GRADING SCALE FOR COURSE PARTICIPATION:

**Attendance**: 2 points per lecture (max. 32 points), if the required home assignment for the lecture is not completed 1 point is deducted (max. 16 points)

**In-course assignments**:

1) choose any branch of science (sociology, semiotics, theory of semantics, psychology etc.) and make a short report (10-15 sentences) where you explain its connection with linguistics, present the report at Lecture 2 (max. 6 points);

(2) dictation-translation, Lecture 5 (max. 10 points);

(3) test-paper, Lecture 13 (max. 12 points);

(4) Translate and memorize the list of words for the course. Be ready to illustrate each notion with examples (max. 10 points).

**Module test paper**: max 30 points

Sum total: 100 points.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>91-100</td>
<td>“12”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84-100</td>
<td>“11”</td>
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<td>77-90</td>
<td>“10”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-77</td>
<td>“9”</td>
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<tr>
<td>63-70</td>
<td>“8”</td>
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<tr>
<td>57-63</td>
<td>“7”</td>
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<tr>
<td>50-57</td>
<td>“6”</td>
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<td>43-50</td>
<td>“5”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-43</td>
<td>“4”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-37</td>
<td>“3”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A LIST OF WORDS FOR THE COURSE:

1. **Parts of a sentence:**
   - Subject
   - Predicate
   - Object
   - Complement (explain the difference between object and complement)
   - Adverbial modifier
   - Attribute
2. **Constituent**
3. **presuppose**
4. **unity**
5. **stratification**
6. **inflexion**
7. **Word-substitute**
8. **Purpose**
9. **contextually bound sentences**
10. **Subordination**
11. **Coordination**
12. **Conjugation**
13. **Render**
14. **Indicative mood**
15. **Ultimate**
16. **Essential**
17. **make suggestion**
18. **encourage**
19. **polite request**
20. **complaint**
21. **apology**
22. **attitude**
23. **intercourse**
24. **express supposition**
25. **speculation**
26. **inducement**
27. **degree of intensity**
28. **on the contrary**
29. **to urge**
30. **stipulate**
31. **demand**
32. **to imply**
33. **corresponding**
34. **consequence**
35. **share common features**
36. **Compression**
37. **Complication**
38. **Inclusion**
39. **refer to**
40. **consecutive**
41. **emerge**
42. **interdependence**
43. **communicative predicate**
44. **derivative**
45. **peculiarity**
46. **stylistic device**
47. **obtain**
48. **theme/rheme**
49. **Tense (Sequence of tenses/ shifting of tenses)**
50. **Mood (imperative/conditional/subjunctive)**
51. **Verbids (non-finite forms of the verb)**
52. **Particle**
53. **Inclusives**
54. **Root/stem/derivative/homonym**
55. **Distinguish**
56. **Attention-getting words**
57. **Sentence introducers**
58. **Lexicon/lexis/vocabulary/dictionary**
59. **Omit**
60. **Substitute**
61. **Generalization**
62. **Constitute**
63. **Spatial and temporal relation**
64. **Indication**
65. **Person distinction**
66. **Denotation**
67. **Direct and oblique**
68. **Draw a conclusion**
69. **Durative event**
70. **Within the framework**
71. **Contracted form**
72. **Variable**
73. **Formal sign**
74. **Flexible division**
75. **Etymology**
76. **Connotation**
77. **Colloquial speech**
78. **Alteration**
79. **Supplement**
80. **Cumulation**
81. **Agreement**
82. **Coherence**
83. **Diction**
84. **Wordy**
85. **Typo**
86. **Transpose**
87. **Punctuation marks:**
   - Comma
   - Semicolon/Colon
   - Inverted commas
   - Apostrophe
   - Hyphen
Lecture 1 – 2

Questions for group discussion:

- Grammar and its role in translating texts;
- Your strong and weak points in English grammar;
- The ways of deepening your understanding of English grammar (how do you learn grammar? What can you do to improve it?)

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMATIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

1. Basic approaches to language and its relation to other branches of linguistics
2. Language as a system and structure
3. Language and speech
4. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in language

1. Questions for discussion: What is language? What is the nature of language? Who are creators and users of language? Can it change and develop? How?

Language is a means of:

1) forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality;
2) expressing people’s feelings and emotions and
3) exchanging them in the process of human communication.

A living language leads a dynamic existence, it is constantly developing its internal and external resources, adapting to ever changing circumstances of social, cultural, political and scientific life, generating new forms and content and abandoning old ones, improving its expressive means and devices through their structural complication or simplification. The most authoritative the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) accepts about 4000 new words (or new meanings) every year. Some words take a surprisingly long time to enter the OED, e.g. “acid rain” was first used in 1859, but its usage was rare for over 100 years and it didn’t appear in the dictionary until the 1980s.

Every social or political change, revolution, innovation is preceded by introduction of new words and terms. E.g.

Cyberspace, Skype, iPad, Podcast, blogosphere, silver suffer, citizen journalism, selfie, etc.

The new words are borrowed from the other languages. Match the following words with the source languages:
Karate, robot, espresso, sputnik, disco, kindergarten, barbecue, bungalow, boss, anorak (Hindustani, Japanese, Eskimo, Czech, Italian, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Spanish)

An existing word is transferred into a new semantic class. The process of migration from one part of speech to another is called *transposition*, e.g.

to love – love (hate, order);
deaf (adj.) – the deaf;
my native language is Ukrainian – I am a native Ukrainian;
a doctor – to doctor, a nurse – to nurse, a dog – to dog; a friend – to (un)friend, etc.

Transposition results in the development of new paradigms. Actually the word begins a new life according to the laws of the new part of speech, e.g.

I get up *early*. I am an *early* riser.
*Daily* news – I like that *daily*.
They *upped* the prices. Life is full of *ups and downs*. He *upped* and left.
*But* me no *buts*.
I don’t believe in *an after life* (adj.). You can see him *after* (adv). *After* (conj) she had left I brooded on my situation.

**Practice:** Complete the chart with the words and the phonetics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advice /advais/</td>
<td>To use /juːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abuse /ebju:s/</td>
<td>To believe /bili:v/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relief /rili:f/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grief /griːf/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excuse /iksju:s/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breath /bre:/</td>
<td>To halve /haːv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe /seif/</td>
<td>To house /hauz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bath /baː/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language is a complicated phenomenon which can be approached in two ways: internally and externally.

The **internal approach** presupposes the analysis of language as a **system and structure** with corresponding analytical operations of language segmentation. According to the internal way of analysis, a language is regarded as a kind of unity incorporating three constituent parts:

- the phonological system,
- the lexical system, and
- the grammatical system.
The external approach deals with functional characterization of a language.

Question for discussion: What are the main functions of a language? Who studies them?

According to the external approach it represents the following functions:
  - the communicative,
  - the thought-forming (cognitive), and
  - the emotional function.

It is obvious that language is a perfect means of communication. As a product of human society it emerged from the necessity to communicate.

It is not less obvious that language and thought are inseparable. They make up a kind of unity.

Emotional sphere of people also finds its reflection in language, because speech renders not only logical information but expresses emotions of speakers, their assessments of the communicative situation and their attitude to it.

Being a functional system language is investigated not only by linguists, but also by other branches of science. Language is also regarded by
  - systematology (studies arrangements of systems and regularities governing them);
  - sociology (studies language as a social system);
  - semiotics (studies language as an information system);
  - psychology;
  - sociology.

As a result of such interdisciplinary cooperation, there appeared new branches of modern linguistics: sociolinguistics, logical linguistics, psycholinguistics.

2. Modern linguistics lays a special stress on the systematic character of language and all its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs which are closely interconnected and interrelated. Units of immediate interdependence form different microsystems in the system of global macrosystem of the whole language. Each system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function.

Here are three microsystems that a language consists of.

The basic one is phonological system that determines the material appearance of its significative units.

The next is lexical system that includes the whole set of naming units of language (words and staple word groups).

The grammatical system is the whole system of regularities that determines the combinations of naming units in the utterance.

Elements of a language system are characterized by systematic value. It means that units of a language system stand in systematic relations and don’t exist apart from a particular system. A unit of a higher level includes one or more units of a lower level + extra characteristics.

Language units are divided into segmental and suprasegmental.
Segmental units consist of phonemes which form phonetic strings in various statuses: morphemes, words, phrases, sentences, texts.

Suprasegmental units don’t exist by themselves. They express different modifications of segmental units and comprise intonation, pauses, accents, patterns of word order.

The segmental units of the language form a hierarchy of levels which represent a language as a structure and as an organization. Language structure is an integration of interdependent elements with the definite regularities of their organization.

The hierarchy is a kind of structural arrangement of language elements when units of a lower level serve as building material for units of higher levels OR units of a higher level are analyzable into units of the immediate lower level. Thus, there are 6 levels of language, each identified by its own functional type of segmental units. The level stratification shows that language is a highly structured complex of interdependent and interrelated elements.

**Practice:** The hierarchy of language may be represented by the following scheme. Complete it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Nature of Unit</th>
<th>Characteristic of Unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phonemic</td>
<td>Phoneme</td>
<td>Distinctive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphemic</td>
<td></td>
<td>Meaningful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leximic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Consists of morphemes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrasimic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposimic</td>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td></td>
<td>- it is not the highest level;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- it denotes the relation of a speaker to the thought expressed;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- a situationally bound utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supraproposimic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- the textual unity is a combination of …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>…;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- the syntactic process by which sentences are connected into text is called cumulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **Question for discussion:** What is the difference between language and speech? Is this difference important for linguists?

The difference between language and speech is of crucial importance for the linguistic science. Language is a system of means of expressions (units) while speech should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse (communication).

The system of language includes units and the regularity of their usage. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves (the text).
4. Linguistic units enter 2 types of relations: syntagmatic (SR) and paradigmatic (PR).

Syntagmatic relations (SR) occur between immediate units in a segmentic sequence. They are linear in nature and based on: independence, dependence, interdependence.

**Independence:**
2 OR more elements are equal in rank:
on the morphemic level
flip-flop; tip-top; willy-willy; willy-nil; shill-shelly; dillydally, так-сяк, туди-сюди, тяп-ляп.
on the phrasimic level
boys and girls; teachers and students; ladies and gentlemen, пані та панове.
on the proposimic level, e.g. Somebody knocked on the door and went out.

**Dependence:**
2 OR more elements are not equal in rank:
on the morphemic level
beautiful, teacher, хлопчик, дівчище
on the phrasimic level
to admire beauty; скалити зуби, розтринькати гроші
on the proposimic level
I can’t help admiring beauty. Не міг встовити від захоплення.

Syntagmatic relations based on interdependence only exist in syntax between subject and predicate OR in predication groups. They can be primary, i.e. between any subject and predicate AND secondary, i.e. complex object/subject, gerund, participle, e.g. You made me cry; the contract being signed; to have smth. done.

Paradigmatic relations (PR) exist between elements of the system and are generally found between elements of a class. They are based on similarity of different properties of all elements of a class. Similarity may be of different nature. We distinguish 4 types of PR:
The first can be found among the elements of semantic groupings, i.e. synonyms, e.g. deep – profound; antonyms/ opposites, e.g. deep – shallow; topical connections, e.g. bad chair.
The second can be found between elements of common derivational properties, e.g. go – went – gone – going; boy – boyish – boyhood; worker – teacher – smoker.
The third is based on functional similarity, e.g. his/my; a/the; this/all + noun. We can include all parts of speech except prepositions.
The forth is observed in “form – classes” elements and characterized by semantic and functional similarity, e.g. The boy is here. He is here. All are here.

**Practice:**
Put a base adjective from the list next to a strong adjective

Base adj.: good, bad, cold, frightened, funny, tasty, angry, tired, pretty, interesting, hot, surprised, clever, big, dirty.
Strong adj.: enormous, huge; boiling; exhausted; freezing; delicious; fascinating; horrid, horrible, awful, terrible, disgusting; perfect, marvelous, superb, wonderful, fantastic, brilliant; filthy; astonished, amazed; furious; hilarious; terrified; beautiful; brilliant.

There are many pairs of words that go together, usually in a fixed order, joined by AND.        Kings and queens; knife and fork; black and white.

Match column A and B:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hands</td>
<td>cons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>fro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flesh</td>
<td>tired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facts</td>
<td>knees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To</td>
<td>seek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hide</td>
<td>far</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odds</td>
<td>wide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick</td>
<td>figures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pros</td>
<td>dried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard</td>
<td>ends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By</td>
<td>large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few</td>
<td>blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Put in the opposite of the following adjectives. Choose from the list at the bottom.

a. rich food  _____________ food
   rich colour  _____________ colour
b. vain attempt  _____________ attempt
   vain person  _____________ person
c. calm sea  _____________ sea
   calm person  _____________ person
d. stiff breeze  _____________ breeze
   stiff punishment  _____________ punishment
e. bright light  _____________ light
   bright student  _____________ student
f. reasonable person  _____________ person
   reasonable price  _____________ price
g. plain wallpaper  _____________ wallpaper
   plain architectural style  _____________ style
h. odd number  _____________ number
   odd working hours  _____________ hours
i. moderate amount  _____________ amount
   moderate politics  _____________ politics
j. genuine diamond  _____________ diamond
   genuine emotion  _____________ emotion
k. flat countryside  _____________ countryside
Lecture 3

ANALYTIC AND SYNTHETIC LANGUAGES: GENERAL OUTLINE

1. Morphological and functional differences
2. Stylistics and phraseology

1. English and Ukrainian languages are examples of two types of languages: analytic and synthetic. It means they are not only different but also controversial. Nevertheless, this difference is formal as by means of the languages we express the same contents. Thus, learning the language presupposes acquiring its formal, specific, qualitative side. Let’s analyze the difference between the languages in details.

   The main peculiarity of analytic languages is that they are “grammar – concentrated” while synthetic languages concentrate on inner relations in a sentence and a word.

   Logic of a language is best of all revealed in its syntax. In analytic languages sentences have definite structure and certain word order. Any changes in the word order in affirmative sentences are exceptions and are viewed as an expressive stylistic device. Thus, a direct word order in a sentence coincides with the order of logic components, i.e. subject – predicate – object/complement.

   **Note:**
   - **Complement** is a word or phrase after a verb that tells you about the subject (He was cold).
   - **Object** is a noun, pronoun or phrase that is affected by the action of a verb directly (I have read the report) or indirectly (Give me the pen, please).

   According to the logic, the subject that is discussed is defined first. That is why a sentence can contain only one subject. Then the fact and way of its existence, its action (predicate) are revealed. If action is aimed at a definite object there is an indication in the sentence. The word that expresses an object can exist or not in the sentence and in this way it approves its logic position as it follows subject and predicate. The three major components of the sentence are followed by adverbial modifier that expresses time, place, and manner. The adverbial modifier can refer to any part of the sentence. That is why its position in the sentence is not fixed.

   Thus, the logic of English language is clearly revealed in its grammar.

   In English sentence not only main components have definite positions but there is also a particular order for certain types of modifiers/attributes and adverbial modifiers. Let us analyze position of secondary parts of speech in the sentence. The attention
should be paid to the fact that the word that specifies the object of the action is subjective and can be defined by the same parts of speech as a subject. E.g.

house boat – boat house; toy car – car toy, race horse – horse race, card phone – phone card.

Adverbial modifier has two poles. On the one hand it is subjective (adverbial modifier of place). On the other hand it reveals manner of action (adverbial modifier of manner). Adverbial modifier of time is a kind of intermediary.

Quality is expressed by modifier/attribute and is usually an adjective. Thus, moving from an object to a modifier we are step by step moving from subject to quality. Sometimes adverbial modifier and modifier/attribute can coincide in their form. E.g.,

fast – fast; soon – soon; early – early; often – often; long – long; hard – hard (hardly); late – late (lately).

The mentioned above explains not only the position of secondary parts in a sentence but also the position of their separate types. For example, if in the sentence there are several objects, one is direct and the other is indirect with a preposition, a subject is followed by direct object and then is followed by indirect object with a preposition. *He handed a cup of coffee to me.* *The nurse brought a bandage for him.* In these examples the logic word order in English sentence is clear. Exceptions are sentences where subject is followed by indirect object without particle, e.g. *I gave the student a book.* But even this exception has its logical explanation. Indirect object without particle defines action’s addressee, “co-actor”. That’s why in English sentence before defining subject of the action (direct object) we first define the character who did the action – that is subject and action’s addressee (indirect object without preposition) and only after that we define the object which is manipulated by the characters. Logic explanation is clear: the subject (предмет) of the action specifies the action of two characters, and therefore it is mentioned at the end of the utterance.

There is a group of the verbs that express a kind of relations and demand a complement. They are *give, send, show etc.*

Indirect objects with prepositions are objects that are close in meaning to adverbial modifiers. E.g.,

*He received a letter* from his father; *she lives* with her parents; *she pulled me* by the arm; *he died* of fever.

We can not define these parts of sentences as adverbial modifiers but they possess common features. Now it is understood why indirect object with preposition follows direct object and borders with adverbial modifier. Its meaning is close to adverbial modifiers. The character towards who the action is directed can be expressed by both indirect object with and without preposition. The predicate in this case will be followed by direct object.

E.g. *I gave the book to the student.*
In the example we can notice a formal logic order in the usage of grammar forms; features of adverbial modifier in the direction of action.

Adverbial modifiers also have a definite order in a sentence. It is:

adverbial modifier of manner – of place – of time.

An object is followed by adverbial modifier of place then it is followed by adverbial modifier of time.

For example: She sang beautifully in the Town Hall last night
He returned from Cuba a fortnight ago.

Adverbial modifiers of manner define actions. That’s why they can be used in any part of the sentence, i.e. at the beginning, in the middle, at the end of it.

Thus, we can see that logic order in English sentence is absolute and even exceptions have explanations.

In Ukrainian language communicative message is important. In Ukrainian sentence a speaker moves from unknown facts to known.

Compare: A girl was standing at the gate. – Біля воріт стояла дівчина.

In Ukrainian language the sentence begins with the description of circumstances, i.e. with adverbial modifier. The English will first define the subject and only after that describe the circumstances of its existence.

E.g. There is a type-writer on my desk.

The examples prove that in Ukrainian sentence the accent is on the last word. The formality of English language is clearly noticed in questions. E.g.,

She is a teacher – Is she a teacher?
He works hard – Does he work hard?

In Ukrainian language a speaker changes intonation only. In English sentence intonation is subordinated and formalized by its syntax. But intonation in general and special questions is also different, e.g.

Is Mary back? (rise) Where is Tom? (fall).

In special questions intonation is equal to affirmative sentences.

The general conclusion is that in analytic languages, like English, there is a more evident coincidence of logic components with syntactic forms. In synthetic languages, like Ukrainian, the meaning of a word, semantic accent (смислове ударення) prevail over syntactic forms that leads to the absence of formal word order.

From morphological point of view in synthetic languages relations are defined within the word with the inflexions. That is why the word can be used in any part of the sentence. In analytic languages a word has its definite position in the sentence and looses certain morphological features of a word. As a result there is a loss of declension (склонение) in analytic languages. However, prepositions can be used to support logic and semantic relations within the sentence.

Note: inflexions are language changes in the form of a word to suit the grammar.

decension is the process by which the form of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns changes in some languages depending on their relationship to other words in a sentence;
to conjugate means to state the different forms a verb can have, for example according to the number of people it refers to and whether it refers to the present, past, or future.

E.g., *This is a great work of art.* – Це великий витвір мистецтва (родовий відмінок); *He wrote a letter to his friend* – Він написав листа товаришу (давальний відмінок); *You don’t cut fish with a knife* – Рибу ножем не ріжуть (орудний відмінок).

In English language parts of speech are not formally expressed. Sometimes it is the word order that helps to define a part of speech, e.g. *Fathers father children.*

**Practice:** Define parts of speech of the following sentences

1. Never trouble a trouble until trouble troubles you.
2. Ughs digged woes.
3. Штекая кудря жити бокра и бокристого бокренка/
   Глокая кудра штеко бодлонула бокра и кудря жити бокренка.

2. In synthetic and analytic languages there is a difference in stylistics as well. First, it is necessary to note that all languages tend to economize its linguistic devices. In synthetic languages there is a tendency to shorten sentences. In analytic languages it is impossible, because of a particular word order. But there are special patterns that can economize linguistic devices. For example, in English sentence we can’t have more than one negation, i.e.

   *I can find it nowhere* – Я ніде не можу знайти його.

   If there are two homogeneous predicates an object is used after the second predicate, while in Ukrainian language we will repeat the object two times and substitute it with a pronoun when it is used for the second time, e.g.

   *You applied for and received an allowance* – Ти звернувся за допомогою і отримав її.

On the basis of structural form of the speech short answers are formed, e.g.

   *Are you a student?* – *Yes, I am.*

Sometimes auxiliary verbs, particle “to” without the following verb, one word or term for a phrase can substitute whole sentences.

   *E.g. I have never seen a falling star. You will one day.*

   *You needn’t come in with me if you don’t want to.*

   *It is a story and a good one.*

   *The plan was an easy one to carry out.*

Synthetic languages tend to simplify separate sentences, but at the same time have complex system of composite sentences. Analytic languages use special constructions, such as participles, gerund, infinitive – that are speech patterns.

   *E.g. I like the sound of this new name* – Мені подобається як звучить це нове ім’я.

   *When do you think he will come?* – Як ви вважаєте, коли він прийде?

   *What does Bessy say I have done?* – Що, Бесі каже, я таке зробила?
The verbs that express emotions, gestures, mimics are very often translated with few words (gesture, face, shrug, storke etc.) E.g. You may do whatever you like, he shrugged. – сказав він стискаючи плечі.

Emotions are expressed in English language with specific patterns, e.g. She laughed herself out of the trouble – Вона вийшла з ситуації, всміхаючись. He laughed off her taunts – У відповідь на її колючість він шуткував. They seemed to sing themselves back to another and happier world. – Здавалось, цей спів повертає їх в інший, більш щасливий світ.

Lecture 4

THE SENTENCE: GENERAL OUTLINE

1. The sentence as the smallest communication unit
2. Classification of sentences
3. Main parts of the sentence
4. Secondary parts of the sentence

1. Question for discussion: What is a sentence?

The main aspects in analysis of the sentence are structural, semantic, and pragmatic.

Note: Pragmatics is concerned with the use of language in social contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language.

The sentence is the basic unit of syntax. There exist many definitions of the sentence.

By Pocheptsov, the sentence is the minimal syntactical construction used in communication, characterized by predicativity and realizing a certain structural scheme.

Note: предикативність - це віднесеність змісту речення до об'єктивної реальності. Вона відбувається у зв'язку підмета і присудка, які становлять граматичну основу речення. Предикативність властива будь-якому реченню і виявляється в ознаках часу, особи, а також в оцінці сказаного розповідачем (бажаність чи небажаність, реальність чи нереальність, впевненість в істинності чи ні).

Blokh defines the sentence as the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Any coherent connection of words having an informative destination is effected within the framework of the sentence.

Blokh marks that unlike the word the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit. It is created by the speaker in the course of communication. It is a result of speech-making process out of different units of language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually
bound sentences, i.e. complete units of speech. Being a unit of speech, the sentence is delimited by intonation.

2. Classifying sentences linguists are usually guided by two main principles: types of communication and structure.

I. According to the first principle, which is also called the purpose of the utterance, sentences are divided into declarative, interrogative, imperative (inductive).

Alongside of the three cardinal (main) communicative sentence types, another type of sentence is recognized in the theory of syntax: the so-called exclamatory sentence. In fact, the property of exclamation is considered as an accompanying feature which is effected within the system of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. So, each of the cardinal communicative sentence types can be represented in the two variants: non-exclamatory and exclamatory.

II. According to their structure sentences are divided into simple and composite sentences.

Simple sentences, in their turn, are divided into proper sentences and quasi-sentences.

Proper sentences can be interrogative, e.g. Was it a rainy day?; imperative e.g. Never tell lies; optative, e.g. You’d better look for it; and declarative

As for declarative sentences within this group we can distinguish between one-member/ two-member sentences, complete/ non-complete ones, extended/ unextended, affirmative/ negative.

The distinction between one/ two-member sentences is based on a difference in the so called main parts of a sentence. There is no separate main part of the sentence, the grammatical subject, and no other separate main part, the grammatical predicate. Instead there is only one main part, e.g. Fire; Come on; Dusk of a summer night. These are one-member sentences.

One-member sentences should be kept apart from two-member sentences with either the subject or the predicate omitted. E.g. Have you asked her yet? – Not often enough. (It is clear here that the answer means: I have, but not often yet.) Such sentences are called elliptical, i.e. sentences where one or more of its parts left out but can be unambiguously inferred from the context. They may occur both within and outside a dialogue.

The two-member sentence consists of a predication (both the subject and predicate), e.g. The teacher came.

There exists an interesting problem connected with affirmation and negation in English. It is the following: do negative sentences constitute a special grammatical type and if so, what are their grammatical features? The difficulty of the problem lies in the peculiarity of negative expressions in English. There is no grammatical difference between the sentences Nobody saw him and Everybody saw him. The difference lies in the meaning and it is lexical not grammatical. In this respect it is very awkward to deal with sentences like I found nothing or Nobody saw him, because if we were to accept affirmative and negative sentences as grammatical types, we should have to class these two given above sentences as affirmative, though the category of negation does of
course exist in the morphological system of the English verb. So, some linguists, Ilyish for example, state that the division of simple sentences into affirmative and negative ought not to be included into their grammatical classification.

The composite sentence reflects two or more elementary situational events expressed by the predicative units. Each predicative unit in the composite sentence makes up a clause.

Composite sentences divide into compound and complex ones. A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses equal in rank.

A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

Complex sentences with two or more subordinate clauses can be compound - complex and complex – compound. The compound – complex is a complex sentence where at least one coordinate clause is complex in structure, e.g. I know that he is at home, but still I worry. If a complex sentence has two or more subordinate clauses connected by coordination, it is a complex-compound sentence, e.g. He told me that I could see for myself he wasn’t very young and his health was not very good.

Practice: Draw a scheme which reveals the classification of sentences.

3. According to the role of parts of the sentence in forming the sentence and character of their relations we distinguish main and secondary parts of the sentence.

Traditionally the main parts are the subject and the predicate. They may be called the backbone of a sentence. Without them it doesn’t exist. They are independent from other parts of sentence and they are interrelated. They realize the category of predicativity and form the sentence. Their status is unique. Neither of them is principle or subordinate. They are interdependable. Agent and doer of the process are indivisible. They are both principle. Thus, the subject is a person-modifier of the predicate. The predicate is a process-modifier of the subject.

The predicate agrees in number and person with the subject. But Ilyish, for example, considers that the category of number in the predicate is independent, e.g. My family are early risers. The question of concord or no concord is one that belongs to the level of phrases, not to that of the sentence and its parts.

4. All the other parts of the sentence are dependant on the main parts of it. As Ilyish notes, the theory of secondary parts is one of the least developed sections of linguistics.

The usual classification: object, attribute/ modifier, adverbial modifier. Objects and adverbials are verb dependable and verb oriented. Attributes are syntactically connected only with nouns. They are of minor importance in comparison with objects.

The object is a secondary part of the sentence referring to a part of the sentence expressed by a verb, a noun, a substantival pronoun (a pronoun that does not require a noun, usually possessive pronoun), an adjective, a numeral or an adverb, and denoting a thing to which the action passes on, which is the result of an action, in reference to which an action is committed or a property is manifested, or denoting an action as object of another action. Thus, the object is a substance-modifier of a processual part (actional or statal)
Attribute modifies a part of the sentence expressed by a noun, a substantival pronoun, a cardinal numeral, and a substantivized word and characterizing the thing named by these words as to its quality or property. Thus, the attribute is a quality-modifier of a substantive part.

Adverbial modifier modifies a part of the sentence expressed by a verb, a verbal noun, an adjective or an adverb. It characterizes an action or a property as to its quality or intensity or indicates the way an action is done, the time, the place, cause purpose or condition with which the action or manifestation of the quality is connected. It differs from other parts of the sentence in its semantics.

The meaning and the syntactical form of the parts of the sentence coincide. Forms are varied.

**Practice:** Make sentences
1. me/ nothing/ to/ useful/ that/ at/ was/ I/ school/ learnt.
2. corner/ the/ round/ the/ park/ car.
3. June/ Jane/ hospital/ at/ the/ the/ went/ to/ end/of.
4. gift/ try/ your/ a/ to/ choosing/ while/ reflect/ friend’s/ personality.
5. he/ me/ to/ I/ what/ tell/ wouldn’t/ wanted/ know

**Lecture 5**

**WORD ORDER IN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN SENTENCES**

1. Position of main parts of a sentence
2. Position of secondary parts

1. Word order in Ukrainian sentence is less fixed than in English. It is explained by analytic nature of English language. The most common word order in English non-emphatic sentence is: subject – predicate – attribute – adverbial modifier. The structure: adverbial modifier – subject – predicate – attribute is also possible. Attributive components of a sentence are grouped near subject and attribute. They can be “right-handed” and “left-handed”. Ukrainian sentence of the same type can have different structure. For example,

Бурхливими оплесками зустріли глядачі виступ колективу художньої самодіяльності університету – The audience had enthusiastic applause for a performance given by the University amateur art company;

Вчора Львів відвідав президент України – The president of Ukraine yesterday visited Lviv region.

Every sentence can be viewed upon from two points of view: structural and communicative. Structurally sentences are classified into simple and composite; composite in their turn fall into complex and compound. From the communicative point of view we single out the theme of the sentence, i.e. the old information/ the background which is known to a speaker or reader and the rheme, i.e. new information.

1) In different languages the rheme of the sentence is expressed by different linguistic means and can be placed in different parts of the sentence.

In Ukrainian the rheme is usually at the end of a sentence, e.g. На світовій арені стикаються різнomanітніші сили та інтереси.
In English sentence the rheme is usually at the beginning of it, e.g. *The most diverse forces and interests clash on the international scene.*

2) In Ukrainian sentence it is possible to use subject and subject group at the end of a sentence.

a) E.g. *Зараз в Україні активно поширюються ринкові відносини, які змінюють ситуацію на ринку праці, впливають на ціни, на рівень життя різних верств населення. ... ринкові відносини, які змінюють ситуацію на ринку праці, впливають на ціни, на рівень життя різних верств населення* is a subject group in the sentence. Predicate includes only one word. Adverbial modifier is presented by three diverse components: зараз, в Україні, активно.

In English sentence subject group should be used at the beginning and laconic predicate should be balanced by adverbial modifiers that should be used at the end of the sentence. E.g. *Market relations, which radically change the situation on the labour market, influence prices and the living standards of various strata of population are being introduced on a wide scale in Ukraine.*

This translation reveals the structure: subject – predicate – adverbial modifier. Too complicated subject is balanced by a sentence extension with the help of using two adverbial modifiers at the end of it. The adverbial modifier активно is deliberately translated as *on a wide scale* that makes the sentence longer.

b) It is also possible to say: *Market relations are being extensively introduced in Ukraine, which is radically changing the situation on the labour market and influencing the prices and the living standards of various strata of population.* In this sentence its syntactic structure is changed, i.e. here is a subordinate clause that comprises subject group and refers to the whole sentence. In this case it is better to use adverbial modifier *extensively* rather than *on a wide scale.*

c) Subordinate clause can be also changed by participle construction which is expressed with gerund, e.g. *In Ukraine market relations are being extensively introduced, thus changing the situation on the labour market radically, and influencing prices and the living standards of various strata of population.*

2”) Let’s analyze another example: *В листопаді у Києві відбудеться фестиваль французьких фільмів, який триватиме 7 днів.*

Subject group is again situated at the end of the sentence, but in comparison with the previous one it is short enough and can be turned into subject in English sentence quite easily, e.g. *A French film festival, which will last 7 days, is to be held in Kiev in November* OR *A 7-day French film festival is to be held in Kiev in November.*

3) In Ukrainian sentence subject inversion is widely spread. It helps to emphasize subject logically, e.g. *Приходив до Вас я. Спізнився на заняття Петренко.*
a) In English sentence we use the following patterns: it is (was) + subject + subordinate clause, e.g. It was I (me) who come to see you. It was Petrenko who was late for the lesson.

b) In some cases we use the construction there was + subject + adverbial modifier, e.g. На столі лежав олівець – There was a pencil on the table; У кімнаті не було нікого, крім Петренка – There was nobody in the room, but Petrenko.

This pattern can not only with the verb “to be”, but also with some intransitive verbs, e.g. Наступила хвилина мовчання – There come a moment of silence.

Note: Transitive verb is one that can have an object. E.g., Peter feeds the cows. Intransitive verb is one that cannot have an object or be used in the passive (smile, fall, come, go etc.): They leave for work early every day.

c) Subject can be emphasized emphatically with the help of special intensifying words, e.g. Від пожежі уціліли тільки декілька будинків – Only a few houses escaped the fire OR The fire spared but a few houses; Their meeting was joyful indeed.

d) The subject can be emphasized with the help of indefinite or zero article, e.g. Пройшов тиждень після їх знайомства – A week passed since they got acquainted; Після сніданку подали сигарети – Cigarettes were passed after lunch.

e) Adverbial modifier of a Ukrainian sentence can be turned into subject in English sentence, e.g. У Києві відбудеться міжнародний колоквіум з питань альтернативних джерел енергії – Kiev will see (will be the scene of) an international colloquium on the alternative sources of energy.

4) In Ukrainian sentence inversion is used not only for logical emphasis of a subject, but also a predicate if there is an adverb in the sentence, e.g. Пром’янистим і сонячним був ранок – Bright and sunny was the morning; Важким було дитинство Олівера Твіста – Hard was the childhood of Oliver Twist.

If subject follows a predicate which is expressed by a verb that means “existence”, “position” it is possible to use inversion in English sentence, e.g. Прийшов червень 1941 – Came June 1941; В куту кімнати стояв стіл – In the corner of the room stood a table; Біля неї сиділа якась жінка – Beside her sat a woman.

If predicate is a transitive verb, we cannot use inversion, e.g. Цей лист написав мій брат – The letter was written by my brother; На вокзалі мене зустріла сестра – At the station I was met by my sister.

2. Although adverbial modifier doesn’t have a fixed position in English sentence, its position can influence the sense of an utterance.

In Ukrainian language adverbial modifier can be used in any part of the sentence. In English sentence initial position is more emphatic, e.g. Вчора він відвідав мене, але нічого не сказав про свої наміри – He visited me yesterday but did not say anything about his intention; Він зустрів на тому тижді свого колишнього шкільного
товариша – Last week he met his former school-mate (last week). But we cannot say He met last week…

Adverbial modifiers can be used before objects with prepositions, e.g. He called yesterday on Brown and other friends; she looked surprisingly at him.

In Ukrainian language we can use a number of heterogeneous adverbial modifiers in the beginning of the sentence, e.g. Вчора до Києва з подорожі по країнах СНД повернулась англійська студентська делегація. In English sentence such adverbial modifiers are used at the end, e.g. A British students’ delegation returned to Kiev yesterday from a tour of the Commonwealth of Independent States OR one part of adverbial modifiers can be used in the beginning and the second part at the end of the sentence.

In English sentence it is possible to turn adverbial modifier of time into modifier/attribute, e.g. Yesterday’s visitors to the exhibition of this artist numbered over 20000 persons.

In Ukrainian language adverbial modifier of manner is usually used before predicate, e.g. Він швидко закінчив роботу; Він рано вставав і рано лягав. To emphasize adverbial modifier of manner we can put it in the beginning of the sentence, e.g. Швидко він зробив роботу; Рано він вставав, дуже рано.

In English sentence it is emphasized if it is put in the beginning of a sentence, e.g. Rapidly did he finish the job; Early would he get up. This type of inversion is rather old-fashioned, nowadays we use pattern: it is (was) …, that, e.g. It was rapidly that he finished the job; He was an early riser.

In Ukrainian language direct object follows predicate, e.g. Я бачив його вчора. To emphasize an object we place it at the beginning of a sentence, e.g. Його я бачив вчора.

In English sentence we use the following pattern: it is (was) + attribute + subordinate clause, e.g. It is him that I saw yesterday.

**Practice:** translate the following sentences
1. Учора до Києва з подорожі по Україні повернувся президент.
2. Більше двох тижнів триває страйк шахтарів.
3. Учора в Україні тривала тепла погода.
4. Серед тих, хто відпочивав у парку, було багато дітей.
5. У центрі уваги світового співтовариства стоять зараз урегулювання конфліктів у гарячих кутках планети.
6. До кімнати увійшла маленька дівчинка.
7. Маленька дівчинка увійшла до кімнати
8. Жахливими були злочини, що коїлися інквізицією на протязі століть.
9. Їх я зовсім не мав на увазі.
10. Про це поговоримо пізніше.
11. Рідко доводиться зустрічати таку присмук людину.
12. Часто згадував він роки дитинства.
13. Крізь густий ліс продиралися мандрівники з табору.
14. У ході переговорів відбувся обмін думками з питань, що становлять інтерес для обох сторін.
15. З вдячністю говорять хворі про хист цього видатного хірурга.
1. Realization of contextual meanings of the definite article
2. Realization of contextual meanings of the indefinite article

1. The article, both the definite and the indefinite, is a functional word serving to identify or determine the noun, the superlative degree of its quality or the order of nouns in a row of similar nouns. In some phrases and word combinations the definite and the indefinite articles, however, may obtain a distinct lexical meaning: The younger the better; the Browns; the Carpathians; in a moment (в одну мить).

The definite article when endowed with the lexical meaning in a sentence/passage can have various realizations in Ukrainian. Let us begin with the most common:

1) as the demonstrative pronoun цей (її, це, ці):
What his sister has seen in the man was beyond him – Що його сестра знашла в цьому чоловікові, він не міг збагнути.

2) as the demonstrative pronouns такий (той, та, те, ті), той самий (та сама, саме той), такий самий:
He was amazed at the man’s sympathy with life – Його вразила та любов до життя.

3) as the possessive pronoun її, їхні, свій (своя, своє, свої):
The room was situated over the laundry – Його кімната знаходилась над пральнею.

4) as the identifying pronoun весь, вся, все/цілий:
What the hell you guys blocking the street? – Якого біса ви, волоцюги, запрудили всю вулицю?

5) as the relative pronoun який (яка, яке, які):
She did not know the actual fire of love – Вона не знала, яка-то справжнє полум’я кохання.

6) as the indefinite pronoun якийсь (якась, якесь), певний:
For the moment the great gulf that separated them then was bridged – На якусь мить через велику безодню, що роздіяла їх, був наведений міст.

7) as the identifying attributive pronoun сам, сам собою, інший:
The toil meant nothing to him – Сама собою праця нічого не важила для нього.

8) as an adjective:
Martin Eden did not go out to hunt for a job in the morning – Мартін Іден не пішов наступного ранку шукати роботи.

9) as a particle or joining conjunction to emphasize the noun:
The man above us was talking to several persons in the crowd – А чоловік над нами огризвався до людей з натовпу.

10) as a noun in indirect case forms governed by a preposition:
He lay where he had fallen, and from there he watched the man in the red sweater – Він лежав, де впав, і звідти спостерігав за чоловіком у червоному светрі.

11) not frequently the definite article may point to the thematic functioning of the noun which is usually signalized by its initial position in the sentence:
They silently passed the studio – Вони мовчки пройшли повз майстерню.
The rheme on the contrary is more frequently indicated by the indefinite article determining the noun in the same initial position, e.g. *There was an old two-storey yellow house on Fielding Avenue that year* – *Того року на Філдінг Авеню стояв старий двоповерховий жовтий будинок*.

2. Strange as it may seem the indefinite article is predominantly endowed in the text with the lexical meanings which very often coincide with those of different pronouns, the only exception being the meaning of the cardinal numeral “one” from which the article historically originates. Consequently the contextual meanings of the lexically charged indefinite article can be conveyed in Ukrainian as follows:

1) by the cardinal numeral один (одна, одне):
*He said something about a schooner that’s gettin’ ready to go off* – *Він тут розповідав про одну шхуну, що готується відпливти.*

2) in some contexts, however, the indefinite article may acquire a lexical meaning which corresponds in Ukrainian to the indefinite pronoun якийсь (якась, яке), e.g. *Only for an instant he hesitated* – *Він був у нерішучості тільки якусь (першу, одну) мить.*

3) as the indefinite pronoun якийсь only, without the attendant meanings of the cardinal or ordinal numbers, e.g. *Sometimes, when with her, she noted an unusual brightness in his eyes, and she liked it* – *Часом, коли він був з нею, вона помічала якийсь особливий бліск в його очах, що подобався їй.*

4) when the lexically meaningful indefinite article precedes the noun under logical stress it functions as the demonstrative pronoun це, ця, цей, e.g. *This was his programme for a week* – *Це була його програма на цей тиждень.*

5) as one of the possessive pronouns, e.g. *When she returned with the grammar, she drew a chair near his* – *Коли вона повернулася з граматикою, вона присунула свій стілець до його стільця.*

6) as a negative pronoun жоден, e.g. *He hadn’t a penny* – *Він не мав жодного пенні.*

7) as the relative adjective цілий which is lexically equivalent in the context to the Ukrainian identifying pronoun весь (вся, все), e.g. *Martin rented a type-writer and spent a day mastering the machine* – *Мартін навчався друкувати на ній.*

More common contextual substitutes for the lexically meaningful indefinite article in Ukrainian are different relative adjectives, the most common of which is справжній, e.g. *He was a judge* – *Він був справжнім суддею.*

8) the contextual meaning of the indefinite article may sometimes be expressed in Ukrainian by different adverbs, e.g. *This is a great difference* – *Це зовсім різні речі/ зовсім інша річ.*

We should also define possible synonymous equivalents of articles. Among the most frequent substitutes there are the demonstrative and other kinds of pronouns, adjectives, numerals, etc. The contextual substitutions are mostly realized by the following combinations of words:

1) by an adjective and an emphatic or some other particle like: *He was not to remain a sailor* – *Бо ж він не буде простим собі матросом.*
2) by a pronominal word – group having an emphatic force, e.g. I want you to get rid of the dreadful people you associate with – ... спілкуватися з усіма тими покидачками.

3) by a pronominal word – group and a demonstrative particle, e.g. The story is simply this – Ось уся ця історія.

4) by an indefinite pronoun and some emphatic particles, e.g. He was a mere nobody, a subaltern in a foot regiment – Він був ніщо усього лишень якийсь піхотний офіцерик.

5) by an identifying pronoun with a demonstrative particle, e.g. The pity of it! The pity of it! – Який то жаль! Який то жаль!

These are the possible contextual realizations of the lexical meanings which the definite and the indefinite article may acquire in an utterance.

Practice: Fill in the gaps with a/ an/ the/ nothing and translate the sentences into Ukrainian:
1. ___ diplomat is ___ person who can tell you to go to hell in such a way that you actually look forward to ____ trip. Caskie Stinnett.

2. ____ dog is ___ only thing on earth that loves you more than you love yourself. Joe Billings.


4. ____ optimist is someone who thinks ____ future is uncertain. Anonymous.

5. I love acting. It is so much real than ____ life. Oscar Wild.

6. I always pass on ____ good advice. It is ____ only thing to do with it. It is never any use to oneself. Oscar Wild.

7. Save ____ water, shower with ____ friend. Anonymous.

8. California is ____ great place – if you happen to be ____ orange. F Allen.

9. Writing about ___ art is like dancing about ___ architecture. Anonymous.

10. ____ equality is ___ lie - ___ women are better. Anonymous.

Lecture 7

THE ROLE OF SUBJECT IN SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC LANGUAGES

1. Formal subjects
2. Subject personification
3. “I like” constructions

1. As analytic languages have fixed word order the existence of a subject is obligatory. It concerns even impersonal sentences where formal subject should be used. Formal subject is often expressed by pronouns,

E.g. it, they, you, we or cardinal numeral one.

E.g. It is raining;

It was pleasant to bask in the sun – Приємно було погрітися на сонці;
You can’t help loving him – Неможна не любити його;
They say he is back – Кажуть, він повернувся.
Other type of informal subject can be *there + verb “to be”*, that expresses existence of a person or a thing.

E.g. There is a telephone in that room; There are plenty of people.

Instead of “to be” the verbs *to seem, to prove, to live, to occur, to come* can be used.

E.g. There seemed no limit to her demands – Здавалося, не було кінця її вимогам;

There looked like being a row – Було схожим на те, що почнеться сварка;

There lived an old man in that house.

In negative sentence *there* is followed by gerund.

E.g. There was no stopping him – Зупинити його було неможливо;

There was never any telling what he would do – Ніяк неможна було передбачити, що він зробить.

**Practice:** Put in *there’s* or *it’s* and translate the sentences into Ukrainian

1. ___ a cat in your bedroom.
2. ___ hard to understand him.
3. ___ cold tonight.
4. ___ ice on the roads.
5. ___ nice to see you.
6. ___ somebody on the phone for you.
7. ___ a problem with the TV.
8. ___ too late to go out.
9. ___ a funny smell in the kitchen.
10. “What’s that noise?” “___ the wind.”

Put the sentences together using *it*

1. He wasn’t there. This surprised me. – *It surprised me that he wasn’t there.*
2. She has got some money saved. This is a good thing.
3. He has got long hair. This doesn’t bother me.
4. John never talked to her. This worried her.
5. She should be told immediately. It is essential.
6. He didn’t remember my name. It was strange.
7. He can’t come. This is a pity.
8. The children should get to bed early. This is important.
9. Wolves attack people. This is not true.
10. She stole money. This shocked me.

Change the sentences as shown.

1. I don’t want tea, I want coffee. – *It is not tea I want, it’s coffee.*
2. I don’t love you, I love Peter.
3. Carol isn’t the boss, Sandra is.
4. I don’t hate the music, I hate the words.
5. I didn’t loose my glasses, I lost my keys.
6. Bob isn’t getting married, Clive is.
7. I didn’t see Judy, I saw Jill.
8. He is not studying maths, he is studying physics.
9. Max isn’t crazy, you are.
10. You don’t need a nail, you need a screw.

Are these sentences right or wrong? Change it to there where necessary.
1. They live on a busy road. It must be a lot of noise.
2. Last winter it was very cold and it was a lot of snow.
3. I wish it was warmer. I hate cold weather.
4. It used to be a church here, but it was knocked down.
5. It is a long way from my house to nearest shop.
6. Why was she so unfriendly? It must have been a reason.
7. I don’t know who will win but it is sure to be a good match.
8. “Where can we park the car?” “Don’t worry. It’s sure to be a car park somewhere.”
9. After the lecture it will be an opportunity to ask questions.
10. I like the place where I live but it would be nice to live by the sea.
11. I was told that it would be somebody to meet me at the station but it wasn’t anybody.

Write the sentences with you and one
1. a card/ this phone: One needs/ you need a card to use this phone.
2. see her/ appointment: One/ you can’t see her without an appointment.
3. get into the US/ a passport 4. a ticket/ a train
5. fly directly/ Gdansk/ Prague 6. good at maths/ a physicist
7. grow oranges/ a warm climate 8. get a driving license/ seventeen
9. eat soup/ fork 10. see animals in the forest/ get up early

2. Ukrainian impersonal sentences which inform about physical or moral state of a person, his/ her feelings, moods correspond to personal sentences in English language. In these cases subject is expressed by to be + adjective.
E.g. I am cold;
I am not quite clear about the rest of the story – Мені не зовсім зрозумілий кінець цієї історії.
It is obvious that in English sentences subject can be expressed by an inanimate object that in Ukrainian sentence is an adverbial modifier of place.
E.g. Cyprus is rather hot in summer;
The roads will be slippery – На дорогах буде слизько.
In these cases inanimate objects are personificated.
E.g. The list does try to highlight the more important factors – В цьому переліку дійсно виділені найважливіші фактори;
Afternoon saw Jack and Somers polishing floors – Пообіді Джек і Сомерс почали натирати підлогу.

Practice: Choose the correct pronoun
1. (I/ me) am going to the store.
2. (Us/ we) lived here for twenty years.
3. (Yours/your) record is scratched.
4. (Their/they) have seen this movie before.
5. (We/us) students are going to have a party.
6. Isn’t (her/she) a nice person?
7. (George/George’s) is going to leave a party.
8. John (he/himself) went to the meeting.
9. Mary and (me/I) would rather go to the movies.
10. (She/her) and John gave the money to the boy.
11. (We/us) girls are going camping over the weekend.

3. As we have noted the grammar structure of a language always influences its lexics. Such English verbs as to like, to want, to care and some other verbs refer to either reflexive verbs, such as подобатись, вимагати, потребувати or to impersonal patterns: I don’t care – мені однаково.

Such verbs are used as predicate in personal sentence, as in English language there are no grammatically impersonal sentences.

E.g. I like this song;

You want a woman to look after you – Вам потрібно, щоб якась жінка піклувалась про вас.

It’s necessary to note that in Ukrainian language the sentences of this type are completely reconstructed, i.e. direct object in Ukrainian sentence turns into subject in English sentence.

**Practice:** Translate the following sentences into English using the verb to want

1. Я хочу закінчити цю роботу як можна скоріше.
2. Джин хоче, щоб ти їй допоміг.
3. Мені потрібен новий капелюх.
4. Ти впевнений, що тобі потрібна саме ця книга?
5. Хворому, напевно, знадобиться кисень.
6. Вашій квартирі потрібен ремонт.
7. Їй не потрібні співчуття.
8. В магазин потрібен касир.

Translate an abstract from “The Fire” by W. Saroyan. Pay attention at the verb to want

There was a bag of candy on the table in the parlor. He didn’t want any of it. The toys were in the parlor. He didn’t want to blow any of the whistles or shoot the marbles or wind up the toy machines and watch them work. He didn’t want anything. There wasn’t anything. There wasn’t one little bit of anything. All he wanted was to be near the fire, as close to it as he could be, just be there, just see the colours and be very near. What did he want with toys? What good were toys? The whistles sounded sadder than crying and the way the machines worked almost made him die of grief.
Lecture 8-9

THE ROLE OF PREDICATE IN SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC LANGUAGES

1. The verb “to be”
2. The verb “to have”
3. The category of tense

1. Predicate is the most important part of a sentence in any language as it possesses more grammar notions than a subject and a subject can be expressed only by an action which is revealed in a predicate. Predicate links an actor with an object and adverbial modifier of action. That is way a predicate is practically the center of a sentence that organizers other parts of it. It is typical for any language, especially English where none of main parts of the sentence can be omitted.

A predicate can be expressed by two types of verbs. They are:
1) the verbs that express actions and
2) the verbs that express existence.

The rules for using the first type of verbs are the same at both languages. Here, we will analyze the usage of verbs “to be” and “to have” which have different meanings and functions in Ukrainian and English languages.

The Ukrainian verb “бути” can be translated into English as “to be”. In its main meaning it is used in past and future, e.g. Я був в кімнаті; Я буду в кімнаті; Я в кімнаті.

In English sentence the linking verb is a must, e.g. I was in the room; I’ll be in the room; I am in the room. This is the only situation when the meaning of the verb coincides in both languages.

Note: linking verb connects the subject with a word that gives information about the subject, such as a condition or relationship. They do not show any action; but, they link the subject with the rest of the sentence. For example, in the sentence "They are a problem," the word "are" is the linking verb that connects "they" and "problem" to show the relationship between the two words. (get, appear, become, remain, look, etc.)

Let us analyze semantic structure of the verb “to be” which depends on context. Here are the most important meanings of the verb:

1) “exist”, e.g. John was at the meeting too – Джон також був присутнім на засіданні.
2) “happen”, e.g. It was only last year – Це трапилось лише в минулому році.
3) “equal”, e.g. Twice two is for – Два на два – чотири.
4) “cost”, e.g. How much is the hat – Скільки коштує капелюх?
5) “consist”, e.g. The trouble was we didn’t know her address – Проблема полягалась в тому, що ми не знали її адресу.

In perfect – constructions “to be” means “to visit”, e.g.

Has anyone been? – Хтось заходив?

In some phrases the verb “to be” can acquire different meanings, e.g.

Are the boys in bed? – Хлопчики сплять?
There are a number of set expressions with “to be” that are translated into Ukrainian as patterns with verbs that express actions, e.g.

*Are you in earnest?* Ви кажете серйозно?

In these cases the verb “to be” losses its independent meaning and functions as a linking verb. It is typical for a pattern:

*to be + noun (adjective) + postposition etc.*

With the help of postpositions which follow the verbs *to do, to go, to come, to make, to put, to give, to take* etc. the verbs can change their meanings.

In patterns *to be + postposition*, the meaning is expressed by postposition

*Is Mr. Brown in? – No, he is out. I hear Mr. Brown is back.*

Some of postpositions have several meanings.

E.g. The train is off – Поїзд відправився;
    The meeting was off – Засідання не відбулося;
    The lights were on;
    What is on in our cinema?

Patterns *to be + noun formed out of a verb (verb+er = noun)* express stable quality of a person.

E.g. *What a small eater you are!* – Як мало ти їси!

There are some phrases.

E.g. to be a poor sailor – погано переносити хитавицю на морі;
    to be a poor correspondent – не любити писати листи;
    to be a stranger – рідко бувати десь

There are some phrases with “to be” that express abstract notions.

E.g. *I don’t imagine he is much help* – Не уявляю, щоб від нього було багато користі;

*They are a very little trouble – Від них немає ніяких турбот;*

*Aren’t you a perfect disgrace? – Чи не соромно вам?*

### Read a joke

“What a language English is?” a Frenchman exclaimed in despair. “I once called on an English friend and the maid who came to the door said, ‘He’s not up yet. Come back in half an hour.’”

“When I came again, she was setting the table for breakfast and said, ‘He’s not down yet.’”

“I asked: ‘If he is not up and he’s not down, *where is he?’”

2. The verb “*to have*” possesses more meanings than the verb “мати”. It presupposes a potential action.

E.g. *Mary has a pencil in her hand (Mary is holding a pencil...)* – Мері тримає олівець в руці.

In the sentences of this type when subject is expressed by an acting person it is possible to use *there*.

E.g. *We haven’t got any coffee in the house = There is no coffee in the house.*

The same constructions are also possible with inanimate subjects.

E.g. *Some houses had quite wide grass round them = There was quite wide grass round some houses.*
“To have” can be used as a linking verb in a list of expressions with a noun.

E.g. to have dinner – пообідати; to have a talk – побалакати;
to have a quarrel – посваритися, have a look - подивись etc.

In these cases “to have” losses its main meaning and expresses a limited one-only action.

It is also possible to say to rest instead of to have a rest. But analytic languages tend to differentiate formal expression of a general and particular, quantity and quality sides of the actions. That is why instead of a particular verb to rest, we use to have + noun that expresses quality (adjective, participle, noun).

In English language there are a number of set expressions which are rendered into Ukrainian as verbs of action, e.g. I wish you to have a good time; She has a perfect command of English.

**Practice:**
Choose which words and expressions go with “be”, and which go with “have”

Fed up with sb, a right to do sth, the nerve to do sth, on the safe side, in touch with sb, sb round, a word with sb, no point in doing sth, off colour, on one’s mind, out of one’s mind, up to date, a ball, in charge of sth/sb, no chance of doing sth.

Put the correct form of “be”

6. The baby ____ very good today.
7. I ____ a bit lonely these days.
8. John ____ difficult about money again.
9. Really! The children ___ absolutely impossible this morning.
10. I don’t know why I ___ so tired.
11. You ___ very careless with those glasses.
12. I didn’t really mean what I said. I ___ silly.
13. She ___ exited about her birthday.

Complete the sentences

1. I’ve got plenty of _____.        6. I’ve got too much _____.
2. I haven’t got a _______.         7. I’ve got too many _____.
3. I haven’t got much ____.        8. I’ve got enough _______.
4. I haven’t got many ____.          9. I haven’t got enough ___.
5. I haven’t got any _____.

Write sentences using If you are ..., you haven’t got a/ any ... to explain these words:
Bald; penniless; childless; unemployed; toothless; lonely; starving; an orphan; unmarried.

3. There are different ways of expressing the verb in English and Ukrainian languages. As any predicate is a verb, although not all the verbs are predicates, let us analyze the main differences of verbs in English and Ukrainian.

In Ukrainian language we distinguish present/past/future tenses.

In English language when we speak about tenses we should mention aspect.
Aspect is a grammatical category that expresses how an action, event or state, denoted by a verb relates to the flow of time. According to it we distinguish *progressive/continuous/perfective* aspects. These aspects can apply to the events situated in the past, present, and future.

E.g. A progressive form does not simply show the time of an event. It also shows how the speaker sees the event – generally as ongoing and temporary; rather than completed or permanent. Because of this, grammars often talk about “progressive aspect” rather than “progressive tenses”.

**Compare:** *I’ve read your letter* (completed action);

*I’ve been reading a lot of thrillers recently* (not necessarily completed);

*The Rhine runs into the North Sea* (permanent);

*We’ll have to phone the plumber – water’s running down the kitchen wall* (temporary).

To express different aspects in English language we use auxiliary verbs while in Ukrainian we use prefixes or modify the stem or ending.

E.g, ходити – йти (imperfective)

Підти (perfective)

Їздити – їхати - поїхати

**Practice:** Draw a table of English tenses in Active Voice.

Present in both languages refers to a short period when action happens rather than a strict point.

Most English verbs have two “present” tenses. They are “simple present” or “present simple” and “present progressive” or “present continuous”. The two “present” tenses are used to refer to several different kinds of time.
Simple Present
- to describe actions that are features of an object, e.g. The city has its cunning wiles – велике місто сповнене зрубних принад
- to talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly, repeatedly or all the time, e.g. Water freezes at 0 Celsius.
- to talk about series of actions and events that are completed as we speak or write. This happens in demonstrations and commentaries, e.g. Taylor shoots – and it’s a goal!
- in general sayings, e.g. when a girl leaves her home at 18... - коли дівчина залишає батьківський дім у 18 років...
- in informal narrative and in summaries of plays, stories, e.g. In Act I, Hamlet meets the ghost of his father.
- in formal correspondence, e.g. We write to advise you...
- to ask for and give directions and instructions, e.g. ‘How do I get to the station?’ ‘You go straight on to the traffic light ...’
- when the verb can’t be used in progressive form, e.g. I believe you.
- to refer to future events that are timetabled, e.g. His train arrives at 11.46.
- in introductory expressions with a perfect or past meaning, e.g. I hear you are getting married. In
- quotations which are introduced with says, e.g. It says in the paper that petrol is going up again.

Present Progressive
- to talk about temporary continuing actions and events that are going on around now: before, during and after the moment of speaking, e.g. ‘What are you doing?’ ‘I’m reading.’ OR at a particular time we are thinking of, e.g. At 7 a.m. when the post comes, I’m usually having breakfast.
- to speak about developing and changing situations, even if these are very long-lasting, e.g. The climate is getting warmer.
- to talk about the future, e.g. What are you doing tomorrow evening?
- in informal correspondence, e.g. We are writing to let you know...
- to refer to repeated actions and events, if these are happening around the moment of speaking, e.g. Jack is seeing a lot of Felicity these days.

To translate progressive aspect into Ukrainian adverbs that express time or underline the duration of action are used. E.g. зараз, цими днями.
Note that we use a perfect tense, not a present tense, to say how long a present action or situation has been going on, e.g. *I have known her since 1960. I’ve been learning English for three years.*

In English six different tenses refer to the past. They are “simple past”; “past progressive”; “simple present perfect”; “present perfect progressive”; “simple past perfect”; “past perfect progressive”. Some English tenses express meanings (e.g. completion, continuation, present importance) which are not expressed by verb forms in Ukrainian language.

**Simple past tense** is used to talk about many kinds of past events: short, quickly finished actions and happenings, longer situations, and repeated events, e.g. *Peter broke a window last night; Regularly every summer, Janet fell in love.*

The simple past is common in story-telling and when we are telling people about past events, e.g. *One day the princess decided that she didn’t like staying at home all day, so she told her father that she wanted to get a job...*

The simple past is often used with references to finished periods and moments of time, e.g. *I saw John yesterday morning. He told me...*

In general, the simple past tense is the “normal” one for talking about the past; we use it if we don’t have a special reason for using one of the other tenses.

**Progressive forms** are used especially when we describe a past event as going on or continuing (perhaps at a particular time, or up to a particular time), e.g. *When you phoned I was working in the garage. I was tired because I had been working all day.*

We often use the past progressive together with a simple past tense. The past progressive refers to a longer ‘background’ action or situation; the simple past refers to a shorter action or event that happened in the middle of the longer action, or that interrupted it, e.g. *Mozart died while he was composing the Requiem.*

The past progressive is used to express two simultaneous actions. E.g., *She was talking on her mobile phone while she was driving to work.*

The past progressive can be used with *always, continually* and similar words to talk about things that happened repeatedly and unexpectedly, or in an unplanned way, e.g. *I didn’t like him – he was continually borrowing money.*

**Perfect forms** are used especially when we want to suggest a connection between a past event and the present, or between an earlier and a later past event. We don’t use the present perfect if we are not thinking principally about the present, e.g. *I have worked with children before, so I know what to expect in my new job; After I had worked with Jake for a few weeks, I felt I knew him pretty well.*

Perfect forms can also suggest completion, e.g. *I’ve done the shopping. What shall I do now?*

We could often change a simple present perfect sentence into a present sentence with a similar meaning, e.g. *I’ve broken my leg – My leg is broken now;*
Some fool has let the cat in – The cat is in; Mary has had a baby – Mary now has a baby.

The simple present perfect is the most normal tense for giving news and recent events. But after using the present perfect to announce a piece of news, we usually change to simple or progressive past tenses to give the details, e.g. The Prime Minister has had talks with President Kumani. During the three hour meeting, they discussed the economic situation, and agreed on the need for closer trade links between the two countries.

Recently some British newspapers have started regularly using the simple past for smaller news announcements – probably to save space, e.g. Driving wind and rain forced 600 out of 2,500 teenagers to abandon the annual ‘Ten Tour’ trek across Dartmoor.

In American English the simple past is often used to give news, e.g. Did you hear? Switzerland declared/ has declared war on Mongolia.

We can use “present perfect” to say that something has happened several times up to the present, e.g. How often have you been in love in your life?

The basic meaning of the simple past perfect is ‘earlier past’ and ‘completed in the past’. A common use is to ‘go back’ when we are already talking about the past, so as to make it clear that something had already happened at the time we are talking about, e.g. I realized that we had met before. The past perfect is common after past verbs of saying and thinking, to talk about things that had happened before the saying or thinking took place, e.g. I wondered who had left the door opened. The past perfect can help to mark the first action as separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started, e.g. When I had written my letters I did some gardening.

Present perfect progressive is used, in general, to talk about situations which started in the past and are still going on, or which have just stopped and have present results. It has an ‘up to now’ focus. It is common when we are talking about situations which are just coming to an end or may change, or when we are talking about how long a situation has lasted, e.g. ‘You look hot.’ ‘Yes, I’ve been running.’ It has been raining since Christmas.

A group of linguists including Бархударов Л.С. and Штелінг Д.А. claim that there is no future in English language, because:

1) shall/ will are modal verbs;
2) future can be expressed differently;
3) in a pattern shall/ will + infinitive, future is expressed by shall/ will not a verb;
4) should/ would + infinitive express both past and future.

We use the two present tenses to talk about future actions and events that have some present reality. When we talk about future events which have already been planned or decided, or which we can see are on the way, we often use
present tenses. “The present progressive” is used mostly to talk about personal arrangements and fixed plans, especially when time and place have been decided, e.g. I’m seeing Tom tomorrow; We are going to Mexico next summer.

Going to often emphasizes the idea of intention, of a decision that has already been made, e.g. I’m going to keep asking her out until she says ‘Yes’.

For spontaneous actions we use shall/will + infinitive, e.g. Nobody will ever know what happened to her. Shall/ will is often used in predictions of future events – to say what we think, guess or calculate will happen, e.g. I shall be rich one day.

We can use the future perfect to say that something will be completed, finished or achieved by a certain time, e.g. By next Christmas we’ll have been here for eight years.

The future progressive can be used if we want to say that something will be in progress at a particular time, e.g. This time tomorrow I will be lying on the beach.

The structure be about + infinitive is used to say that a future event is very close, e.g. I think the plane is about to take off. Is your seat belt done up?

Be + infinitive is used to talk about plans, arrangements and schedules, and to give instructions, e.g. The President is to visit Belgium in January; You are not to tell anybody about it.

The simple present is often used with a future meaning in subordinate clauses – e.g. after what, where, when, until, if, than e.g. I’ll tell you what I find out.

It is also necessary to note that there exists relative tense in English language. It is “future-in-the-past” which is not expressed in Ukrainian.

Here is a list of tenses from the most frequently used (number 1) to the least frequently used:

1. the present progressive tense;
2. the present simple passive;
3. the present perfect continuous;
4. the present perfect;
5. the past simple;
6. the past progressive;
7. the past perfect;
8. the past perfect progressive;
9. the future simple;
10. the future progressive;
11. the past perfect progressive;
12. the past perfect progressive

The present simple is used least of all. It is used in scientific language.

**Practice:** translate the following sentences into English

1. Він закінчує книгу над якою працював п’ять років.
2. Він закінчив книгу над якою працював п’ять років.
3. Він учора гуляв в парку після сніданку.
4. Студенти підготували спеціальний випуск газети, присвячений початку навчального року.
5. До п’ятої години я вже закінчу роботу.
6. Хлопчики кидали каміння у річку.
7. Цей вчений протягом кількох років вивчав проблему довголіття.
8. Життєвий рівень в Україні все більше знижується.
9. Він пройшов п’ять кілометрів.
10. О дев’ятій годині наш літак летів над Ельбрусом.

Lecture 10

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE

1. Definition and formal criteria
2. The main theoretical problems concerning the category of voice

1. As to the definition of the category of voice, there are two main views. The first expresses the relation between subject and the action. The second expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action. In this case the object is introduced into the definition of voice. The verbal category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction. The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The sign marking the passive form of the verb is the combination of auxiliary verb “be” with the past participle of the conjugated verb.

Practice: Draw a table of tenses for passive structures.

2. As it is known passive structures are more often used in English than Ukrainian language. It is explained by the fact that a subject in English sentence can be expressed by both direct and indirect objects. It is impossible in Ukrainian sentence. Passive is the only possible structure when we want to talk about an action, but don’t know who or what does/ did it, e.g. Those pyramids were built around 400 AD. That’s why in English language passives without ‘agents’ are common in academic and scientific writing.

Another common reason for choosing passive structures is that a speaker wants to begin a sentence with something that is already known, or that we are already talking about, and to ‘put’ the news at the end, e.g. John’s painting my portrait (active verb so that the ‘news’ – the portrait – can go at the end); ‘Nice picture’” Yes, it was painted by my grandmother”. (passive verb so that the ‘news’ – the painter – can go at the end). In Ukrainian the rheme is usually at the end of the sentence, in English it is used at the beginning.

Longer and heavier expressions often go at the end of a clause, and this can also be a reason for choosing a passive structure, e.g. I was annoyed by Mary wanting to tell everybody what to do.
If we want to mention the agent – the person or thing that does the action, or that causes what happens, in passive clause we usually use a phrase beginning with by, e.g. *I was shocked by your attitude*. After the past participles of some stative verbs, including some which are used like adjectives, other prepositions can be used instead of by, e.g. *We were worried about/ by her silence; Are you frightened of spiders? The child will be looked after. The dress has never been tried on.*

*With* is used when we talk about an instrument which is used by an agent to do an action, e.g. *He was shot (by the policemen) with a rifle.*

Not all verbs can have passive forms. Some verbs are usually followed by nouns or pronouns that act as direct objects. In grammar these verbs are called ‘transitive’. Examples are *invite, surprise.* Some verbs are not normally followed by direct objects. These are called ‘intransitive’. Examples are *sit, sleep, die, arrive.* Many verbs can be transitive and intransitive, e.g. *England lost – England lost the match; Let’s eat – I can’t eat this.*

Passive structures are impossible with intransitive verbs which can’t have objects, because there is nothing to become the subject of a passive sentence. Some transitive verbs, too, are seldom used in the passive. Most of these are ‘stative verbs’ (verbs that refer to states, not actions), e.g. *fit, have, lack, resemble, suit.* E.g. *They have a nice house – not: A nice house is had by them; Your mother lacks tact etc.* Some prepositional verbs are mainly used in active, e.g. *Everybody agreed with me.*

There are no clear rules about this, and you should learn by experience which verbs cannot be used in the passive.

Many verbs, such as *give, send, show, lend* can be followed by two objects, an indirect (a person) and a direct (a thing). The choice between two passive structures may depend on what has been said before, or on what needs to be put last in the sentence.

Many verbs can be followed by *object + infinitive,* e.g. *He asked me to send a stamped addressed envelope.* In most cases, these structures can be made passive, e.g. *I was asked to send a stamped addressed envelope.*

**Note:** that with *say* the infinitive structure is only possible in the passive.

**Practice:** Rewrite the following passage in the passive voice:

Yesterday afternoon, a volcanic eruption destroyed an entire village. Mount Sirius, which experts thought was a dormant, erupted at 3 pm. Tourists had seen smoke rising from the mouth of volcano two days before. The police moved the villagers away from the area for their own safety. Tons of lava and rock came out of the volcano and wrecked houses, roads and trees. Although the blast physically injured only a few people, doctors are treating many for shock. The authorities are keeping the area surrounding Mount Sirius clear in case of further activity.

Translate the following sentences from Ukrainian into English

1. Повідомляють, що вчора до Києва літаком прибула румунська урядова делегація.
Lecture 11

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD

1. The definition and the main notion of the category of mood
2. Short characteristic of three moods in English

1. Various definitions have been given to the category of mood (B.A. Ilyish, A.I. Smirnitskiy, G.N. Vorontsova, L.S. Barhudarov, I.V. Khlebnikova).

Vinogradov: mood expresses the relation of the action to reality, as stated by the speaker. The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen.

The functional opposition underlying the category as a whole is constituted by the forms of oblique mood meaning. The category of mood differs in principle from the immanent verbal categories of time, prospect, development and retrospective coordination. The category of mood expresses the outer interpretation of the action as a whole. There is the division of moods which represents an action as real; those which represent it as non-real.

2. The use of the indicative mood shows that the speaker represents the action as real. Here a fact is represented as possibility, e.g. I may meet him and I may not. But this doesn’t affect the meaning of the grammar form as such. Grammar doesn’t deal with the ultimate truth or untruth of a statement with its predicate verb in indicative mood. The meaning of the category is essential.

The imperative mood is a semantically direct mood. In English it is represented by one form only, e.g. Come. It is without any suffix and ending. It
has no person, number, tense or aspect distinctions and is limited in its use to one type of sentence only. Imperatives are used, for example, to tell, ask people what to do, to make suggestions, to give advice or instructions, to encourage and offer, and to express wishes to people's welfare, e.g. Enjoy your holiday. Try, and have done, it's not so difficult as it seems.

Affirmative imperatives have the same form as the infinitive without to; negative imperatives are constructed with do not + infinitive.

In polite requests, complaints and apologies it is common to make an emphatic imperative with do + infinitive, e.g. Do forgive me – I didn’t mean to interrupt.

To tell people to arrange for things to be done to them, we often use get + past participle, e.g. Get vaccinated as soon as you can.

Most usually a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as a subject. But it may be used in emotional speech, e.g. Mary come here – everybody else stay where you are.

**Practice:**
Write some advice in the form of imperatives for the following situations:
1. You are a parent; your child is eating too much.
2. Your child is going to cycle to school through a heavy traffic.
3. You are just going to tell somebody that you have damaged their car.
4. You fourteen-year-old child is going out to a party.
5. You are going into a room where a nervous old lady is alone in the dark.
6. You are arranging to meet somebody who is usually late.
7. Your child has just told you to shut up.
8. Your boy/girlfriend is upset because you went out with somebody else.

The mood of attitudes is called present subjunctive or subjunctive 1. The 1st type of attitude series is formed by may/might + infinitive. It is used to express wish, desire, hope.

E.g., It may be as you wish!
I hope it may be safe.

The 2nd construction type of attitude series is formed by should + infinitive. It is used in various subordinate predicative units to express supposition, speculation, suggestion, recommendation, inducement of different kinds and degrees of intensity.

The 3rd type is formed by let + objective substantive + infinitive. It is used to express inducement in relation to all the persons, but preferably to the 1st person plural and 3rd person both numbers.

E.g., Let me try to convince them myself. Now don’t let’s be hearing any more of this. Let us have finished with the whole affair.

All three types of constructions are frequently used in speech.

The subjunctive is a special kind of present tense which has no “-s” in the third person singular. It is sometimes used in “that-clauses” in a formal style, especially in American English, after words that express the idea that something is
important or desirable (e.g. suggest, recommend, ask, insist, demand, intend, regret, vital, essential, necessary, obligatory, important, advice).

E.g., It is important that every child have the same educational opportunities; Our advice is that the company invest in new equipment.

Do is not used in negative subjunctive, e.g. We considered it desirable that he not leave school before finishing his exams.

**Practice:** Correct mistakes in the following sentences.
1. The teacher demanded that the student left the room.
2. It was urgent that he called her immediately.
3. It was very important that we delay discussion.
4. She intends to move that the committee suspends discussion on this issue.
5. The king decreed that the new laws took effect the following month.
6. I propose that you should stop that rally.
7. I advise you to take the prerequisites before registering for this course.
8. His father prefers that he attends a different university.
9. The faculty stipulated that the rule be abolished.
10. She urged that we found another alternative.

The subjunctive II (past subjunctive) is connected with the expression of unreal actions in conditional clauses. Subjunctive II is a mood of reasoning by the rule of contraries where the situations of reality are opposed to the reflections of the same situations in different, imaginary connections with the other. They reflect causal-conditional relations of events.

1) The most typical construction is the complex sentence with a clause of unreal condition. E.g., It looks as if it had been snowing all the week.
2) Subjunctive expression of urgency (temporal limit). E.g., It’s high time the right keys to the problem were found.
3) Clauses and sentences of “wish”. There the implied condition is dependent on the expressed desire of a situation contrary to reality.

I wish:
+ past indefinite -> unreal present -> we’d like something to be different in present
+ past perfect -> unreal past -> express regret that something has happened or didn’t happen in the past;
+ would/ could -> future -> a) a polite imperative;
    b) express our desire for a change in a situation or someone’s behaviour

As we see, the subjunctive form does express the unreality of an action which constitutes a condition for the corresponding consequence.

**Practice:** Write sentences beginning with I wish… or If only…
1. He smokes – I wish he didn’t smoke.
2. I don’t speak Russian.
3. I haven’t got a car.
4. I’m not hard-working.
5. I don’t like dancing.
6. It rains all the time.
7. She works on Sundays.
8. I can’t eat eggs.
5. I’m bad at sport.                                      10. The radio doesn’t work.

Write some sentences beginning:

I wish I had …; If only I could …; I wish I spoke …; I wish I knew …; If only I
was …; I wash I wasn’t ….

Lecture 12
NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB (VERBIDS)

1. The Infinitive
2. The Gerund
3. The Participle

1. Infinitives combine properties of the verb and the noun, and serve as
the verbal name of a process.

E.g., *It made her proud sometimes to toy with the idea* – What made her
proud?

Unlike verb tenses (e.g. writes, stood), infinitives do not usually show the
actual times of actions or events. They usually refer to actions and event in a more
general way, rather like gerund.

Infinitives are generally used with the marker *to*. Besides simple infinitives
like *(to) write*, there are also progressive infinitives, e.g. *to be writing*, perfect
infinitives, e.g. *to have written* and passive infinitives, e.g. *to be written*.

The *to-* infinitive is used:
- to express purpose, e.g. *Sam went to the bank to get some money.*
- to talk about an unexpected event which can be unpleasant, usually with
only, e.g. *She came home to find her sister waiting for her. They rushed to
the airport (only) to be informed that the flight had been cancelled.*
- after certain verbs (agree, appear, decide, expect, hope, plan, promise,
refuse etc.), e.g. *He promised to help us with the decorations.*
- after adjectives which describe feelings/ emotions (happy, glad); express
un/willingness (un/willing, eager, reluctant, anxious); refer to a person’s
character (mean, clever, etc.) and also with adjectives lucky and fortunate.
E.g. *I was annoyed to hear that he had left; He is reluctant to help; You
were clever not to believe them.*

Note: with adjectives that refer to character we can also use an impersonal
construction *it + be + adj. + of + noun/ pronoun + infinitive*, e.g. *It was clever of
you not to believe them.*
- after certain nouns and pronouns such as something, anyone, nothing, etc.
usually to show that something is necessary or possible, e.g. *We have got a
lot of homework to do; Take something to drink on the bus.*
- after too/ enough, e.g. *She is too young to stay out so late.*
- with it + be + adjective/ noun, e.g. It is important to get there on time; It is her ambition to open a new shop.
- after be + the first/ second, etc./next/ last/ best, etc., e.g. He was the first to arrive.
- After the verbs and expressions such as ask, learn, find out, wonder, want to know, decide, explain, etc. when they are followed by question words (who, what, where, how, etc.). Why is followed by a subject + verb, not by an infinitive, e.g. He explained how to operate the machine; I don’t know why he left.

The bare infinitive is used:
- after modal verbs, except for “ought to”, “be to”;
- after the verbs of physical perceptions such as see, hear, feel;
- after the verbs let, make, bid, help;
- after verbal phrases of modal nature such as had better and would rather/ would have.

In a sentence an infinitive can perform functions of:
- a subject, e.g. To meet the head of the committee and not to speak to him was unwise.
- part of complex subject, e.g. He is said to be a good professional.
- part of a predicate, e.g. My desire is to work as an interpreter.
- object, e.g. The chief arranged to meet the delegation in the afternoon.
- part of complex object, e.g. I felt her touch my shoulder; Let him go for a walk; I want you to do it; She made him wash the dishes.

With some transitive verbs the Infinitive used in complex object/ subject can be used as a passive construction:

We have never heard Charlie play his violin -> Charlie has never been heard to play his violin
- attribute/ modifier, e.g. He was the first to come.
- adverbial modifier, e.g. He phoned here to warn you; It’s too late to go for a walk.

“For + infinitive” constructions are used if the infinitive has its own subject. E.g., For that student to complete the assignment was incredible.

Для цього студента виконання завдання виявилося неймовірним.

**Practice:** Write sentences to say why people go to the following places,

- e.g. a library – You go to a library to borrow books.

A bookshop, a cinema, a theatre, a swimming pool, a gymnasium, a driving school, a station, an airport, a travel agent’s, a church, a football stadium, a bank, a post office, a restaurant, a supermarket, a garage, a newsagent.

Say why you are learning English.
2. The gerund is a suffixal form of the verb that combines properties of both the verb and the noun. It can be used with prepositions, in combination with possessive noun and pronoun. E.g., John’s leaving home upset everybody. Will he ever excuse our being late?

It is used:
- as a noun, e.g. Cycling is a popular form of exercise.
- after certain verbs (admit, anticipate, appreciate, avoid, consider, continue, delay, deny, discuss, enjoy, escape, excuse, fancy, finish, forgive, go (for activities), imagine, involve, keep (= continue), mention, mind, miss, postpone, practice, prevent, quit, recall, recollect, report, resent, resist, risk, save, stand, suggest, tolerate, understand, etc.), e.g. They considered moving abroad; He avoided answering my question.
- after: dislike, enjoy, hate, like, love, prefer to express general preference, e.g. She likes painting.
- after expressions such as be busy, it’s no use, it’s (no) good; it’s (no) worth, what is the use of, can’t help, there is no point (in), can’t stand, have difficulty (in), have trouble, have a hard/ difficult time, etc., e.g. What is the use of waiting for an answer?
- after: spend, waste, lose (time, money, etc.), e.g. We wasted a lot of time trying to find a parking place.
- after prepositions, e.g. He was found guilty of lying in court.
- after the preposition ‘to’ with verbs and expressions such as look forward to, be used to, get round to, object to, in addition to, prefer (doing sth to doing sth else), etc., e.g. She objects to working on Saturdays.
- after the verbs: hear, listen to, notice, see, watch and feel to describe an incomplete action, that is to say that somebody saw, heard, etc only a part of an action, e.g. I listened to James singing a song. (I listened to part of the song. I didn’t listen to the whole song.)

In a sentence a gerund can function as:
- a subject, e.g. Repeating the rules over and over doesn’t make them more accessible.
- part of a predicate, e.g. He intends doing it in the evening.
- an object, e.g. I hate packing. He delayed breaking the news to Uncle Jim. prepositional object, e.g., John felt annoyed at being interrupted by his roommates.
- an attribute, e.g., Fancy the pleasant prospect of listening to all the gossip they have in store for you!
- an adverbial of manner, e.g., He couldn’t push against the furniture without bringing the whole lot down.
Practice: Match columns A and B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy</td>
<td>waiting in queues. It really annoys me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward</td>
<td>to buy anything. I’m broke.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You need</td>
<td>to do tonight?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I finished</td>
<td>doing tonight?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My dad promised</td>
<td>to see you again soon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hope</td>
<td>to seeing you again soon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna chose</td>
<td>do the washing up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you feel like</td>
<td>to wear her black suede (замша) skirt for the party.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can’t afford</td>
<td>cooking. I find it very creative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can’t stand</td>
<td>painting the bathroom last night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beth helped me</td>
<td>to buy me a stereo if I passed my exams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would you like</td>
<td>to book if you want to eat at Guido’s.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correct mistakes in the following sentences where necessary

1. They denied to steal the money.
2. I seem to have lost my passport.
3. I avoid to travel in the rush-hour if I can.
4. Have you considered to work abroad?
5. We expect him arriving yesterday.
6. We agreed to meet outside the cinema.
7. I’ve arranged collecting Kate from school at 4 o’clock.
8. Karen decided not to go to the party. She was too tired.
9. I can’t help to love him, even though he is selfish and inconsiderable.
10. I offered give David a lift but he said he’ rather walk.
11. I can’t get used to seeing my daughter driving a car.
12. He admitted attempting to smuggle diamonds into the country.
13. I suggest to go to a restaurant tonight.

Rewrite the following sentences so that they have a similar meaning

1. I couldn’t go to the party last night. (allowed)
2. I was surprised to see Ben at the party. (expect)
3. We’re having dinner at the Green’s on Saturday. (invited)
4. I should have a hair-cut. (need)
5. I can’t wait to see you in June. (looking forward)
6. What shall I have for dessert? (can’t decide)
7. The teacher said we could go home early. (let)
8. But she said we had to do extra homework. (made)
9. Can you wait for a minute? (mind)
10. I’d prefer to have tea. (rather)
11. Let’s wait before we make a decision. (suggest)
12. ‘I’ll lend you some money,’ she said to me. (offered)
13. ‘Please, don’t make a noise,’ he said to me. (asked)
14. ‘I’m sorry I woke you up,’ I said to my neighbor. (apologized)
3. Participles combine properties of the verb and adjective and adverb. There are “present participles”, e.g. *crying, talking* etc. and “past participles”, e.g. *broken, gone, opened, started* etc. These are not very suitable names: both forms can be used to talk about the past, present or future.

E.g. *She was crying when I saw her; It was broken in the storm; You’re fired.*

Present and past participles can be put together to make progressive and perfect forms, e.g. *being employed; having arrived; having been invited.*

Participles are used with the auxiliary verbs “be” and “have” to make progressive, perfect and passive verb forms.

E.g. *It was raining when I got home; I’ve forgotten your name; You’ll be told as soon as possible.*

Participles can be used like adjectives, e.g. *I love the noise of falling rain; The house looked abandoned.*

Sometimes participles are used like adverbs, e.g. *She ran screaming out of the room.*

The past participles are used to say how people feel. The present participles describe the people or things that cause the feelings.

Compare: *Boring teachers make bored students; She’s an interesting writer, and I’m very interested in the subjects that she writes about.*

Participles can also be used:
- instead of relative pronoun and notional verb, e.g. *The woman waving at me is my aunt* (the woman who is waving); *The new shampoo advertised on TV is very expensive* (the new shampoo which is advertised);
- to express reason, e.g. *Feeling shy, Laura didn’t talk to Ben* (Because she was shy); *Having seen the film before, I decided to stay home.*
- to express time, e.g. *We met John while shopping; Having taken his Master’s degree, he applied for a job.*
- Instead of the past simple in narratives when we describe actions happening immediately one after the other, e.g. *Hearing the news, she fainted.*
- to avoid repeating the past continuous in the same sentence, e.g. *He was walking down the street whistling the tune.*

**Practice:** Complete the gaps with “-ed” or “-ing”

A shock ___ story; a reserv ___ seat; a scream ___ children; a satisfi ___ customer; a disgust ___ meal; a confus ___ explanation; a cake load ___ with calories; a house in an expose ___ position; a conceit ___ person; a fright ___ film; an exhaust ___ walk; disappoint ___ exam results; a bor ___ exercise; a tir ___ journey; an unexpect ___ surprise; disturb ___ news; a thrill ___ story; a relax ___ holiday; a block ___ nose; a disappoint ___ customer; well-behav ___ children; a promis ___ start.
Lecture 13

ADVERB AND ITS POSITION IN THE SENTENCE

1. The definition of adverbials
2. Types of adverbials

1. B. Ilyish says that an adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a part of the sentence expressed by a verb, a verbal noun, an adjective, or an adverb, and serving to characterize an action or a property as to its quality or intensity or to indicate the way an action is done, the time, the place, the cause, the purpose or the condition with which the action or the manifestation of the quality is connected.

Adverbials differ from other parts of the sentence in their combinability and semantics. They belong to the syntactical structure with limited set of words-of notion.

2. Different kinds of adverbs go in different positions in a clause. There are three normal positions for adverbs: initial position (at the beginning of a clause); mid-position (with the verb); end position (at the end of a clause). We don’t usually put adverbs between a verb and its object.

Many adverbs can go in three of the positions, and some others can go in both mid- and end position. Longer adverb phrases cannot usually go in mid-position, e.g. *He quickly got dressed – He got dressed quickly; He got dressed in a hurry*.

There are three types of adverbials: qualitative, quantitative; circumstantial (of time, frequency; place, direction; cause; purpose; condition; concession (in spite of, despite); focusing; certainty).

**Practice:** Write as many adverbs as you remember now, classify them according to the categories mentioned above.

Connecting adverbs, i.e. that join a clause to what comes before, e.g. *however, then, next, besides, anyway* are used at the beginning of a clause. Mid-position is often possible in a more formal style.

Indefinite frequency adverbs, e.g. *always, ever, usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, never* usually go in mid-position (after auxiliary verbs and am/ is/ are/ was/ were; before other verbs), e.g. *My boss is often bad-tempered; It sometimes gets very windy here*. When there are two auxiliary verbs, these adverbs usually come after the first.

Focusing adverbs, i.e. those that point to one part of a clause, e.g. *also, just, even, only, mainly, mostly, either, or, neither, nor* are usually used in mid-position. They can also go in other places in a clause, directly before the words they modify, e.g. *Your bicycle just needs some oil – that’s all; We are only going for two days.*
Adverbs of certainty, e.g. certainly, definitely, clearly, obviously, probably are in mid-position, e.g. *There is clearly something wrong*. Maybe and perhaps usually come at the beginning of a sentence.

Adverbs of completeness, e.g. completely, practically, almost, nearly, quite, rather, partly, sort of, kind of more or less, hardly, scarcely are in mid-position, e.g. *It hardly matters*.

Adverbs of manner (comment adverbs), e.g. angrily, happily, fast, slowly, suddenly, well, badly, nicely, noisily, quietly, hard, softly are most often used at the end of a clause, especially if the adverb is important to the meaning of the verb and cannot be left out. Adverbs in “-ly” can go in mid-position if the adverb is not the main focus of the message, e.g. *She angrily tore up the letter*. Mid-position is usually common with passive verbs.

Adverbs of place, e.g. upstairs, around, here, to bed, in London, out of the window are used at the end of a clause. Adverbs of direction (movement) come before adverbs of position, e.g. *The children are running around upstairs*.

Adverbs of time and definite frequency, e.g. today, afterwards, in June, last year, finally, before, eventually, already, soon, still, last, daily, weekly, every year are mostly in end position; initial position is also common if the adverb is not the main focus of the message. Adverbs of indefinite frequency e.g. often, ever go in mid-position.

Emphasizing adverbs, e.g. very, extremely, terribly, just, almost, really, right go just before the words they modify, e.g. *She walked right past me*.

Adverbs in end position usually come in the order manner, place, time, e.g. *She sang beautifully in the town hall last night*.

**Practice:** Put the adverb in the correct place in the sentence

1. The film was good. *(quite)*
2. I phoned the police. *(immediately)*
3. I got up late this morning, but I managed to catch the bus. *(just, fortunately)*
4. ‘Hi, Pete. How are you?’ ‘My name is John, but don’t worry.’ *(actually)*
5. In the middle of the picnic it began to rain. *(suddenly)*
6. I saw Mary at the party. I didn’t see anyone else. *(only)*
7. I gave a present to John, not to anyone else. *(only)*
8. Jane and I have been friends. We went to school. We were born in the same hospital. *(even, together, always)*
9. ‘You know I applied for that job.’ ‘Which job?’ ‘The one based in Paris.’ ‘No. I don’t know anything about it.’ ‘I didn’t get it.’ *(anyway)*
10. ‘I didn’t like it.’ ‘I didn’t like it.’ *(either)*
11. ‘I like it.’ ‘I like it.’ *(too)*

These sentences don’t make sense without the adverbs:

1. Everybody in our family loves ice-cream, me. *(really, especially)*
2. The traffic to the airport was bad that we missed the plane. *(nearly, so)*
3. I’m tall to be a policeman, but I haven’t got qualifications. *(enough, enough)*
Translate the following sentences:
1. Я десь зустрічала його.
2. Я майже не розуміла його.
3. Ви багато працюєте над англійською?
4. Sekretarka вже прийшла?
5. Він досить розумний, щоб зрозуміти це.
6. Хто ще буде приймати участь в цій роботі?
7. Це оповідання досить важке для нього; крім того, воно й не дуже цікаве.
8. Він дуже повільно розмовляє.
9. Він заходив до мене в суботу і я його не бачила з того часу.
10. Я тепер часто заходитиму до вас.

Lecture 15 – 16

COMPOSITE SENTENCES: GENERAL OUTLINE

1. Syntectical processes
2. The clause in the sentence
3. Types of subordinate clauses
4. The compound sentence
5. The compound – complex sentence
6. The complex – compound sentence

1. All sentences may be divided into elementary and full sentences. Elementary sentence is a sentence which besides the principal parts, includes only obligatory notional parts. The unexpanded simple sentence formed only by obligatory notional parts is called a monopredicative sentence.

E.g. It’s spring.

The expanded simple sentence is defined as a monopredicative sentence which includes, besides the obligatory parts, also some optional parts.

E.g. The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the gusty wind. It will often be found in modern English, as in other languages, that some element of a sentence apparently necessary to its meaning is not actually there and its function is taken up by some other element of a sentence.

E.g. I could not find him, though I wanted to.

The particle “to” may be said to represent the infinitive and the noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action. This way of suggesting the meaning of words not actually used may be termed “representation”.

In the example: He works more than you do, things are somewhat different. It is quite obvious that the verb “do” in such cases may replace any verb except the auxiliaries “be/ have” etc. and the modal verbs “can/ may” etc. The verb “do” in this function need not necessarily be in the same tense, or mood, as the verb which it replaces. This may be termed “substitution”.
By “elliptical sentences” we mean sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. We will apply this term to any sentence of this kind, no matter what part of it have been left out.

E.g. – *I thought he might have said something to you about it.* – *Not a word.*

When a sentence is presented as derived from two or more simple sentences, we term this process “compression”.

E.g. *He came + I saw him = I saw him come.*

If a sentence is complicated by some parts of speech, for example predicate, we term this process “complication”, They drive --> They can (must) drive.

The process of including some parenthetical words in the sentence is called “inclusion”. E.g. Really, the bird is singing!

2. The composite sentence, as different from the simple sentence, is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative construction, it expresses a complicated act of thought, i.e. an act of mental activity which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another. The complex sentence is built up on the principle of subordination. It’s divided from 2 or more base clauses one of which performs the role of matrix in relation to the others, the insert clauses.

When joined into one complex sentence, the matrix base sentence becomes the principal clause of it and the insert sentence, its subordinate clause. The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically. The functional character of the subordinative connector is so explicit that even in traditional grammatical descriptions of complex sentences this connector was approached as a transformer of an independent sentence into a subordinate clause, e.g.

Moyra left the room --> I do remember quite well that

- The party was spoilt because
- It was surprise to us all that

The structural features of the principal clause differ with various types of subordinate clauses. Various types of subordinate clauses specifically affect the principal clause from the point of view of the degree of its completeness. The principal clause dominates the subordinate clause positionally, but it doesn’t mean that it must express the central informative part of the communication. The information perspective in the simple sentence doesn’t repeat the divisions of its constituents into primary and secondary, e.g. The boy was friendly with me because I allowed him to keep the fishing line.

Complex sentences which have two or more subordinate clauses discriminate two basic types of subordination arrangement:

1) parallel and
2) consecutive.

Subordinate clauses immediately referring to one and the same principal clause are said to be subordinated “in parallel”. Parallel subordination may be both homogeneous and heterogeneous, e.g. *When he agrees to hear me, and when we*
have spoken the matter over, I’ll tell you the result. In the example the two clauses of time are embedded on the principle of parallel subordination and are homogeneous – they depend on the same element (the principal clause as a whole). When parallel subordination is heterogeneous, co-subordinate clauses mostly refer to different elements in the principal clause, e.g. *The boy, who I saw, asked me to buy a newspaper that was very interesting.*

Consecutive subordination presents a hierarchy of clausal levels. In this hierarchy one subordinate clause is commonly subordinated to another, making up an uninterrupted gradation, e.g. *I’ve explained why she said she couldn’t call on us at the time I had suggested.*

3. Of the problem discussed in linguistic literature in connection with the complex sentence, the central one concerns the principles of classification of subordinate clauses. Namely the two different bases of classification are considered as competitive in this domain, i.e. functional and categorial.

According to functional principle, subordinate clauses are to be classed on the analogy of the positional parts of the simple sentence that underlines the essential structure of the complex sentence. This is the clause which performs within a complex sentence the same function that the subject performs within a simple sentence, e.g. Why she left him is a mystery. *Subject clauses* are usually introduced by *if, that, who, which, what etc.*

The *predicative clause* performs the function of the nominal part of the predicate, i.e. the part adjoining the link-verb, which is mostly expressed by the pure link verb *be*, sometimes *seem, look*; the use of other specifying links is occasional, e.g. The trouble is that I don’t know Fanny personally. Any predicative clause can be introduced by conjunctions *that, whether, as if, as though.*

The *object clause* denotes an object situation of the process expressed by the verbal constituent of the principal clause, e.g. I heard that he had arrived. Object clause can be also introduced by a sentence *It is necessary/ possible/ desirable etc.*

A subordinate clause is said to be *attributive* if its function is analogous to that of an attribute in a simple sentence, e.g. By October Isabelle was settled in the house where, she intended, she would live until she died. Attributive clauses can be restrictive or descriptive.

The descriptive ones don’t single out a thing, but contain some additional information about the thing or things denoted by the head word, e.g. Magnus, who was writing an article for Nick’s newspaper, looked up and said, “That’s an interesting little essay, isn’t it?”

The restrictive ones refer to the quality in question as a mere mark of identification, e.g. The place where we could make a fire was a lucky one.

To attributive clauses belongs a vast set of appositive clauses. The appositive clause doesn’t simply give some sort of qualification to its antecedent, but defines or elucidates its very meaning in the context, e.g. We saw him at the moment he was opening the door of his Cadillac.
Clauses of adverbial positions constitute a vast domain of syntax which falls into many subdivisions each distinguishing its own field of specifications, complications and difficulties of analysis.

The first group includes clauses of time and clauses of place. They are expressed by such conjunctions as while, as, since, before, after, until, as soon as, now that, from where, to where etc.

The second group includes clauses of manner and comparison. They are introduced by as if, as though, as, as ... as, than etc.

The 3rd and most numerous group of adverbial clauses includes “classical” clauses of different circumstantial semantics, i.e. condition, cause, reason, result, purpose clauses. They are introduced by several conjunctions such as because, unless, so that, in order that, that, despite, though etc. E.g. He opened the window wide that he might hear the conversation below (purpose).

Parenthetical clauses are joined to the principal clause on a looser basis than the other clauses. The elimination of the parenthesis may change the meaning of the whole sentence from problematic to assertive, e.g. Jack has called here twice this morning, if I’m not mistaken.

If a subordinate clause extends the meaning of the principal sentence (one of the word) this clause is called extential subordinate clause, e.g. She is so pretty that everyone loves her.

According to categorical approach subordinate clauses can be:

1) substantive nominal that describe event as a certain fact. E.g. That he had come late didn’t surprise anyone.
2) qualitative nominal when some character is added. E.g., The man who came in the morning left a message.
3) express adverbial characteristic of time, place, etc. E.g., Describe the picture as you see it.

Practice: Change these sentences to incorporate the expressions in parentheses
1. Despite her dislike for coffee, she drank it to keep herself warm. (although)
2. Mary will take a plane, even though she dislikes flying. (in spite of)
3. In spite of Marcy’s sadness at losing the contest, she managed to smile. (although)
4. We took many pictures though the sky was cloudy. (despite)
5. Despite her poor memory, the old woman told interesting stories to the children. (even though)
6. Though he has been absent frequently, he has managed to pass the test. (in spite of)
7. Nancy told me the secret, despite having promised not to do so. (though)
8. We plan to buy a ticket for the drawing although we know we will not win a prize. (even though)
9. In spite of the high prices, my daughters insist on going to the movies every Saturday. (even though)
10. He ate the chocolate cake even though he is on a diet. (in spite of)
Leave out a relative pronoun where possible

1. Where are the scissors that I bought yesterday?
2. I want you to meet the woman who taught me how to drive.
3. The meal that you cooked was delicious.
4. I like animals that don’t make a mess.
5. The film that I’ve always wanted to see is on TV tonight.
6. The flat that they bought was very expensive.
7. The room in our house that is most used is our kitchen.
8. I didn’t like the meal that we had yesterday.
9. The people who work here are very interesting.
10. The man who you were talking about has just come in the room.

4. The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination, e.g. Jane adored that actor, but Hockins couldn’t stand the sight of him. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically (by means of coordinative connectors) or asyndetically. The coordinating connectors are divided into conjunctions proper and semi-functional clausal connectors of adverbial character.

The main coordinating conjunctions, both simple and discontinuous, are and, but, or, nor, for, either... or, etc. The main adverbial coordinators are then, yet, so, thus, nevertheless, however etc. E.g. Mrs. Dyre stepped into the room, however the host took no notice of it.

The compound sentence is derived from two or more sentences. The base sentence joined into one compound sentence loses its independent status and becomes coordinate clause – part of a composite unity. The 1st clause is “leading”, the successive clauses are “sequential”. The sequential clause includes the connector in its composition that turns it into some kind of dependent clause, although the type of its dependence is not subordinative.

The length of the compound sentence in terms of the number of its clausal parts is unlimited. It is determined by the informative purpose of the speaker. The most common is a 2-clause construction.

Predicatively longer sentences are divided into “open” and “closed” constructions. In compound sentences of a closed type the final part is joined on an unequal basis with the previous ones, whereby a finalization of the expressed chain of ideas is achieved. Copulative and enumerative types of connection, if they are not varied in the final sequential clause, form “open” coordinations. These are used as descriptive and narrative means in a literary text.

5. It goes without saying that a sentence need not necessarily be either only compound or only complex. It may combine both types of clause connections within its structure.

The subordinate clauses may differ from one another in various ways, e.g. one subordinate clause may be attributive while another is adverbial and so forth. Of course, various groupings are possible: the sentence may be basically compound, with each of the coordinated clauses having one or more subordinate clauses (eventually of different degrees) attached to it or it may be essentially
complex, that is consisting of a main and several subordinate clauses, some of which may be homogeneous and coordinated with one another, so that coordination appears here on a lower level than subordination. The number of types is probably very great.

A composite compound - complex sentence contains two independent clauses and one dependent clause. E.g. Charlie could not hear his watch because it had stopped, and he was worried.

6. If a composite sentence has two or more subordinate clauses connected by coordination we have a complex – compound sentence, e.g. He told me, “I could see for myself”, he wasn’t very young and his health wasn’t very good.
He told -> I could see -> He wasn’t
-> His health
By coordination the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotently.

Practice: analyze the following sentences:
1. There was a song in every heart, and if the heart was young, the music was issued at the lips.
2. In the days of this story Mr. Hoopdriver was a poet though he had never written a line of verse.
3. My horses are young and when they get on the grass, they are as if they were mad.