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高级

(影印版)

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ADVANCED WRITTEN ENGLISH

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Robin Macpherson

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清华大学出版社 http://www.tup.com.cn

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Preface

The past decade has witnessed an unprecedented increase in the level of English among non-native speakers. Having mastered the language to a degree which allows for essentially unimpaired communication in both speech and writing, more and more learners are aiming to achieve a native-like competence. It is precisely these learners whose written English, advanced as it is, may still be marred by syntactical patterns that do not violate the grammatical rules in any obvious way and yet are alien to English idiom.

Advanced Written English focusses on sophisticated structures characteristic of English at a high idiomatic level, since their complex character and richness of nuance are a source of recurrent problems. Common as they are, these problems are still generally overlooked by grammar books and hence by the learner. It was my aim to draw the reader's attention to these problem areas, which I have presented with detailed, step-by-step explanations, accompanied by exercises and a key.

Like my previous work English for Writers and Translators, this publication is addressed to advanced users of English, and the two books are to a large extent complementary in character. However, it must be stressed that my presentation of the issues included in Advanced Written English does not in any way presuppose the reader's knowledge of material discussed elsewhere. Nor is the reader required to adhere to the order of presentation as has been offered: the respective sections can be used independently or combined in such a way as to answer individual needs, a feature which makes the book ideal both as a teaching aid and as reference material for self-study. It is particularly recommended to teachers, translators, writers and journalists, as well as students of philology, teacher-training colleges and those preparing for the CAE and Proficiency exams.

Gdańsk, 2001

Glossary of Concepts

In this book a number of terms appear that might be unfamiliar to the reader:

adverbial (also - expression, - link, sentence -)

An adverbial is a word or phrase which functions as an adverb (e.g. by contrast, fortunately, in fact, moreover, possibly, quite recently, therefore, undoubtedly), giving us extra information about an action, happening or state. An adverbial may introduce a sentence, but is not to be confused with a conjunction (e.g. although, because, while etc.).

antecedent

This is the word to which a pronoun (he, she, it, who, which etc.) refers, e.g.:

- 1. The party was a great success the guests really enjoyed it.
- 2. Anyone can join our club who is interested in poetry.

In 1 the expression *The party* is the **antecedent** of *it*; in 2 Anyone is the **antecedent** of who.

apposition

Generally an **apposition** denotes a noun or **noun phrase** placed beside another in order to describe it, while being unconnected to it by any preposition or **conjunction**, e.g.:

- 1. Joan, my wife's cousin, has just returned from America.
- 2. Jack is visiting Brighton, his hometown.

In 1 Joan is the grammatical subject of the sentence, while the phrase my wife's cousin is an apposition; the phrase is <u>in</u> apposition to Joan. In 2 Brighton is the object of the verb phrase is visiting, while his hometown is in apposition to Brighton.

attributive

An attributive adjective occurs before the noun to which it refers. Compare the following alternatives:

- a. This is a dangerous road.
- b. This road is dangerous.

In a dangerous is in attributive position, while in b it is in predicative position. Most adjectives can be both attributive and predicative.

auxiliary verb

An auxiliary verb is one like be, do, have or will which is used in combination with another verb to make verb phrases, and especially to form tenses, e.g.:

Do you want another biscuit?

Mary is visiting her friends.

John has gone to London.

Peter will miss the train.

cleft sentence

A cleft sentence is when special emphasis is given to one particular part of the sentence by means of *it* or *what*, e.g.:

- 1. "Who took the money?" "It was Peter that took the money."
- 2. What you need is a long holiday.

In 1 and 2 special emphasis is given to Peter and a long holiday respectively.

comment clause

The following sentences contain comment clauses (underlined):

- 1. John was a pilot, so he claims, in the Battle of Britain.
- 2. She was, as she admits, too lazy to take the job seriously.

The types of **comment clause** discussed in this book are virtual parentheses – in the above examples the commas could almost be replaced with brackets:

- 1a. John was a pilot (so he claims) in the Battle of Britain.
- 2a. She was (as she admits) too lazy to take the job seriously.

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complement

Complement in the broad sense means something that is necessary to complete a grammatical construction. Here, however, it is used in a restricted meaning to denote a noun or noun phrase that completes a predicate containing the verb to be:

- 1. Margaret is a librarian.
- 2. Peter was such a kindly man.

In 1 and 2 a librarian and such a kindly man are complements of Margaret and Peter respectively.

concord

Concord is the way a verb form changes according to whether the subject is singular or plural ("concord of number"), or first, second or third person ("concord of person"). Thus we say the boy <u>is</u> (singular) but the boys <u>are</u> (plural); we say I <u>am</u> (first person) but he <u>is</u> (third person) etc.

conjunction

A conjunction is a word like and, but, although, because, if, whereas etc. It can be used to link clauses together:

- a. I arrived early, but John appeared much later.
- b. I arrived early whereas John appeared much later.

(Cf. also adverbial and coordinate clause.)

coordinate clause

Compare the following sentences:

- a. I arrived at the party early, but John appeared much later.
- b. I arrived at the party early, whereas John appeared much later.

In a the two clauses are grammatically equal (i.e. **coordinate**). In b, however, the second clause is <u>subordinate</u> to the first: the second clause (*whereas John appeared much later*) cannot function as a grammatically self-contained sentence, while the first clause (*I arrived at the party early*) can.

coordination

Unlike coordinate clause, the term coordination in this book does not have any specialised grammatical significance. The sections which are listed un-

der the heading coordination bring together problems involving formal consistency and logicality in the construction of a given sentence.

'dangling participle'

A 'dangling participle' is a participle that, when referred to its grammatical subject, gives nonsense, e.g.:

*Not knowing the British mentality, many things might seem rather strange at first.

Here the participle not knowing has the grammatical subject many things, which makes the sentence nonsensical.

defining relative clause (also: restrictive relative clause)

This is a relative clause which defines or identifies the noun it refers to, e.g.:

Here's the lady who owns that black terrier.

(Not every lady owns a black terrier. Contrast non-defining relative clause.)

discourse marker

A discourse marker denotes a large group of words and phrases which indicate the relationship between what is being said and its context, and which often reveal the speaker's attitude to what he is saying (e.g. as a matter of fact, fortunately, frankly, obviously, possibly, on the other hand, strangely enough etc.).

ellipsis

Ellipsis is the leaving out of words when their meaning can be understood from the context. Compare the following alternatives:

- a. On one side the passengers could see the bay, and on the other they could see spectacular hills.
- b. On one side the passengers could see the bay, and on the other spectacular hills.

In **b** it is not necessary to insert the words *they could see* in the second part of the sentence.

Note:

Throughout the book asterisks (*) have been used to indicate usage which is unacceptable. Extreme examples of incorrectness have been marked with double asterisks (**).

fronting

Fronting is when a part of the clause is brought to the front in order to give it special emphasis, e.g.:

John loves Renaissance music. Baroque he absolutely hates.

gender bias

This expression denotes a tendency in grammar (not only English) to behave as if all human beings were of the male sex. Compare the following alternatives:

- a. All people can become members of our Society who wish to deepen their understanding of Britain's heritage.
- **b.** Anyone can become a member of our Society who wishes to deepen **his** understanding of Britain's heritage.

Sentence b means essentially the same as a, but the subject Anyone is singular. The possessive adjective his refers to Anyone, even though both sexes are clearly intended.

inversion

Inversion is when the verb comes before the subject, e.g.:

She is a smoker, as are most of her friends. (instead of: just as most of her friends are.)

In the underlined words the phrase most of her friends is the grammatical subject of the as-clause and governs the verb are.

main clause

Sentences often consist of a main clause and a subordinate clause, e.g.:

- 1. I'll do the job when I get there.
- 2. Although the driver was drunk, the police let him go.

In 1 the main clause is I'll do the job, and in 2 it is the police let him go; in both 1 and 2 these clauses could form self-contained sentences, being grammatically complete. By contrast the clauses when I get there and Although the driver was drunk could never on their own form grammatically complete sentences.

modifier

Cf. postmodifier

nominal phrase (cf. noun phrase)

nominalisation

Nominalisation means preferring nominal to verbal language in order to convey the message; more simply, it means using a noun to express something which could also be expressed by means of a verb. For example:

- a. Mr Jones is an employee of the Town Council.
- b. Mr Jones is employed by the Town Council.

Sentence a uses the **noun phrase** (or **nominal phrase**) an employee, while **b** uses language which is more verbal.

non-defining relative clause (also: non-restrictive relative clause)

This is a relative clause which does *not* define or identify the noun or noun phrase that it refers to (because we already know which person or thing is meant), e.g.:

Here is Pamela Jones, who owns that black terrier.

(Contrast defining relative clause.)

non-finite verb

A non-finite verb is one that cannot on its own serve as a predicate in a sentence, e.g. smoking, been etc. The term refers especially to infinitives, participles and gerunds. (A finite verb is one that can serve as a predicate in a sentence, e.g. smokes, is smoking, is expected, has been etc.)

noun phrase (also nominal phrase)

This is a group of words which together behave as a noun, e.g. the previous editions, my nephew's wife, the city of Rome etc.

parallel expression

Parallel expressions are words, phrases and clauses in a parallel relationship to each other, unlinked by any conjunction, but separated by a comma:

- *TV influences our feelings, emotions.
- *We must face these problems, try to understand them.

part of speech

A part of speech is a grammatical category of word, e.g. a verb, noun, adverb, adjective or conjunction.

participial postmodifier

This is when a word or phrase is modified by a participle or participal clause that comes after it, e.g.:

- 1. Some of the people accused were clearly innocent.
- 2. Various theories explaining this phenomenon have been advanced.

In 1 the participle accused modifies Some of the people. In 2 the participial clause explaining this phenomenon modifies Various theories. (Cf. also postmodifier and prepositional postmodifier.)

possessive adjective (also: possessive)

My, your, her, our, their etc. are possessive adjectives.

postmodifier

This is a word, phrase or clause that comes after the word or phrase which it modifies, e.g.:

- a. The house across the road is said to be haunted.
- b. Last night there was a nightingale singing in the garden.
- c. There are many reasons why foxhunting should be banned.

In a the prepositional phrase across the road modifies The house; hence it is also called a prepositional postmodifier. In b the participial phrase singing in the garden modifies a nightingale; hence it is also called a participial postmodifier. In c the clause why foxhunting should be banned modifies many reasons. (Cf. also participial postmodifier and prepositional postmodifier.)

predicate

The **predicate** is the part of a sentence which tells us about the subject. For example, in the sentence *Marjory has just arrived*, everything except *Marjory* is the **predicate**. (Cf. also **complement**, **non-finite verb**.)

predicative

A predicative adjective is one that is placed after the verb to be, to look, to seem etc., as in the following examples:

This road is <u>dangerous</u>. You look <u>tired</u>.

Cf. attributive.

prepositional postmodifier

This is when a word or phrase is modified by a prepositional phrase that comes after it, e.g.:

the man on the moon the house across the road

Here the prepositional phrases on the moon and across the road modify the man and the house respectively. (Cf. also postmodifier and participial postmodifier.)

proper adjective

European and American are examples of proper adjectives. A proper adjective is formed from a proper noun (e.g. Europe, America).

proper noun

This is a type of noun that designates a particular person, place or thing, e.g. Charles, Europe, Buckingham Palace. Typically it begins with a capital letter. (Cf. proper adjective.)

register

Register denotes a variety of language employed in a particular situation. For example, in private a politician or chairman of the board might talk about "tackling" specific problems, but in front of the television cameras he will express the intention of "addressing" those problems. *Addressing* is of a more formal or 'higher' register than *tackling*.

sentence adverbial (cf. adverbial)