2. As I say, I was fortunate together. 3. Truly, I thought, here is one who is startlingly beautiful. 4. My breathing, even my heartbeat must I felt already, be audible through the house like the panting of an engine. 5. You never liked her, she says, and you have made him feel that she isn't worthy of him. 6. Would you wish me to shave my head and black my face or something of that sort? I dare say, you would, Peggotty. I dare say, you'd quite enjoy it. 7. You do not catch my meaning, I see. 8. You are, I am aware, a detective, but it is not only as a detective that I wish to consult you. 9. I proposed, I remember, to make loopholes. 10. My wife, you know, kept a flower garden. 11. Yes, that could be the case, I suppose. 12. "But this, I think," she suggested, "was an old-fashioned crime." 13. I leave Mr. Scrymgeour in your charge; you will, I know, be careful of my Mend. 14. One evening after dinner, I will not particularize the day,... my friend and I were sitting in his rooms.

Ex. 2. Comment on the word order and explain the cases of inversion if there are any. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. For a minute or two she stood looking at the house, and wondering what to do next. 2. "Please, then," said Alice, "how am I to get in?" 3. "There might be some sense in your knocking," the Footman went on. 4. But at any rate he might answer question. – How am I to get in? 5. "I shall sit here," the Footman remarked, "till tomorrow." 6. The Fish-Footman began by producing from under his arm a great letter, nearly as large as himself. 7. "I shall sit here," he said, on and off, for days and days." 8. "But what am I to do?" said Alice. 9. Alice did not at all like the tone of this remark. 10. Alice glanced rather anxiously at the cook. 11. "Oh, don't bother me," said the Duchess. "I never could abide figures." And with that she began nursing her child again, singing a sort of lullaby to it. 12. The poor little thing was snorting like a steam-engine.

Ex. 3. Explain the cases of inverted word order.

1. Up I got, was welcomed almost instantly by another cloud of spray. 2. Scarcely had we passed the heads before the land closed around us. 3. Wounded as he was, it was wonderful how fast he could move. 4. There he lay, with that bald head across the knee of the man who had killed him. 5. There lay the schooner, clear at last from buccaneers and ready for our own men to board and get to sea again. 6. So thinking, and in famous spirits, I began to set my face homeward for the block-house and my companions. 7. So," said he, "here's Jim Hawkins." 8. I never have seen men more dreadfully affected the pirates. 9. There never was such an overturn in this world. 10. "Here is a narrow corner," as indeed, I thought it was. 11. Never, I am sure, were people gayer or happier. 12. Of Silver we have heard no more. 13. So you've got him in it. 14. "Won't you tell any more stories?" Judy asked. 15. Then the crutch slipped some more. 16. Why don't you ask him to come down here sometimes? 17. "Have you got any pictures of Vermont houses – pretty ones?" he asked the librarian. 18. Damn fine liqueur. You better name it to your wife. 19. "Do you think he is bright?" John asked his wife.

INVERSION

Inversion is the order in which either the whole predicate (full inversion) or the part of it (partial inversion) is placed before the subject.

e.g. **Were** you at home yesterday, Mary? (full inversion)

Have you **talked** to John, Kate? (partial inversion)

General rules of inversion

1. Inversion may be required by the grammatical structure of a given type of sentence. In most of the interrogative sentences the inversion is partial.

e.g. **Will you understand that?** “*When **did she** go?*” he asked. **Can I see it again?**

The inversion is full in interrogative sentences when the predicate is the verb **to be** or **to have**:

e.g. *When **were you** in England?* **Have you** a book?

No inversion is used when the interrogative word (**who, whose, which, what, how many**) is the subject of the sentence or an attribute to the subject.

e.g. “**Who has** the house now?” asked Mor. **Whose book is that?** **How long will it be?**

2. The inverted order of words require:

a) sentences introduced by the construction **there is/are ...** and sentences with emphatic **it**.

e.g. *There **wasn't a reason** to tell you before this. It **was Helen** who did shopping yesterday.*

b) exclamatory sentences expressing **wish, despair, indignation**, or other strong emotions.

e.g. *Long live our freedom! So be it!*

c) sentences beginning with one of the following adverbs: **here, there** (ось віл), **now, then** (тепер, потім), but only if the subject is a noun. If the subject is a personal pronoun, no inversion takes place.

e.g. *Here's **Freddy**. **But:** There **he is**. Here **they are**.*

d) sentences when an adverbial modifier, expressed by an adverb with negative or restrictive meaning, is placed at the head of the sentence: **never, little, in vain, hardly, nowhere, not only, under any circumstances, on no condition, rarely, seldom, little, less, only, neither ... nor**, etc.

When the emphatic particle **only**, or the negative particle **not** or the conjunction **nor** (**neither...nor**) opens the sentence, the word order has the emphatic function. The same is true about the adverbs **no sooner** with the conjunction **than** and **scarcely** with the conjunction **when**.

e.g. *No sooner **had she laid herself down than** she heard the prolonged trill of the front-door bell.*

3. There are also inversions:

a) when such adverbs of place as **up, in, out, off, away**, etc. are put at the head of the sentence, but only if the subject is a noun. If the subject is a personal pronoun, no inversion takes place.

e.g. *Out came the choice – in went the horses – on sprung the boys – in got the travelers.*

b) sometimes when an adverbial modifier of manner opens the sentence.

e.g. *Strangely fast fled the days in the valley.*

c) when an adverbial modifier of time expressed by **many a + noun** opens the sentence. Although constructions without inversion are also used in this case.

e.g. *Many a time, too, was Punch displayed in the full zenith of his humor.*

But: *Many a time they went up and down those long, long lines...*

d) sometimes when a direct object is placed at the head of the sentence for the sake of emphasis. If the predicate contains neither an auxiliary nor a modal verb, the verb **to do** must be used in these constructions.

e.g. *And she said, you know, on no account must he strain.*

In vain did his wife try and persuade Doctor Brown to taste any breakfast.

But: constructions without inversion are also used in this case.

e.g. *Talent Mr. Micawber has, capital Mr. Micawber has not.*

e) often when a predicate followed by **as** is put at the head of subordinate clause of concession, but only if the subject is a noun. If the subject is a personal pronoun, it precedes the verb.

e.g. *Slender as was Jude Fawley's frame he bore the two brimming house-buckets of water to the cottage without resting. (= although Jude Fawley's frame was slender...)*

But: *Peaceful as it (the house) had looked when we first saw it, it looked even more so now...*

4. The word order may also have the linking function to express continuity of thought in sentences (or clause) following one another. This continuity is often supported by demonstrative pronouns and adverbs.

e.g. *So ended the sorrows of the day. Thus ended Peggotty's narration.*

Women are terribly vain. So are men – more so, if possible.

But: for the purpose of enumeration, a word (or words) marking continuity is sometimes placed at the beginning of the sentence, with the words immediately following.

e.g. *Next comes the most amusing scene.*

EXERCISES. INVERSION

Ex. 1. Analyze the position of object and state whether the word order is inverted or not.

1. All this and much more did he learn while tramping the country. 2. "What are you reading?" I handed him the book to see for himself. 3. Do you know anything more about this dreadful place? 4. She watched him for a long time, nearly five minutes. 5. And then he told us a real history of the fish. 6. Mary opened the door for me... 7. She was rather sorry for him. 8. For him, the women were just too untidy in mind and body. 9. You could almost see your face in the shine of his shoes. 10. She had thrown her shoes and stockings away into the grass. 11. He had tidied up the drawing-room carefully and sat the bottle there with wine-glasses upon the tray. 12. He had laid out a dish of biscuits. 13. Not a cab did I meet in all my drive. 14. Before him lay a splendid garden. 15. A word about Palmer is necessary; and this I find difficult.

Ex. 2. Explain the cases of inversion.

1. High in the rafters a few butterflies flitted to and fro. 2. Almost at once, however, certain other and quite irrational feelings came to plague her. 3. Yet he looked ordinary enough. 4. With her short dark hair and the strong dusky red of her cheeks she looked like Pierrot. 5. Through a tunnel of green she could see, as in a crystal, a man sitting on the ground with his legs drawn up in front of him. 6. What a fool she had to be! 7. Yet she must have chosen to go. 8. "What a droll fellow Bledyard is!" he said. 9. How I agree with you! 10. So was Mor's reply. 11. Did you kill the mice? 12. "Don't do that, Miss Carter," said Mor sharply. 13. "Drive on a bit," he said. 14. It was she, who informed us about this news. 15. There is no way for us to get up into tree tonight. 16. There was five minutes to wait. 17. "Would you mind?" said Mor. 18. There was no one within. 19. So Mor continued to be irritated. 20. It was he, who reached the bank. 21. It was paper made me leave. 22. It is he that has a hook in his mouth. 23. "Here come the gigs, sir," said I. 24. "Now, men," said he, "do you hear me?" 25. "Right you were, Cap'n Smollett," replied Silver. 26. So some seconds passed ... 27. Down I sat to wait for darkness, and made a hearty meal of biscuit.

Ex. 3. Read this part of a film script. Find and correct seven mistakes in the use of question tags.

Ben: It's been a long time, Joe, haven't it?

JOB: That depends on what you mean by a long time, doesn't that?

Ben: What are you doing round here, anyway? It's dangerous.

JOB: I can take care of myself. I'm still alive, amn't I?

Ben: Yes, but you're still wanted by the police, are you?

JOB: Look, I need a place to stay. You've got a place, haven't you? Just for one night.

Ben: I have to think of my wife and kids. You can find somewhere else, can you?

JOB: No. You've got to help me!

Ben: I've already helped you enough. I went to prison for you, haven't?

JOB: Yeah, ok, Ben. You remember what happened last June, do you?

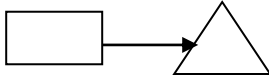
Ben: Ok, ok. I can make a phone call.

COMPLEX SENTENCE ANALYSIS

Graphically it is convenient to represent a principal clause by a rectangle  and subordinate clause by a triangle .

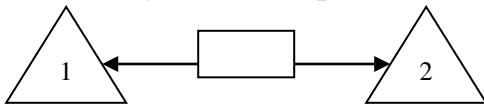
1. The question is whether she will agree to help us.

It is a complex sentence with the predicative clause introduced with the conjunction **whether**. The principal clause is **The question is**. The subordinate clause is **whether she will agree to help us**. The predicative clause follows the link verb **to be**, which is used in the present indefinite tense form.



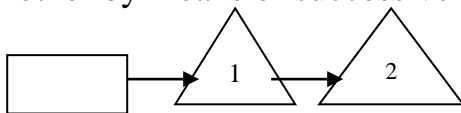
2. What has happened to me is exactly what I willed to happen.

It is a complex sentence with one principal clause and two subordinate clauses. The principal clause is **is exactly**. It is expressed with the link verb **to be** in the present indefinite tense form. The first subordinate clause is **what has happened to me**. It is a subject clause introduced with conjunctive pronoun **what**. The second subordinate clause is **what I willed to happen**. It is a predicative clause, which is introduced with conjunctive pronoun **what**. The subordinate clauses are homogeneous and are connected with each other by means of parallel subordination.



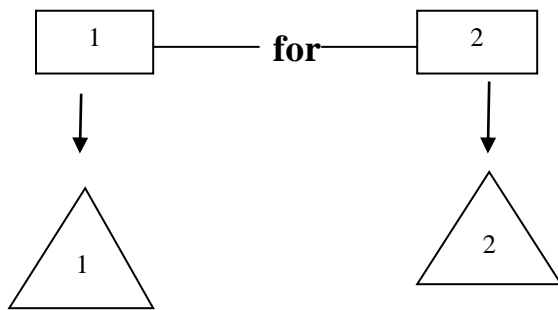
3. This visit had been planned to produce in Annete and her mother a due sense of possessions, so that they should be ready to receive with respect any overture he might later be disposed to make.

It is a complex sentence with one principal clause and two subordinate clauses. The principal clause is **This visit had been planned to produce in Annete and her mother a due sense of possessions**. The first subordinate clause is **so that they should be ready to receive with respect any overture**. It is an adverbial clause of purpose introduced with conjunction **so that**. This clause is of the first degree of subordination. The second subordinate clause is **he might later be disposed to make**. It is an attribute relative restrictive clause which is connected with the antecedent asyndetically. This clause is of the second degree of subordination. The subordinate clauses are connected with each other by means of successive subordination.



4. And now Mason regretted that he had not telephoned before leaving Brigeburg, for he could see that the news of his daughter's death would shock such a man as this most terribly.

It is a compound-complex sentence consisting of two principal and two subordinate sentences. The first principal clause is **And now Mason regretted**, the second principle clause is **he could see**. The two principal clauses are connected with each other by means of causative-consecutive conjunction **for**. The first subordinate clause is **that he had not telephoned before leaving Brigeburg**. It is an object clause introduced with the conjunction **that**. This clause is depended on the first principal clause. The second subordinate clause is **that the news of his daughter's death would shock such a man as this most terribly**. It is also an object clause introduced with the conjunction **that**. This clause is depended on the second principle clause.



REVISION

THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

Ex. 1. Analyse the following sentences. Define their structure, types of clauses, means of connections.

1. When Katherine had seen that the baby was beautiful, she was filled with wonder and with awe and misgiving. 2. They both knew that their lovely daughter was an incredibly stupid, dull and backward little girl. 3. Katherine was glad of every weakness in her daughter since each one made her feel closer and more worthy. 4. Every night, after Katherine and Alice had gone to bed; he took down the thick book and opened it under the hanging lamp. 5. Then his pale eyes narrowed and his blunt face took on a crafty look while he planned his investments and calculated his interest. I thought I could turn a little more interest than that if I looked around. 6. If I can't see a sure profit in a thing, I won't go into it. 7. I'm going up to Oakland for Aunt Nellie's funeral, and I'll just stop off a few hours in San Jose and look into this company. 8. Katherine knew her daughter could make such an easy decision because she was too stupid to be afraid. 9. In some way his relatives had heard of his wealth, for they treated him with deference and dignity. 10. He tore off the price tag and tossed a box of cartridges into his pocket. 11. He tried to picture what he would do when he came to the Munroe house.

Ex. 2. Analyse the following sentences. Define their structure, types of clauses, means of connections.

1. He can work; he can do marvelous things with his hands, but he cannot learn to do the simple little things of the school. 2. If he had been dangerous he could easily have killed me when I whipped him. 3. When she got to school the next morning, she found Tularecito before her. 4. Miss Morgan, the new teacher, was very young and very pretty; too young and dangerously pretty, the aged men of the valley thought. 5. It was seriously doubted that a teacher so young and so pretty could keep any kind of order in the school. 6. Miss Morgan enjoyed teaching and made school an exciting place where unusual things happened. 7. She herself liked fairy tales, liked to think of whole populations who believed in fairies and consequently saw them. 8. Gradually, as Miss Morgan read about elves and brownies, fairies, pixies, and changelings, his interest centered and his busy pencil lay idly in his hand. 9. After school Miss Morgan walked half a mile to the farm where she boarded.

Ex. 3. Translate into English using the compound and complex sentences with syndetic and asyndetic coordination.

1. Британія – острівна країна, і тому моря, що оточують її, впливають на клімат та погодні умови. Зима тепліша, а літо більш дощове завдяки теплим течіям в океані. Погоду в Британії не можна передбачити, і часто протягом одного дня всі чотири пори року можуть змінити одна одну. Зранку може яскраво світити сонце, удень може піти дощ, а закінчитися день може снігопадом. Хоча Британія і знаменита своїми частими дощами, це не найбільш дощова країна у світі. У деяких частинах країни, наприклад, у графстві Кент, опадів досить мало, або ж ці райони навіть страждають від посухи, але це трапляється вкрай рідко.

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