Review

Theme: The attribute clauses in Modern English

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Introduction

Independent Uzbekistan has become powerful day by day and is striving for its financial and political strength. During the 23 years of independence in Uzbekistan an enormous number of successful reformations have been carried out by our government under the leadership of the president Islam Abdug'anievich Karimov.

"Independence has open for us vast horizons, gave us an unique chance to build our future with our own hands, to decide our destiny, arrange our life and our common home so that it met our national interests and values, universal, established democratic norms. And this is our possession that we should prize and cherish".

Although this is a short period of time for our country to develop, our motherland has been able to overcome many difficulties and began to prosper again in many fields of life. Today Uzbekistan is a world-known and peaceful country that can be compared with other developed country. People of Republic of Uzbekistan associate the name and activity of I. A. Karimov with:

- Finding and establishing of State Independence;
- Building of a democratic legal State and civil society;
- Protection of human rights and freedoms, ensuring of people's legitimate interests;
- Successful implementation of market reforms, formation of multi structure economy;
- Carrying out realization of strong social policy; assistance to low- income groups of the population;
- Cultural and educational development spiritual renovation of the of the society;
- Carrying out the peace-orientated foreign policy, a growth of international prestige of Uzbekistan;

- Enforce a national security
- Stability, civic peace and mutual understanding between nationalities in state.

<u>Continuous</u> Education in Uzbekistan is making an important step in improving the standards of teaching, learning foreign languages in all educational institutions from schools to universities. A lot of foreign delegations come to our country and our businessmen, tourists go abroad to enter into an agreement. People of different countries and nations have to get along well with the progress in world trade and technology as well as with each other. That is why it is very important to learn English. "Knowledge is power" one of the great men said. Speaking a foreign language one can not only read the papers, magazines and original books by outstanding writers, but as well watch satellite TV programs, travel easily in the different parts of the world. Besides, understanding and speaking a foreign language or two became necessary while applying for a good and well-paid job. Every well-educated person should speak English, because it is the language of communication,   business,   science   and   culture. English is now the most important and widespread language in the world.

Nowadays, a lot of people study foreign languages in every possible way. English is worth studying. There is a proverb "A new language — a new world" Our President paid too much attention young generation and also to develop science, technology, sport, to learn foreign languages. " A State with great future, first of all, must care of culture, education and spirituality" said our President in the book of Independent Uzbekistan . And also our ancestor Yusuf Hos Khojib gave his a great opinion on education " Majesty is there where there is education".

During past 10 years the priority was given to learning Russian but after decree of our President the attitude to English Language Teaching and learning changed completely.

On December 10, 2012 President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system". According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year.   The National TV radio Company, State Committee for communications, informatisation and telecommunication technologies, Agency for Press and Information of the Republic of Uzbekistan are tasked to prepare and broadcast language-learning programs, significantly increase access to international educational resources "Ziyonet" educational network, promote publication of foreign language textbooks, magazines and other materials.

"We have to add wings to our talented and devoted children to reach the peaks of knowledge and profession". "It is our sacred duty to find talented and clever youth and to foster them as patriots of the Motherland"- said I. A. Karimov.

I. TYPES OF ATTRIBUTIVE CLAUSES

1.1. Descriptive and restrictive clauses

A subordinate clause is said to be attributive if its function in the complex sentence is analogous to that of an attribute in a simple sentence. It differs from an attribute in so far as it characterises the thing denoted by its head word through some other action or situation in which that thing is involved. This could not, in many cases at least, be achieved within the limits of a simple sentence. Compare, for example, the sentence By October Isabelle was settled in the house where, she intended, she would live until she died. (R. WEST) The clause where ... she would live with the dependent clause until she died contains information which could not be compressed into an attributive phrase within a simple sentence. It is common knowledge that attributive clauses can be defining (or restrictive, or limiting) and

non-defining (or non-restrictive, or descriptive). The non-defining ones do not 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 Meiklejohns newspaper, looked up and said, "That's an interesting little essay, isn't it?" (LINKLATER) Non-defining attributive clauses pose the question of boundary line between subordination and co-ordination, which in this case becomes somewhat blurred. This is especially evident in the so-called continuative clauses, which are used to carry the narrative a step further, namely in sentences like the following: But in the morning he went to see Meiklejohn, whose enthusiasm on hearing the news was very comforting. (LINKLATER) We shall have the governess in a day or two, which will be a great satisfaction. (BAIN, quoted by Poutsma) Sentences of this kind may be taken as specimens of subordination weakened and a subordinate clause passing on to something like a co-ordinate position in the sentence. We shall see other varieties of this development in our next chapter. The question about the place of an attributive clause deserves a few remarks. Most usually, of course, an attributive clause comes immediately after its head word. This is too common to need illustration. But that is by no means an absolute rule. Sometimes an attributive clause will come, not immediately after its head word, but after some other word or phrase, not containing a noun. This is the case, for instance, in the following sentence: He wanted Ann to die, whom his son passionately loved, whom he had himself once come near to loving. (SNOW) The intervening infinitive to die, coming between the attributive clauses and their head word Ann, does not in any way impede the connection between them. A different kind of separation is found in the following sentence: Jeremy saw the scene breaking upon him that he had dreaded all day and he felt no energy to withstand it. (A. WILSON) The subordinate clause that he had dreaded all day has the noun scene as its head word. Now this noun forms part of the complex object the scene breaking upon him. No ambiguity is created by the separation, as the subordinate clause cannot possibly refer to the pronoun him, and there is no noun between scene and the subordinate clause. That the word that is the relative pronoun and not the conjunction, is seen from the fact

that dreaded, being a transitive verb, has no object coming after it; that the phrase all day is not an object is obvious because if the thing denoted by it were thought of as the object of the action the phrase must have been all the day.

Attributive clauses fall into two types, depending on the degree of connection and the relation they bear to the antecedent:

attributive limiting (restrictive) clauses **and** *attributive descriptive (non-restrictive) clauses.*

A t t r i b u t i v e   l i m i t i n g   c l a u s e s are very closely connected with the antecedent and cannot be removed from the sentence, because the information contained in the attributive clause singles out, determines, or particularizes the person, thing, idea, etc., expressed by the antecedent. Therefore the meaning of the main clause is not complete or is altogether changed without the subordinate clause. The lack of completeness is manifested by some **deictic elements** (determinants) before the antecedent (mainly articles, demonstrative pronouns, or words with a demonstrative or particularizing meaning, such as *the same, the only, the best).*

The presence of such elements is justified only if the attributive clause is following. For example:

A library is **a place** *where they keep books.*
She had become aware of **the fact** *that she was talking loudly.*

In these sentences the main part taken separately is not clear because of the article which has a classifying (the first sentence) or a demonstrative force (the second sentence) and therefore requires some explanation in the form of an attributive clause or some context to make explicit what kind of place the library was, what fact was meant.

In some cases the dropping of the attributive clause does not make the main

clause incomplete, but its meaning becomes altogether different from the meaning it has in the complex sentence. For example, compare the sentences:

a) Aren't you the young man *who married Fleur Forsyte?* (that particular man, Fleur Forsyte's husband)

b) Aren't you the young man? (that particular man known to the speaker and the listener, with no further

   information for the reader)

Limiting clauses may be joined by a connective with a preposition. These are analogous to prepositional attributes.

This is the man *about whom we spoke yesterday.*

She inclined more and more to that peace and quietness *of which Montague Dartie had deprived her in*

her youth.

Attributive clauses may be joined to the main clause without a relative word, that is, **asyndetically.** They are called *contact clauses.*

Types of connection between an attribute and its headword

From the point of view of their connection with the headword and other parts of the sentence, attributes may be divided into **nondetached (close)** and **detached (loose)** ones.

Non-detached attributes

Non-detached attributes form one sense group with their headword and are not separated from it by commas.

They generally adjoin the headword, either premodifying, postmodifying, or embedding it, and are connected with other parts of the sentence only through the headword.

Non-detached premodifying attributes may be unextended, consisting of one word only, or form chains of homogeneous attributes with identical reference, as in: *a nice girl, a pretty house; crimson, white,* and *yellow flowers.*

Attributes with identical reference *(crimson flowers, white flowers, and yellow flowers - crimson, white, and yellow flowers)* are usually interchangeable *(yellow, white, and crimson flowers)* and are set off by commas *(crimson, white, yellow flowers)* or joined by a conjunction as they are in the example given above.

Attributes may form a string with different reference, that is, those of them which are closer to the noun form one whole with subsequent words:

her usual (good temper);
a clever (young man) (compare with *crimson, white, yellow flowers);*
a large black and white (hunting dog).

In the word-group *a large black and white hunting dog* the adjective *large* refers to *black and white hunting dog, black and white,* refers to *hunting dog,* and *hunting* refers to *dog.* This relation of attributes embedded inside a string of them requires a fixed order and no comma is used to separate them. The phrase *an old lady's hat* allows of two possible interpretations: *(An old lady)'s hat* and *an old (lady's hat).*

If there are relations other than attributive within the string of premodifying words, the whole string functions as one attribute. In this case they are usually hyphenated, as in:

most deeply-felt emotions; too-new shoes, a word-for-word translation, a brass-coffee-pot-like thing (a
thing looking like a brass coffee-pot);

a dirty-collar, unbrushed-coat man (a man with a dirty collar and in an unbrushed coat).

One of the characteristic features of English, especially in academic and newspaper style is a marked tendency to form long strings of phrasal attributes (usually called *compositional phrases),* which express in a compressed form the content of a clause or sentence and which can be easily turned into one, if necessary form words are added (prepositions, link verbs, etc.) and the morphological changes are introduced, as in:

Fish-breeding plants. (Plants that breed fish.)

Efficient salt-producing mines. (Mines that produce salt efficiently.)

The uranium-supply industry. (Industry that supplies uranium to...)

The last decade's scarcity of hands in the country. (In the last decade hands were scarce in the country.)

The long-looked-for hours. (The hours which were looked for long.)

Detached attributes

A detached attribute is only loosely connected with its headword and is often optional from the point of view of structure, although very important semantically. It forms a separate sense group in speech and is accordingly separated by commas in writing.

A detached attribute may be placed in preposition, post-position, or often at some distance from the headword.

Carrie looked about her, *very much disturbed and quite sure* that she did not want to work here.

Unlike non-detached attributes, a detached attribute may modify personal and relative pronouns.

Big and strong, he impressed us greatly.

Very often a detached attribute refers not only to the headword, but also to another part of the sentence, thus forming a double connection. For example, a detached attribute referring both to the subject of the sentence and to the predicate may have in addition to its attributive meaning some adverbial shade of meaning, such as conditional, causal, or concessive.

And for a moment I hesitated, *unable to start talking* (**as** I was unable to start talking).

Familiar with these details, Michael paid them little attention (**because** he was familiar with these

details).

The problem of classification of attributive clauses is a complicated one, and this classification we must begin by pointing the term "attributive clause". So, attributive clauses define a noun, or a pronoun, in the principal clause: She is a person, whom he trusted wholly. In this sentence the attributive clause "… whom he trusted wholly" defines the object of the principal clause "a person". **The attributive clauses itself are divided into two subtypes: relative and appositive ones. And the relative attributive clauses in their turn are divided**

into   restrictive   and   non-restrictive   clauses.

Attributive clauses function as modifiers to a word of nominal character, which is generally called *the antecedent.* Usually an attributive clause immediately follows its antecedent, although some types may occasionally be distant.

A n   a t t r i b u t i v e   d e s c r i p t i v e   c l a u s e is characterized by a looser connection with the main clause. Usually it contains additional information about the antecedent and may be left out without any serious change in the meaning of the main clause. Attributive descriptive clauses are generally command off. They are joined by the same connectives as limiting clauses, except the relative pronoun *that,* and a syndetic connection hardly ever occurs.

The additional descriptive character of the attributive clause is determined by the fact that the antecedent denotes a definite person, place, thing, notion, etc. It is either specified by a limiting attribute, or is expressed by a proper name, or else denotes a unique notion (or one specified by the situation).

At this age, *which I judged to be near fifty,* he looked extremely young.

I returned to London, *where I remained for a week.*

I consulted my father, *who promised to help me.*

She was thinking how little the opening of this war - *which had started that morning at five-eleven with*

the German army's marching into Poland - was like the opening of the last.

The supplementary status of the attributive clauses can be illustrated by the following transformation of the first sentence given above.

At this age *(**and** I judged him to be neat-fifty)* he looked extremely young.

In formal English relative pronouns and adverbs introducing descriptive clauses may also occur in prepositional phrases opening the subordinate clause, for example: *according to which, instead of which, in spite of which, on which, of*

which, to whom, since when, etc.; also within nominal phrases of the type: *the largest part of which, each of which, many examples of which, during which time, which fact,* etc. The relative pronoun approaches in its function the anaphoric demonstrative pronoun *this,* and the clause can be paraphrased by a coordinate or parenthetical clause. For example:

Then a breakfast was given in his honor, *on which occasion many speeches were pronounced* (and on

this occasion many speeches were pronounced).

The medicine was overdosed, *which fact caused the immediate death of the patient* (and this fact caused

the immediate death of the patient).

NOTE:

Compounds of *where* and a preposition, such as *whereby, wherefore, whereto,* etc., are now confined to extremely formal English only and are replaced in less formal style by *for which, by which, to which,* etc.

1.1 **Restrictive attributive clauses** serve to specify precisely which noun is being referred to. For restrictive attributive clauses, the relative pronoun "that" is used, never "which" (at least in American English); when the antecedent noun is a person, the relative pronoun "who" is used.

Here are examples of attributive clauses:

(1) Restrictive attributive clause: "She liked the laptop *that she saw in the computer shop last night.*" Here, "that she saw in the computer shop last night" is the restrictive attributive clause and it modifies the noun "laptop."

(2) Restrictive attributive clause (for a person as antecedent noun): "The writing

contest winner was the young girl *who wrote about a thin, beardless Santa Claus*." Here, "who wrote about a thin, beardless Santa Claus" is the restrictive attributive clause and it modifies the noun "girl."

Nonrestrictive attributive clauses provide more information about the antecedent noun, but it's presumed that the specific noun being referred to is already known by the reader either by context or logic. For nonrestrictive attributive clauses, the relative pronoun "which" (never "that") preceded by a comma is used; when the antecedent noun is a person, the relative pronoun "who" is used. A nonrestrictive attributive clause is optional to the sentence; the sentence will remain grammatically and structurally sound without it.

Here are examples of nonrestrictive attributive clauses:

(1) Nonrestrictive attributive clause: "Many people from the provinces flock to Manila, *which is the capital of the Philippines*." Here, "which is the capital of the Philippines" is the nonrestrictive attributive clause, modifying the antecedent noun "Manila."

(2) Nonrestrictive attributive clause (for a person as antecedent noun): "Let us all congratulate Mr. Roberto Cruz, *who as we all know has topped the medical licensure exam*." Here, "who as we all know has topped the medical licensure exam" is the nonrestrictive attributive clause, modifying the antecedent noun "Mr. Roberto Cruz."

1.2 Contact clauses

C o n t a c t   c l a u s e s are always limiting, for both the main and the subordinate

clause complete each other. Thus in the sentence *The hum I had heard was the combined result of their whispered repetitions* the clause *I had heard* makes no sense unless the antecedent *hum* in the main clause makes the meaning of the predicate *had heard* (and thus the clause itself) complete, though formally the word *hum* cannot be considered as the direct object of the predicate. Some more examples of the same kind:

He was a man *one always forgot.*
I know where she kept that packet *she had.*
I used to learn by heart the things *they'd written.*
This is the kind of job *I'd like.*

As can be seen from the above examples, contact clauses are possible only in cases where the antecedent is semantically acceptable in the position of a direct object, prepositional object, or of a predicative in the subordinate clause.

He was a man *one always forgot* - One always forgot such a man.
I used to learn by heart the things *they'd written* – They'd written things.

Sentences in which the main and the subordinate clauses have a common part which functions as the subject in the subordinate clause are used nowadays only in dialects and in fiction to give the narration local colour. These are called *apokoinu sentences:*

Perhaps it was **his scars** *suggested it* (his scars suggested it).
John's was **the last name** *would have occurred to me* (the last name would have occurred to me).
The next morning there was **a boy** *came to see me* (a boy came to see me).

1.2 Sentential attributive clause

An attributive descriptive clause referring to a whole clause, sentence, series of sentences, or even a whole story is called *a continuative or sentential attributive clause.* It is generally introduced by the connective *which,* occasionally by *that.*

When the attributive continuative clause refers to a sentence, it may be separated by a semicolon, a dash, or even by a full stop.

She lived in two rooms over a teashop, *which was convenient,* since she could send down for cakes and

scones if she had visitors. (...Что было удобно... поскольку...).

Several times he caught her looking at him with a hurt, puzzled expression, *which pleased his evil mood*

On the other hand, an *attributive clause* is an entire clause that adds more information about a noun; in other words, the clause serves as a modifier of that noun. An attributive clause can either be restrictive or nonrestrictive.

1.3 The position of attributes

The position of an attribute depends on the following:

1. The morphological nature of the attribute. Adjectives, participles, gerunds, nouns in the common and the possessive cases, pronouns, ordinal numerals, and quotation nouns generally premodify the headword.

He was a *little man,* with a *thin voice.*
Val had just changed out of *riding clothes* and was on his way to the party.

The *apple trees* were in blossom.

It's not always easy to understand a *child's language.*

The *third attempt* gave no result.

His eyes travelled over the landscape at *their feet.*

Adverbs, statives, cardinal numerals and infinitives are generally postmodifying attributes.

Participles II, statives, and adjectives of verbal origin used as attributes also tend to occupy the position after the headword.

The *people involved* were reported to the police.

When we build cities we think about *generations unborn.*

Adjectives ending in *-able, -ible* are mostly postpositive as attributes. They often follow a headword preceded by *only* or a similar word with a limiting meaning.

The only *person **visible*** was the policeman (who could be seen).

The only way of *escaping **imaginable*** was through the window (which could be imagined).

2. T h e e x t e n s i o n o f t h e a t t r i b u t e . Non-detached attributes are postmodifying when expressed by extended phrases or complexes.

The influence of extension can be illustrated by the following pairs of examples:

It is a *sensible suggestion.*

He found himself in a *difficult situation.*

It is a *suggestion sensible in many ways.*

He found himself in a *situation difficult from his point of view.*

Here are some more examples:

They passed the bodies of British *soldiers killed that night.*

It was a little log *house with whitewashed walls.*

He held a letter in his hands, a *letter from his mother.*

He appeared to be a small *man of about fifty.*

They chose a *way longer than the other.*

3. The morphological nature of the headword. Such words as demonstrative or indefinite pronouns and numerals cannot have an attribute in preposition.

Those *coming first* occupied the best seats.

Most of their time animals spend in search of **something** *eatable.*

There is **nothing** *interesting* in this book.

All *present* were disgusted by his behaviour.

II   The Usages of Attributive Clause in English

As is known to all, attributive clause plays an important role in the entrance examination. Therefore, we must pay special attention to it. In this paper, its importance and usages will be introduced in detail. Considering its essential part in the entrance examination, students who will take part in it must know how to use it correctly. Take the part of composition for example ,if the students are able to make several sentences with the structure of attributive clause ,they will be surely given a good mark. Now, in this paper, there are mainly five points that will be discussed. First, its definition ;second, the usages of relative pronouns and relative adverbs; third, the different usages between that and which; fourth, some fixed phrases.

Generally speaking, attributive clause is a sentence that is used to modify a noun or a pronoun, called antecedents in attributive clause, and this noun or pronoun will take up a certain place in the attributive clause, such as a subject, an object, time of an adverb, place of an adverb or reason of an adv. How to choose between relative pronouns and relative adverbs is the key to solving the problems in the entrance examination. So, how many relative pronouns are there? and how many relative adverbs are there? In all, there are six relative pronouns, and three relative advs.

2.1 The usages of relative pronouns

As is mentioned above, there are mainly six relative pronouns, which are who, whom, which, that, whose and as. The five words before as will be focused on in this part. When it refers to a person, who or whom will be considered. Using who, students will definitely know that this person will act as a subject in the attributive clause.

For example, Sentence1:

Women who drink more than two cups of coffee a day have a greater chance ofhaving heart disease than those who do not.

Sentence2:*I,*

who am a friend of yours, will do all I can to help you.

Sentence3:*The girl who everybody*

*had thought would win a gold medal failed at last.*Sentence4:*You are the only*

person who can help him.

Sentence5: *In the past few years, "My heart will go on "was a popular*

song among young people, who were often heard singing it at parties.

Using whom, they must know that it takes the place of an object in it. Here are some examples.

Sentence1:*We should not spend our money testing so many people, most of whom are healthy.*

Sentence2: *John ,for whom money was now no problem, started a new company with his friends.*

 Sentence3:*The audience, most of whom were students, enjoyed the performance.*

Sentence4: *The artist to whom the judge gave a prize is the teacher; by whom I have been taught painting for two years.*

Sentence5: *I was so eager to leave that when I stood in the hall, ready to leave, I did not even think of saying good-bye to the friends with whom I had eaten and slept for so many weeks.*

Instead, when it refers to something, which and that will be used, they can be used as a subject, an object and so on. Besides, the two relative pronouns can be cancelled when they are used as an object. There are some examples that can illustrate it.

Sentence1:*The film which(that)is on today is very interesting.*

Sentence2:*Here is the thing that(which)I am looking for.*

Sentence3:*We are discussing the problem which(that)you talked about yesterday.*

Sentence4:*Books that were written by Lu xun can be bought in this bookstore.*

An attributive clause may also be introduced by connectives - **relative pronouns** *(who, whose, whom, what, which, that, as),* or relative adverbs *(when, where, whence, wherein).* The choice of relative word depends on the categorical meaning of the antecedent.

a) If the antecedent denotes a living being, the relative pronoun *who, whom, whose,* or *that* is used.

A man *whose voice seemed familiar to me* gave commands.

Those of Big Lanny's friends *who saw him for the first time* had to be told that he couldn't see.

b) If the antecedent denotes a thing or notion, the relative word *which, whose,* or *that* is used; of these *that* is less formal.

At this **remark,** *to which he did not reply,* Gerald's ears grew hot.

He went to the next **house,** *which stood in a small garden.*

Clyde bowed and then took the cool **hand** *that Myra extended to him.*

> **Note:**
>
> *Which* may be used with reference to animals, although they are living beings.
>
> He called back his **dog,** *which returned obediently to its master.*

c) If the antecedent is expressed by *all* denoting a living being the pronoun *who* or *that* is used; if it denotes a thing or notion only the pronoun *that* is generally used.

All *that remained* was to enter his name and send off the high entrance fees for the examination.

d) If the antecedent is expressed by *everything, something, anything* or *nothing* the relative pronoun *that* is generally used, or else the clause is joined asyndetically.

There was **nothing** in his face *that spoke of his character.*
Everything *that you may want* is in the wardrobe.
There was **something** in his low, languid voice *that was absolutely fascinating.*

e) If the antecedent is modified by the adjective *only,* the pronoun *any,* or by an adjective in the superlative degree, the attributive clause is introduced by the pronoun *that* or is joined asyndetically.

The **only** object *that gave her satisfaction during those days* was the white monkey.
This is the **best** chance *that we have.*
She could jump at **any** opportunity *that she might have.*

f) If the antecedent is modified by the demonstrative pronoun *such,* the relative pronoun *as* is used.

She was playing the piano with **such** feeling *as couldn't he expected from a girl of her age.*

g) After the antecedent modified by *same,* several relative expressions may be used:

the same children as..., the same person who..., the same island that...,
the same time when..., the same place where..., etc.

h) Attributive clauses joined by the relative adverbs *when, where, whence, whereon* (rather obsolete) refer to antecedents designating spatial or temporal notions.

It is the **hour** *when we sleep.*
He turned to that huge **globe** *whereon were marked all discoveries of the moment concerning the origin*
of modern Man...

i) The relative adverb *why* refers to antecedents denoting cause or reason.

They see no **reason** *why they should not do so.*

Note:

As the word-forms coincide, care should be taken not to confuse relative pronouns and adverbs with conjunctive pronouns and adverbs, which are used to

introduce nominal clauses. The difference between the two functions lies in that the relative words always refer to an antecedent, whereas in the case of conjunctive words there is no such reference. Compare the following three sentences:

That is the place *where we always meet.* (a relative adverb)

That is *where we always meet.* (a conjunctive adverb)

I know *where you always meet.* (a conjunctive adverb)

2.1 The usages of relative adverbs

There are three relative adverbs, which are why, when and where.

First*, when the antecedent is about reason, and it acts as an adverb in the attributive clause, we will* use "why". For example,sentence1:*we do not know the reason why you didn't go to school.*

Sentence2: *why was professor white unhappy these days?*

Sorry, I don't know the reason why he was not happy.

Second, when the antecedent is about time, and it plays the role of an adverb," when" will be used. For example, sentence one:*Do you still remember the day when you joined the army?* In this sentence, *the day* is an antecedent, and it acts as an adverb in the attributive clause. So, when is chosen. Sentence two: *Occasions are quite rare when I have the time to spend a day with my kids.* In it, *Occasions* are about time, acting as an adv. Therefore, choosing when is correct. Sentence three: *We will put*

off the meeting until next week, when we won't so busy. Next week is an antecedent in this sentence, which acts as an adverb of time. So, when is chosen.

 Sentence four:

I will never forget those years when I lived in the country with the farmers.

As is analyzed above, when is used correctly.

Sentence five: *when did you meet him?It was on the day when his house was on fire that I met him.* The day is the antecedent, playing the role of an adverb of time, therefore, when is adopted.

Sentence six:

Major will make an inspection of our school on Monday, when you can tell him how hard the situation we are in.

Third, when the antecedent is about place, playing the role of an adverb of place, we will consider adopting where.

For example, Sentence one: *Great changes have taken place in the town where I was born.* The antecedent is the town, taking the place of an adverb of place , therefore, where is chosen.

Sentence two: *Some pre-school children go to a day care center, where they learn some simple games and songs.* The antecedent is a day care center, playing as an adverb of place, and where is used.

Sentence three: *I can think of many cases where students obviously knew a lot of English words and expressions but couldn't write a good essay.* The antecedent is cases.

Sentence four: *We will be shown around the city schools, museums and some other places, where other visitors seldom go.* Sentence six: *He has got himself into a dangerous situation where he is likely to lose control over the plane.* The antecedent is a dangerous situation,

where is chosen because situation is taking the place of an adverb of place.

The differences usages between that and which

There are mainly five cases in which that can be used only.

First, when the antecedent is an indefinite pronoun, such as, all, everything, anything, nothing, something, little, much, only that can be used.

For example, sentence one: *Only a scientist could understand all that this pursuit meant.* Sentence two: *I am sure she has something that you can borrow.*

Sentence three: *Everything that we saw was of great interest to us*. Sentence four: *There is little that I can use.* Sentence five: *I have read all the books that you gave me.*

Sentence six: *All that glitters is not gold*. Sentence seven: *Is there anything that I can do for you?*

Second, when the antecedent is modified by the only, the very, the just, that can be used only. For example, sentence one: *That white flower is the only one that I really like.* Sentence two: *This is the very book that I want to find.*

Sentence three: *The last place that we visited was the chemical workshop.*

For example, sentence one: *This is the first composition that he has written in English.*

Sentence two: *The smallest living things that can be seen under a microscope are bacteria.*

Sentence three: *This is the best novel that I have ever read.*

Sentence one:

He talked about the teachers and schools that he had visited. Sentence two:

They talked about persons and things that they remembered in the school.

Sentence one: *Who is the person that is standing at the gate*?

Sentence two: *Which of us that knows something about physics does not know this*?

There are mainly two cases where which is used.

Sentence one: *He was late for school,*

which made the teacher very angry

.Sentence two:

The sun gives off light and heat, which makes it possible for plants to grow.

Second, in the attributive clause, Sentence one:

I never forget the day on which I joined the party. Sentence two:

This is the factory in which my father used to work.

 Some fixed phrases of as

For example, the same…as, such…as. Sentence one: *This is the same thing as we are in need of. As is reported in the newspapers, As is known to all .As is mentioned above, .As I explained on the phone,* Generally speaking, four important points of attributive clause are illustrated in detail. As a reader, you can find sufficient information about attributive clause. Its especial importance taken into consideration, we English lovers, should definitely know how to master it well. As the proverb says, practice makes perfect. Therefore, only by practicing more and studying hard can we make greater progress than before. All in all, expecting that you can get what you want, I will be appreciated.

2.2   <u>Ways of expressing attributes</u>

An attribute may be expressed by different parts of speech:

1. By (a) adjectives or (b) adjectival phrases, which characterize the person or non-person qualitatively or express the speaker's attitude.

a) The sand glittered like *fine white* sugar in the sun.

I've never seen a *better* place.
There is nothing *unusual* about the letter.

Some composite adjectives may be derived from other parts of speech by means of the participle-forming suffix *-ed,* as in:

It was a *low-ceilinged L-shaped* room.
They sat on the *pine-needled* sand.

Some adjectives have developed from former participles II, as in;

Martin lived with his *widowed* mother.

He looked for his *long-lost* friend everywhere.

b) In any case it gave no clue to the thought *then uppermost* in Hercule Poirot's mind.

He stood and raged within himself with sour despair, *unable to move or say a word.*

2. By p r o n o u n s or p r o n o m i n a l p h r a s e s , which help to identify or define persons or non-persons.

The woman by *no* change of face showed that *his* words meant anything to her.

Here's *some* money for you.

Can you see *those* children *of mine* anywhere?

3. By n u m e r a l s , o r d i n a l or c a r d i n a l , which state the number or order, or serve to identify persons or non-persons, as in:

He arrived just *three* weeks ago.

Robert has always been the *first* boy in his class.

Is it part *two* of the book?

4. By (a) n o u n s i n t h e c o m m o n c a s e s i n g u l a r o r (b) p r e p o s i t i o n a l n o m i n a l p h r a s e s , which characterize the person or non-person either qualitatively or from the point of view of its locative, temporal, or other features.

The nouns are always premodifying attributes, the prepositional nominal phrases are post modifying:

a) It happened on a *December* evening (декабрьский вечер).

The boy started to eat a *ham* roll (булочка с ветчиной).

The *garden* wall was almost ruined (садовая стена).

There was a *honeymoon* couple among the passengers (пара, проводящая медовый месяц).

b) The new secretary, *on promotion from the general office,* was a widow of fifty.

He was a man *of very regular habits.*

Anything *of interest* this morning, Miss Lemon?

In some cases the attribute and its headword form a closely connected unit, such as *the continent of Europe* (Европейский континент), *the name of Brighton Kurby* (имя Брайтон Кёрби)*, the village of Crowie* (деревня Кроул). Although the prepositional group is a subordinate and characterizing element, modifying the first word, its informative value is much greater than that of the first element.

In structures of this type the semantic roles of the elements may be reversed: the first (subordinating) element becomes a modifying word, the second (subordinated) - the modified one, as in:

His carrot of a nose (нос морковкой; не нос, а морковка),

an angel of a girl (не девушка, а ангел),

a hell of a noise (адский шум, шум как в аду),

a jewel of a nature (золотой характер; не характер, а золото).

Though logically *his carrot of a nose* means that the nose is characterized as resembling a carrot, syntactically it is the word *carrot* that is modified by the of-phrase *of a nose,* the indefinite article performing its usual classifying function. The modified word is not always semantically acceptable as part of the sentence without

the *of*-phrase, which shows the semantic dependence of the modified element on the modifying one. This, together with the fact that logical and syntactic relations are reversed, accounts for the marked stylistic effect of these structures.

His left hand was holding *a skyscraper of a silver cup.*

High above the bank is another *eagle's nest of a castle.*

Russian phrases of a similar kind - *не девка, а огонь; не ребенок, а сущий дьяволенок,* unlike the parallel English phrases, are rarely included in extended sentences.

Note:

Phrases like *sort of tired (I feel sort of tired), kind of tiresome (The situation becomes kind of tiresome),* etc., form one syntactic whole and cannot be treated as free syntactic phrases consisting of a headword modified by a prepositional attribute. The first element expresses approximation - a moderate degree of the quality denoted.

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5. By nouns or pronouns in the genitive case.

He caught the sound of the *children's* voices.

The *ocean's* vastness was so great that it held him spellbound.

Nelson had asked *Mary's father's* consent before proposing.

If the headword is omitted (when the sentence is elliptical) the modifying word should still be considered as an attribute.

Suppose those postcards are a *lunatic's?*

She heard the voice of another man, perhaps it was the *water-carrier's* and then *a woman's,* shrill and

hysterical.

6. By statives, although these are rarely used as attributes. They usually postmodify the headword, though may occur as premodifying.

No man *alive* would ever think of such cruelty.
She gazed at us with an *aloof* air.

7. By (a) participles I and II and (b) participial phrases, characterizing the person or non-person through an action, process, or reaction.

a) He made his way down the *creaking* stairs.
The mild day died in a *darkening* flush of twilight.
They stood contemplating the *suited* dummies in the *lighted* windows of the shop.
They stood at the car *being refuelled* and watched the meter.

b) Captain Nichols dragged Strickland, *bleeding from a wound in his arm,* into the street.
There was a tiny smile *playing about the corners of his mouth.*
Vincent glanced over at Christine *knitting by the fire.*
Beside her stood a straw basket *stuffed with many towels* and a pair of beach shoes.

8. By (a) gerunds, (b) gerundial phrases, or (c) gerundial complexes. Gerunds generally characterize non-persons from the point of view of their function or purpose.

a) Back at the hotel he slipped on a white *rowing* blazer (the blazer which the members of the boat-club

wore).

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

(Compare these with attributes expressed by participle I, in the sentences given above (7), which denote an action, process or reaction sometimes figuratively.)

b) He would not run the risk *of being too late.*
She showed no sign *of having ever known me.*
The young man had the most irritating habit *of joking at the wrong moment.*

c) The silence was interrupted by the sound *of a door being banged.*
There is no chance *of our seeing him again.*

9. By (a) infinitives, (b) infinitival phrases, or (c) complexes, which characterize a person or non-person through some real or hypothetical action in which this person or non-person is or may be involved. Owing to the hypothetical nature of the action, an infinitive as attribute often imparts a modal shade of meaning to the action.

a) You are the one *to blame* (who **is** to blame).
I haven't any time *to spare* (which I **could** spare).

b) He looked around for a weapon *to strike his insulter with.*
He was not a man *to experiment with acquaintance.*
There was nothing in the look of him *to show the courage of the man* (nothing which could show
courage).
He was the last *to tell of this extraordinary raid from the deeper sea* (who could tell).

c) This is a problem *for you to solve. (which you could/must solve).*

10. By (a) adverbs or (b) adverbial phrases, which characterize a person or non-person through spatial or temporal characteristics, or through circumstances or facts concerning this person or non-person.

a) No sounds came from the quarters *above.*
The *then* Government did not respond to this just claim.
Somebody appeared on the *upstairs* balcony.
"I see that woman *downstairs* has a couple of sailors sitting there."
An immense effort of imagination was needed to link himself *now* with himself *then.*

The most usual position of such attributes is to follow the headword.

b) Most people living in *out of the way* places expect the latest news from home with impatience.

11. By sentences used as a whole (the so-called "quotation nouns"). These are used mainly as hyphenated chains before the headword.

She looked at me with a kind of *don't-touch-me-or-I'll-slap-you* air.
It was a '*You-must-take-us-as-you-find-its'* attitude to things, and it saved me a lot of trouble... In this '*a-place-for-everything-and-everything-in-its-place'* kitchen he felt ill at ease.

12. By a clause (then called an attributive clause) which makes the whole sentence a complex one.

Some called me by the name *which no one here knew*.

Conclusion

In the conclusion of my work, I would like to say some words according the done investigation. The main research was written in the main part of my course paper.

As is known to all, attributive clause plays an important role in the entrance examination. Therefore, we must pay special attention to it. In this paper, its importance and usages have been introduced in details. Considering its essential part in the entrance examination, students who will take part in it must know how to use it correctly. Take the part of composition for example, if the students are able to make several sentences with the structure of attributive clause ,they will be surely given a good mark. Now, in this paper, there are mainly many points that have been illuminated.

First, its definition ;second, the types of attributive clauses, position of attributes, usages of relative pronouns and relative

adverbs; ways of expressing of them, third, the different usages between that and which; fourth, some fixed phrases.

Generally speaking, attributive clause is a sentence that is used to modify a noun or a pronoun, called antecedents in attributive clause, and this noun or pronoun will take up a certain place in the attributive clause, such as a subject, an object, time of an adverb, place of an adverb or reason of an adv. How to choose between relative pronouns and relative adverbs is the key to solving the problems in the entrance examination. So, how many relative pronouns are there? and how many relative adverbs are there? In all, there are six relative pronouns, and three relative adverbs.

Standing on such ground, I will add that investigation in the questions dealt with English verbs and their category of mood is not finished yet, so we will continue it while writing our qualification work.

I hope that my course paper will arise the sincere interest of students and teachers to the problem of attributive clause in contemporary English

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