

A Practical Comprehensive
English Grammar

李鹏飞◎主编

致用
英语

语
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教
程



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本书策划 宋天锡 李恒平 李鹏飞
孙怀庆 王 晶 胡土佑
高文艳 陈晓峰 曾庆佳

主 编 李鹏飞
副 主 编 曾庆佳
编 者 曾庆佳 薛 琴 徐晓惠 赖正英
李鹏飞 刘晓毅 张 嫔

Preface

The present grammar book entitled as *A Practical Comprehensive English Grammar* (For English Majors) is designated to meet the needs of the English majors in China at the undergraduate level. Starting from this point, the book has been prepared in the form of 19 lectures so that it can be covered in one academic term of 18 weeks usually. The whole book is composed of 19 lectures with all the contents to be arranged into the due lecture forms with the last lecture as supplement. Needless to say, it is unavoidable for us compilers to come up with inconveniences in making some lectures longer, others shorter, for what has to be taught or learned in different parts are not evenly distributed. For example, the lectures of the verbs are a bit bulky whereas articles and pronouns should not be too lengthy. However, we have tried our best to make things as neat and regular as possible to bring more convenience for the users. Given all considerations, the key-stressed lectures are concentrated on the most significant grammatical items for the English majors, such as the commonest sentence patterns in English and different forms of verbs and the essentials of prepositions and their collocations with nouns and verbs. For brevity and conciseness, the uses of some complicated matters, such as rules of the agreement between subject and verb are given in the form of table with necessary explanations and annotations.

The book is also intended to be made really comprehensive, in that it will, as far as possible, provide an answer to any fundamental grammar items the English majors are to cover. Brief accounts of the history of the English language and of the phonetics and intonation of English have been included, too, since these matters, though not strictly grammatical in nature—are bound to be of interest and importance to most English majors.

It is also meant to be a practical grammar, the one that is suitable both for in-class learning and for the self-taught learners at home. And, just for these purposes, the book has provided its users with a very full index of grammar terms and plenty of exercises. To be exact, we intend to keep a two-to-one ratio between *grammar rules illustration and practical exercises for the learners to go over.*

Although this grammar book has no intention to get at any particular examination or testing programs, it has still been borne in mind that *language knowledge and proficiency can be and, actually, are, gained in many ways through being tested.* Thus, we have prepared ample materials for the English language majors to cope with such examinations as TEM 4 and TEM 8 in an exercise form.

Li Pengfei

Oct. 10, 2010

前 言

本书是为普通院校和独立院校英语专业学生编写的语法教材，因此其全部内容，除必要的语法术语以英汉双语编排外，均用英语编写而成。

按照现行的教学计划，本书可在英语专业学生第二学期或第三学期开设的语法课上使用。《英语专业教学大纲》对英语专业学生的语法教学要求是：“能识别词类；区分名词的可数性和不可数性，可数名词的单、复数形式；基本掌握各种代词的形式与用法、基数词和序数词、常用介词和连词、形容词和副词的句法功能、比较级和最高级的构成及其基本句型、冠词的一般用法；了解动词的主要种类、时态、语态及不定式和分词的基本用法、句子种类、基本句型和基本构词法。掌握主谓一致关系、表语从句、宾语从句、定语从句和状语从句等句型、直接引语和间接引语的用法、动词不定式和分词的用法、各种时态、主动语态、被动语态和构词法。”其中对英语专业四级的要求是：除掌握上述内容外，还应该“熟练掌握主语从句、同位语从句、倒装句和各种条件句等”。

本书在内容上，覆盖了上述语法教学要求的方方面面，力求做到注意内容安排和讲解的系统性、科学性，力求突出重点，善执牛耳，重视实用，强调实践，体现实用性、系统性、专业性和表达的规范性。同时，为扩大英语专业学生的知识面，本书设有其他语法书较少涉及的有关英语语法与英语语音系统及其形成历史的综述，设有英语句子成分分析方法与英语 24 种基本句型列述及其应用实例。本书例句简洁到位，以现代内容为主，经典例句为辅。例句的具体来源主要有：①传统语法书中的经典例句，如：a. He walked slowly. (MANNER) b. The dog jumped through the window. (PLACE) c. They arrived on Christmas Day. (TIME) d. My train was late because of the fog. (REASON) e. My work is nearly finished. (DEGREE) f. He is saving up to buy a car. (PURPOSE) ②典型语法项目的典型例句，如：a. By the time he was a teenager, Uncle Melrose had become unmanageable. b. He worked like a madman (MANNER) in the garden (PLACE) on Saturday (TIME). ③谚语和格言，如：a. One man's meat is another's poison. b. A stitch in time saves nine. ④体现时代特色的例句，如：a. He thought I wasn't that good an actress. b. Scientists have developed a slimming drug that successfully suppresses appetite and results in a dramatic loss of weight without any apparent ill effects. High-Tech turns study time into multitasking extravaganza. ⑤从英语专业学生的精读课本中选择的典型例句。如从黄源深主编的《综合英语系列教

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Lecture 1 General Introduction on English Grammar and Grammar Learning

Highlights of the Lecture

- Section 1 Two Different Approaches to Grammar Rules
- Section 2 Two Parts of English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax
- Section 3 The Central Topic of Morphology 1: Word-formation Rules
- Section 4 The Central Topic of Morphology 2: The Parts of Speech
- Section 5 Introduction to the General Structure of English Sentences
- Section 6 Discourse: Text Interpretations beyond Sentence Level

Key Terms of the Lecture in Bilingual Form

morphology	词法, 形态学	word-formation rules	构词法规则
syntax	句法	parts of speech	词类
descriptive approach	描写性取向	prescriptive approach	规定性取向
contextual structure	上下文结构	free morpheme	自由词素
bound morpheme	黏着词素	sentence element	句子成分
simple sentence	简单句	compound sentence	并列句
complex sentence	复合句	compound complex sentence	并列复合句
invention or coining	发明法, 造词	blending	混成词
clipping	剪短词	borrowing or loan words	借词
abbreviation	缩成词	acronym	首字母拼写词
discourse	语篇	conjunction	连接词
text interpretations beyond sentence level	超句子水平的文本释义		



Hints to Study the Lecture by Quoting the Linguist

Jespersen, like Boas, thought grammar should be studied by examining living speech rather than by analyzing written documents, but he wanted to ascertain what principles are common to the grammars of all languages, both at the present time (the so-called synchronic approach) and throughout history (the diachronic approach). Descriptive linguists developed precise and rigorous methods to describe the formal structural units in the spoken aspect of any language. The approach to grammar that developed with this view is known as structural. A structural grammar should describe what the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure referred to by the French word *langue*—denoting the system underlying a particular language—that is, what members of a speech community speak and hear that will pass as acceptable grammar to other speakers and hearers of that language. Actual speech forms (referred to by the structuralists by the French word “*parole*”) represent instances of *langue* but, in themselves, are not what a grammar should describe. The structuralist approach to grammar conceives of a particular language such as French, Swahili, Chinese, or Arabic as a system of elements at various levels—sound, word, sentence, meaning—that interrelate. A structuralist grammar therefore describes what relationships underlie all instances of speech in a particular language; a descriptive grammar describes the elements of transcribed (recorded, spoken) speech.

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Section 1 Two Different Approaches to Grammar Rules

1.1.1 Prescriptive approach to linguistic phenomena, or grammar rules

Most of the earlier grammarians, particularly those of the eighteenth century when the English language was being “systematized”, held the view that one of their functions, perhaps their main function, was to keep the language “pure”, to stamp out errors that were constantly creeping in and to formulate rules that would keep the language on the course they believed it ought to take. Grammarians in those days, needless to say, not everyone, believe, that what they should do is to lay down rules, like medical doctors take down prescriptions for a patient if he/she wants to get recovery from his/her disease. Actually, it has become entirely impossible for them to stick to what they wanted, even if they believe they were firm rules. The bare fact is that, with the great changes taking place since then, in the whole of modern English there are really only two major inflections and four or five minor ones remaining active, for modern English

language has changed from being a synthetic to an analytic one in which inflection has been practically entirely replaced by two other phenomena: (1) structural words (like from, in, shall, may, ought, etc.), and (2) word order.

1. 1. 2 Descriptive approach to linguistic phenomena, or grammar rules

The grammarians of today no longer believe that they should attempt the impossible task of “controlling” the language and directing the course that they think it ought to take; they realize that English is a living language, constantly changing and developing in accordance not with man’s laws but with its own genius. Nor do they think that the function of a grammar book is to lay down laws to teach people how they ought to speak and write. Their task is simply to state how, so far as they can judge, certain people do speak and write at the present time. The grammar of a language is the scientific record of the actual phenomena of that language, spoken and written. So, in the present volume we have tried to present the facts of modern English usage so far as we could ascertain them; any rules, that we have given are merely conclusions drawn from the facts. If at any time a rule does not coincide with the usage, it is the rule that is wrong, and it will be the job of future grammarians to pursue and change it.

Section 2 Two Parts of English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax

1. 2. 1 Morphology and what it concerned with

Morphology is the first half of English grammar, which deals with the internal structure, forms and classes of words.

As is known, language is a system consisting of a long system from its minimum structure to its normal contextual structure in the form of sentences and passages. The smallest constituent part is phoneme in sound or morpheme in written form, which is rendered into Chinese as *yinsu* and *cisu*. All the words are formed from such phonemes or morphemes. From such morphemes come the syllables of the words and then phrases and then sentences, that is, **morpheme**→**word**→**phrase**→**clause**→**sentence**. What morphology deals with is the study of the word-formation rules, the changes or conjugations of some words, like nouns and pronouns, as well as parts of speech of the words.

1. 2. 2 Syntax

Syntax, on the other hand, is the second half of the grammar, which is engaged in the study of the sentence structure of language. That is to say, it studies the basic components of a sentence, or the sentence elements; the kinds of sentences, both from their functions is the use of the language, the interrogative sentence, the declarative sentence and the exclamation; the kinds of sentences from the point of view of their structure, that is, the simple sentences, the compound and the complex sentence.

Section 3 The Central Topic of Morphology 1: Word-formation Rules

1.3.1 Types of morphemes—free morpheme and bound morpheme

There are two kinds of morphemes in English: free morpheme and bound morpheme. Free morphemes are also independent, like *the sun*, *the moon*, *the heaven* and *the earth*, or *the car* and *the house*. Most of them are of the native English origin. The group of free morphemes also includes words like *if*, *when*, *on*, *above*, *it*, *the* and *that*.

Bound morphemes cannot stand alone as independent *unit* like the free morphemes. They can be the roots of words, like *cogn* (*gn*), *duct* (*duc*), *forc* (*fort*), but they can form independent words only by adding some suffixes or prefixes, such as *re-cogn-ize*, *pro-duce*, *con-duct*, *force*, *fort-ify*. Thus, it can be seen that prefixes like *pre-*, *pro-*, *re-*, and suffixes like *-or*, *-er*, *ist*, *-ism*, *-fy*, *-ize* are surely members of such morphemes, too.

1.3.2 Basic English word-formation rules

Generally speaking, there are the following eight ways in English to form new words:

1. Invention or coining, such as *Kala OK*, *God*→*Lord*→*Savior*→*Omnipotent*→*Providence*→*Jehovah*→*to the Creator*;

2. Conversion: *a bag*→*to bag*; *a bottle*→*to bottle*; *to subject*→*subject*;

3. Compounding: *dry clean*→*to dry-clean*; *highlight*→*to highlight*; *vacuum clean*→*vacuum-clean*; *machine handle*→*machine-handle*; design with the help of computer→computer-aided design

4. Derivation: *young*→*youngest*; *senior*→*seniority*; *household*→*householder*; *computer*→*computation*

5. Blending: Blending is the new way of word-formation, which is done by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of another word, such as *gasohol* from gasoline + alcohol; *motel* is from motorist hotel; *satphone* comes from satellite telephone; *sitcom* from satellite communication.

6. Abbreviation and acronym: *ATM* (automatic teller machine); *CPU* (central processing unit); *GDP* (Gross Domestic Product); Acronym is very similar to Initialism, but they are different in that in abbreviation, every letter is pronounced separately whereas in acronym, all the letters are put together and read as a single word, e. g. *the UNESCO*, which is read as [ju: 'neskəu]; *TOEFL* (Test of English as a Foreign Language).

7. Clipping: Clipping occurs when a word is made of more than two or three syllables and therefore better to reduce to a shorter form, often in casual speech. e. g.

airplane→*plane*; *gasoline*→*gas*; *omnibus*→*bus*; *refrigerator*→*fridge*; *marvellous*→*marvy*; *bicycle*→*bike*; *advertisement*→*ad*.

8. Borrowing and Loan: English is an open language, which borrowed and has been

borrowing lots of words from other languages, such as French, Italian, Spanish, and Chinese. e. g. *atom*, *electricity*, *epiphany*, etc. are from Greek; *cancer*, *tumor*, *injection*, etc. from Latin; *entail*, *extraordinaire*, *millionaire*, *garage*, *genre* from French; *taji*, *kowtow*, *tea*, *kung-fu*, *litchi* from Chinese.

Section 4 The Central Topic of Morphology 2: The Parts of Speech

1.4.1 The concept of the Parts of Speech

The words that compose the English language or any other language can be classified in various ways. Much time and effort have been spent in trying to settle what names should be given to these categories. It seems to us that there is little point in making arguments as to the ways of defining the Parts of Speech. And it is also almost impossible to give a definition which is more exact and comprehensive than any other ways, however, it was not so simple centuries ago as it seems today. In addition, the learners, particularly, the English majors, at least, most of them, have already quite familiar with the conception of “Noun”, “Verb”, etc. or, at least, such notions, as those of nouns or verbs are almost certainly familiar to them in their own language. However, as language majors, they should be given some linguistic sense of the origin or what their forefather grammarians thought about the various Parts of Speech. And should see, as they will see in the following pages, exactly how these words behave. We have therefore adhered, in the main, to the traditional and the most familiar definitions. giving anything but the most general, in the first place because it is or with which every grammarian would agree; secondly, because it is hardly necessary, since the conception of “noun”, “verb”, etc. , will almost certainly be familiar to the student in his own language. It seems to us what is more important is that the student should be given examples of the various parts of speech. We have therefore adhered, in the main, to the traditional, most familiar definitions. Under this system all the words in the English language can be grouped, according to the work they do, into eight classes. These are the Parts of Speech.

1.4.2 Parts of Speech classified by the traditional approach

1. Nouns

Nouns are the names of things or people or places, e. g. *house*, *hat*, *iron*, *Mary*, *Russia*, *London*, *sweetness*, *speech*, *crowd*, *army*. Thus, we say words that do this kind of jobs are called NOUNS.

2. Pronouns

In the way, it can be said, words that can be used instead of nouns are pronouns. Pronouns are usually used to replace the people or things without really naming them or being compelled to repeat the nouns they refer to too frequently, e. g.

- A number of pavilions in the Expo Garden (2010, Shanghai) are making plans to invite

their soccer stars to the Expo following the World Cup finals.

Here, “*their*” is used to replace the noun at the beginning of the sentence “a number of pavilions in the Expo Garden”.

• “When *I* moved to Maui to marry the Captain of *my* heart, one of the marriage requirements was that *I* learned to scuba dive—as that was *his* first love. If *I* was to fit in, this ocean of *his* and *I* were just going to have to get along! Luckily for *me*—and *us*—*I* already had an ongoing love affair with the sea both for *its* beauty and *its* creatures, so I embraced this opportunity to dive and explore the world below the surface.”

In the above sentence, *I*, *me*, *us*, *he*, *his*, *its*, *this* are all used to replace the corresponding nouns, such as the *Captain of my heart*, *the sea*, *I myself*, etc. This is what pronouns are asked to do.

3. Adjectives

Words that modify a noun by making its meaning clearer, fuller, or more exact are known as adjectives. e. g.

a bad egg, *a blue dress*, *a new book*. Words of *this kind* are called Adjectives.

There are a number of words of various types that are sometimes grouped as adjectives, words, for example, like a (n), the, some, each, no, much. However, more strictly speaking, these words should belong to the section of Determiners. (See later in lecture 3)

4. Verbs

Verbs in most cases can be taken as action words. However, many verbs do not mean any actions. They are just used to affirm what a person or thing is, does or suffers something.

• “There *are* a great many people who *have* all the material conditions of happiness, i. e. health and a sufficient income, and who, *nevertheless*, *are* profoundly unhappy. In such cases it would *seem* as if the fault must *lie with* a wrong theory as to how to live. In one sense, we may *say* that any theory as to how to *live* is wrong. We *imagine* ourselves more different from the animals than we *are*. Animals *live* on impulse, and *are* happy as long as external conditions *are* favorable. If you *have* a cat it will *enjoy* life if it *has* food and warmth and opportunities for an occasional night on the tiles. Your needs are more complex than those of your cat, but they still *have* their basis in instinct.” (Bertrand Russell)

There are 18 verbs in this paragraph. The verbs taking the meaning of actions are only eight (i. e. *say*, *imagine*, *live*, *enjoy*, *have*), the rest ten (*are*, *seem*, *lie with*) are not action verbs, but rather link verbs or verbs used to indicate a physical or psychological state.

Another example is taken from Lin Yutang.

Action	Quality
• He studies hard.	• He works hard.
• He looks handsome.	• He fears me.
• He laughs.	• He is diligent.
• He is hard-working.	• He is nice-looking.
• He is afraid of me.	• He is very happy.

Thus, more comprehensively speaking, verbs can be defined as processes of action, affection and relation.

5. Adverb

Adverbs are words that we can modify a verb to make its meaning clearer, fuller or more exact.

e. g. Some women, in their forties and fifties, *still* remembered *painfully* giving up those dreams, but most of the younger women *no longer even* thought about them.

In the above sentence, *still*, *painfully*, *no longer*, and *even* are all used to make the meanings of the verbs they are modifying more clearly, definitely, stronger or more impressively.

6. Prepositions

Prepositions are words that are usually placed before a noun or a pronoun, (with a few exceptions, such as *below*, *above*) to show the relationship between the noun or pronoun and another word, often expressing abstract relationship of case or of time or place.

• Scientists are very interested in the relationship between exercise and academic performance and recent studies done at the University of Central Florida and by the State of California suggest that there is a connection between exercise and better grades.

In the above example, all the prepositions are put before nouns or pronouns.

• Can you put me through to Miss Jones? —Yes, Sir. You're through now.

Notice that *through*, and *to* in the sentence is not the collocation of prepositions but parts of the phrasal verbs, or the "compound verb", "verb-adverb combination", "verb-particle construction (VPC)", or as the American English says, "two-part word/verb" and "three-part word/verb" (depending on the number of particles), and multi-word verb (MWV).

The above usage with prepositions reminds us of attaching more attention to their study and remember the fact that English is a language of prepositions whereas Chinese is a language of verbs.

7. Conjunctions

Words that are used to join words, phrases or sentences are called conjunctions.

• Young *and* old; the progressive *and* the conservative; a young professor with his beautiful wife

8. Interjections

Words that are used to express a sudden feeling or emotion.

e. g. "O CAPTAIN! my Captain! our fearful trip is done;
The ship has weather'd every rack, the prize we sought is won;
The port is near, the bells I hear, the people all exulting,
While follow eyes the steady keel, the vessel grim and daring:
But O heart! heart! heart!
O the bleeding drops of red,
Where on the deck my Captain lies,
Fallen cold and dead. "

In this part of Whitman's poem in commemoration of President Abraham Lincoln, the