

Plan:

INTRODUCTION:

- 1 Forms of subject
- 2 Definitions of subject
- 3 Subject in contrastive linguistics
- 4 Subject orientation

CONCLUSION

GLOSSARY

REFERENCES

Introduction

The subject and the predicate constitute the backbone of the sentence: without them the sentence would not exist at all, whereas all other parts may or may not be there, and if they are there, they serve to define or modify either the subject or the predicate, or each other.

The subject is one of the 2 main parts of the sentence:

1. It denotes the thing whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate.
2. It is not dependent on any other part of the sentence.

It may be expressed by different parts of speech, the most frequent ones being: a noun in the common case, a personal pronoun in the nominative case, a demonstrative pronoun occasionally, a substantivized adjective, a numeral, an infinitive, and a gerund. It may also be expressed by a phrase.

The predicate is one of the 2 main parts of the sentence:

1. It denotes the action or property of the thing expressed by the subject
2. It is not dependent on any other part of the sentence.
3. Ways of expressing the predicate are varied and their structure will better be considered under the heading of types of predicate.

It is sometimes claimed that the predicate agrees in number with the subject: when the subject is in the singular, the predicate is bound to be in the singular, and vice versa. However this statement is very doubtful.

E.g. *My family are early risers.* + The question of concord refers to the level of phrases, not sentences.

Types of predicate:

Predicates may be classified in 2 ways, one of which is based on their structure (simple or compound), and the other on their morphological characteristics (verbal or nominal).

Structural classification:

1. simple predicate (verbal and nominal)
2. compound predicate (verbal and nominal)

Morphological classification:

1. verbal predicate (simple and compound)
2. nominal predicate (simple and compound)

The simple nominal predicate – a predicate consisting merely of a noun or an adjective, without a link verb, is rare in English, but it is nevertheless a living type and must be recognized as such.

Only 2 spheres of its use:

1. In sentences where the immediate neighborhood of the subject noun and the predicate noun or adjective is used to suggest the impossibility or absurdity of the idea that they might be connected. Sentences with this kind of simple nominal predicate are always exclamatory, e.g. My ideas obsolete!!!!!! It would not do to call such sentences elliptical since the link verb cannot be added without completely changing the meaning of the sentence.
2. In the sentences in which the predicative comes first, the subject next, and no link verb is either used or possible. Such sentences seem to occur chiefly in colloquial style, e.g. “Splendid game, cricket”, remarked MR Barbecue-Smith heartily to no one in particular; “so thoroughly English”.

The compound nominal predicate is always consists of a link verb and a predicative, which may be expressed by various parts of speech, usually a noun, an adjective, also a stative, or an adverb.

Link verb – the idea of link suggests that its function is to connect the predicative with the subject. It is not correct. The true function of a link verb is not a connecting function. It expresses the tense and the mod in the predicate (to be also expresses number and person).

There are sentences in which the finite verb is a predicate itself, i.e. it contains some information about the subject which may be taken separately, but at the same time the verb is followed by a predicative and is in so far a link verb. He came home tired - the finite verb in such sentences conveys a meaning of its own, but the main point of the sentence lies in the information conveyed by the predicative noun or adjective. The finite verb performs the function of a link verb.

Since such sentences have both a simple verbal predicate and a compound nominal predicate, they form a special or mixed type: double predicates.

1. Forms of subjects

Sentence Structure English Grammar Lessons

The two fundamental parts of every English sentence are the subject and the predicate. A simple sentence can also be described as a group of words expressing a complete thought. Subjects can be described as the component that performs the action described by the Predicate.

SUBJECT + PREDICATE = SENTENCE

A simple sentence or independent clause must have a verb. A verb shows action or state of being. The subject tells who or what about the verb.

SUBJECT + VERB = SENTENCE

Sentence Structure Vocabulary

The sentence format consists of a subject and a predicate.

The subject names the topic and the predicate tells about the subject.

A sentence with one subject and one predicate is called a simple sentence.

The receiver of actions is called the object.

A group of words used as a single value without subject or predicate is called a phrase.

A clause is a group of words with a subject and predicate.

Principal or independent clauses can form sentences.

A compound sentence contains two or more principal clauses.

A clause which cannot form a sentence is called a dependant clause.

A complex sentence contains a principal clause and one or more dependant or subordinate clauses.

A compound-complex sentence contains two principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses.

Four Kinds of Sentences

Four kinds of sentences: declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory.

1. A declarative sentence makes a statement.

Example: The hockey finals will be broadcast tomorrow.

2. An imperative sentence gives a command or makes a request.

Example: Pass the puck to the open man.

3. An interrogative sentence asks a question.

Example: Do you know the rules of hockey?

4. An exclamatory sentence shows strong feeling.

Example: Stop that man!

Declarative, imperative, or interrogative sentences can be made into exclamatory sentences by punctuating them with an exclamation point.

The Six Basic Sentence Construction Patterns

1. No Verb Complement

The simplest structure is one without a verb complement. In traditional grammar, all verb complements are either nouns or adjectives.

Examples 1. Canada wins.

2. Direct Object Verb Complement

The defining characteristic is the presence of a direct object.

Example: Boys love hockey.

3. Indirect and Direct Object Verb Complements

Both indirect and direct objects are present. Indirect objects are placed immediately after the verb. Direct objects that are noun phrases follow the indirect object.

Example: Dad gave [(me)(a puck)].

4. Predicate Nominative Verb Complement

The predicate nominative verb complement is a noun or a pronoun that redefines, renames, or classifies the subject of the sentence. The verb in a predicate nominative sentence pattern is always a linking verb, such as be, seem, or become. Example: He became a coach.

5. Predicate Adjective Verb Complement

The predicate adjective is an adjective that modifies the subject of the sentence. The verb is always a linking verb, such as be, seem, smell, look, taste, or become. Example: The game became difficult.

6. Direct Object and Objective Complement

The verb complements are a direct object and an objective complement. An objective complement is a noun or an adjective that occurs after the direct object and describes the direct object.

Example: The class made [(me)(bilingual)].

Simple Sentences And Configurations

Parts of a Sentence

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Predicate</u>	<u>Objects</u>
<u>Complements</u>	<u>Phrases</u>	<u>Clauses</u>
<u>Exercise</u>	<u>Back to Exercises</u>	

Subject

The subject of a sentence is the noun---or word group acting as a noun---that performs the action expressed in the predicate of a sentence or clause. The subject may be one word: Sally loves chocolate. The subject may be in a noun phrase:

- Seeing the parade was exciting.
- The black and white dog was barking fiercely at the stranger.

Predicate

*The **predicate** is the part of the clause or sentence that **says something about the subject**. In other words, the part of the sentences that is **not** the subject and its modifiers is the predicate. A predicate can be one word or several words, not all of which are verbs.*

The principal part of the predicate is *the verb*.

- The dog *sniffed*.
- The dog *has been sniffing*.
- The dog *sniffed, looked around, and growled*.

Compound verbs are two or more verbs joined by a conjunction, (in this sentence, the word *and*) and relating to the same subject. The subject of the following sentences is *cobra*:

- The cobra *saw* the dog coming closer **and** *raised* itself into striking position.
- The cobra *hissed, opened* its hood, **and** *prepared* to strike.

Complete predicates are all the words in a clause or sentence **except** the subject and its modifiers:

- The cobra *saw the dog coming closer and raised itself into striking position*.
- The agile dog moved from side to side rapidly, trying to corner the cobra.
- Objects The object of a sentence can be a noun, pronoun, or word group that acts as a noun, and receives the action of a verb or is influenced by a transitive verb, verbal (a word derived from a verb, i.e., gerund, infinitive, and participle), or a preposition.

1. Direct object: Receives the action of a verb or verbal and frequently follows it in a sentence. Direct objects are often needed to complete the thought of a sentence. "Reuben reads the newspaper." "Reuben reads" is a complete sentence, but it doesn't express the complete thought. Reuben reads what? He reads the newspaper.

2. Indirect object: Tells for whom, to whom, or to what something is done. "Reuben reads his grandmother the newspaper." Reuben reads the newspaper to whom? to his grandmother. Grandmother is the indirect object. Pronouns are also used as indirect objects: "Reuben reads her the newspaper." Indirect objects often come between the verb and the direct object. The sentence could also be: "Reuben reads the newspaper to his grandmother." The prepositional phrase to his grandmother is the indirect object of the sentence.

3. Object of Preposition: Objects follow prepositions and are linked by them to the rest of the sentence. (See Prepositional Phrase) Complements (See also Complements page) word or word group that completes the meaning of a subject, an object, or a verb.

1. Subject complement: Follows a linking verb and modifies or refers to the subject. It may be a noun (also known as a predicate noun or nominative) or an adjective (also known as a predicate adjective).

- Olivia is *pretty*. (The adjective *pretty* is a subject complement; it describes the subject, *Olivia*.)
- Annie is an *English teacher*. (The noun phrase *English teacher* is also a subject complement; it describes *Annie*.)

2. Object complement: Follows and modifies or refers to a direct object.

- Blake considers American television *silly*. (*television* is the direct object. *silly* describes television; it is the object complement.)
- The judges elected her *Miss Brazil, 2002*. (*Miss Brazil* is the object complement, describing the direct object *her*.)

3. Verb complement: This is a direct or indirect object of a verb. It may be a noun, pronoun, or word or word group acting as a noun.

- Aunt Gertie gave *Patty my dessert*. (*Patty* is the indirect object, *my dessert* is the direct object of the verb *gave*. Both are considered verb complements.)

Phrases

A group of related words that lacks a subject, or a predicate, or both---and that acts as a single part of speech. See also **Phrases & Clauses**.

1. Prepositional phrase: Consists of a preposition and its objects and modifiers. The object of the preposition is a noun or something acting as a noun (for instance, a gerund).

- The repairman is *at the door*. (*at* is a preposition; *door* is a noun, and is the object of the preposition.)

Prepositional phrases are almost always used as adjectives or adverbs. If the phrase is being used as an adjective, it comes after the noun or pronoun it is describing.

- Discretion is the better part *of valor*. (*of* is the preposition; *valor* is a noun and is the object of the preposition. The phrase describes the word *part*.)

Remember that when using a pronoun in a prepositional phrase, you must use the objective case (*me, her, him, us, them, whom.*) *you* is the same in the subjective and objective case.

2. Noun phrase: Noun phrases are composed of a noun (or pronoun) and its modifiers. They are used as subjects, objects, or complements.

- *The strange, eerie moaning* made the dog's hackles raise. (noun phrase as subject)
- Zeke likes *a large serving of spicy food for lunch*. (noun phrase as object)
- The beach is *a great spot for vacations*. (noun phrase as complement)

3. Verb phrase: A group of words that include a verb and any auxiliary verbs that serve as the predicate of a sentence or clause.

- Gary has a toothache.
- Gary *was having* a toothache.
- Gary *has already had* a toothache.
- Gary *must have been having* a toothache.

The pattern for a verb phrase can be as long as this : auxiliary/modal verb + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + main verb

4. Verbal phrase: Consists of a verbal (a word derived from a verb) and any modifiers. Verbal phrases are **not** the main verb or predicate in a sentence. The three types of verbals used in these phrases are present participles (*ing* form of a verb), past participles (*ed* or *en* form of a verb), and infinitives (*to* + the base form of a verb).

a. **Infinitive phrase:** Consists of an infinitive and its object, plus any modifiers. Infinitive phrases are used as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns.

- *To ignore good manners* is the sign of a boorish person. (*to ignore good manners* is acting as a noun and is the subject of the sentence.)

b. **Participial phrase:** Consists of a participle and its object, plus any modifiers. Participial phrases are used as adjectives.

- *Yelling and screaming*, Clarise ran from the mouse. (*yelling and screaming* describes Clarise.)

- The old teacher, *exhausted and annoyed* from too many years in the classroom, retired to a deserted island. (*exhausted and annoyed from too many years in the classroom* describes the *teacher*. Notice that participial phrases can use either the present (ing) or the past (ed/en) form of a verb.)

5. Gerund phrase: Consists of a gerund (the *-ing* form of a verb used as a noun) and its objects, plus any modifiers. A gerund phrase is used as a noun; subject, complement, direct object, indirect object, or object of a preposition.

- *Falling asleep* while your mother-in-law is showing vacation photos can get you in trouble. (The gerund is *falling*, and the gerund phrase acts as the subject of the sentence.)
- Samantha's favorite activity is *swimming with her friends*. (The gerund is *swimming*, and the phrase acts as a complement.)

Clauses A group of related words containing a subject and a predicate.

1. Main (independent) clause: An independent clause can stand by itself as a complete sentence.

- *Amos left work early* because his mother was ill. (*Amos left work early* is a complete sentence.)
- *Maggie loves pizza* when it has extra cheese. (*Maggie loves pizza* is a complete thought.)
- *Charlie has had a backache* because he tried to lift the cow. (*Charlie has had a backache* is a complete thought.)

2. Subordinate (dependent) clause: A subordinate clause **cannot** stand by itself as a complete sentence.

- *Amos left work early* because his mother was ill. (*because his mother was ill* is not a complete thought, so it cannot stand alone as a sentence.)
- *Maggie loves pizza* when it has extra cheese. (*when it has extra cheese* is not a complete thought.)
- *Since he tried to lift the cow*, Charlie has had a backache. (*Since he tried to lift the cow* is not a complete thought.)

Subordinate, or dependent clauses are introduced by using a *subordinating conjunction*. A *subordinating conjunction* is a word which joins a dependent clause and an independent clause together. Here are some subordinating conjunctions:

Indicates Time	Indicates Place	Indicates Manner	Indicates Reason	Indicates Condition
after	where	as if	because	if
before	wherever	as though	since	unless
since		how	so that	until
when			why	in case (that)
whenever			in order that	provided that
while			now that	assuming that
until			as	even if
as			so	only if; if only
once				whether or not
as long as				that

Some subordinating conjunctions (like *after*, *before*, *since*) are also prepositions, but when they are used to introduce a clause, they are making that clause subordinate to the independent clause in the sentence.

Back to Exercises Subject (grammar)

Examples

In the sentences below, the subjects are indicated in boldface.

1. **The dictionary** helps me find words.
2. **Ice cream** appeared on the table.
3. **The man who is sitting over there** told me that he just bought a ticket to Tahiti.
4. **Nothing else** is good enough.
5. **That nothing else is good**

enough shouldn't come as a surprise.

6. **To eat six different kinds of vegetables a day** is healthy.

7. **He** sold ten units of sand to us.

The **subject** (abbreviated SUB or SU) is one of the two main constituents of a clause, according to a tradition that can be tracked back to Aristotle. The other constituent is the predicate. In English, subjects govern agreement on the verb or auxiliary verb that carries the main tense of the sentence, as exemplified by the difference in verb forms between *he eats* and *they eat*.

The subject has the grammatical function in a sentence of relating its constituent (a noun phrase) by means of the verb to any other elements present in the sentence, i.e. objects, complements and adverbials.

The subject is a phrasal constituent, and should be distinguished from parts of speech, which, roughly, classify words within constituent.

Subject and Predicate

Every complete **sentence** contains two parts: a **subject** and a **predicate**. The subject is what (or whom) the sentence is about, while the predicate tells something about the subject. In the following sentences, the predicate is enclosed in braces ({}), while the subject is **highlighted**.

Judy {runs}.

Judy and her dog {run on the beach every morning}.

To determine the subject of a sentence, first isolate the verb and then make a question by placing "who?" or "what?" before it -- the answer is the subject.

The audience littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn.

The verb in the above sentence is "littered." Who or what littered? The audience did. "The audience" is the subject of the sentence. The predicate (which always includes the verb) goes on to relate something about the subject: what about the audience? It "littered the theatre floor with torn wrappings and spilled popcorn."

Unusual Sentences

Imperative sentences (sentences that give a command or an order) differ from conventional sentences in that their subject, which is always "you," is understood rather than expressed.

Stand on your head. ("You" is understood before "stand.")

Be careful with sentences that begin with "there" plus a form of the verb "to be." In such sentences, "there" is not the subject; it merely signals that the true subject will soon follow.

There were **three stray kittens** cowering under our porch steps this morning.

If you ask *who?* or *what?* before the verb ("were cowering"), the answer is "three stray kittens," the correct subject.

Simple Subject and Simple Predicate

Every subject is built around one noun or pronoun (or more) that, when stripped of all the words that modify it, is known as the **simple subject**. Consider the following example:

A **piece** of pepperoni pizza would satisfy his hunger.

The subject is built around the noun "piece," with the other words of the subject -- "a" and "of pepperoni pizza" -- modifying the noun. "Piece" is the simple subject.

Likewise, a predicate has at its centre a **simple predicate**, which is always the verb or verbs that link up with the subject. In the example we just considered, the simple predicate is "would satisfy" -- in other words, the verb of the sentence.

A sentence may have a **compound subject** -- a simple subject consisting of more than one noun or pronoun -- as in these examples:

Team **pennants**, rock **posters** and family **photographs** covered the boy's bedroom walls.

Her **uncle** and **she** walked slowly through the Inuit art gallery and admired the powerful sculptures exhibited there.

The second sentence above features a **compound predicate**, a predicate that includes more than one verb pertaining to the same subject (in this case, "walked" and "admired").

Predicate (grammar)

In traditional grammar, a **predicate** is one of the two main parts of a sentence, the other being the subject. The predicate is said to *modify* the subject. For the simple sentence "John is Asian" *John* acts as the subject, and *Asian* acts as the predicate. The predicate is much like a verb phrase.

In linguistic semantics (notably truth-conditional semantics), a predicate is an expression that can be *true of* something; it expresses a relationship or property of an argument in a clause.^[1] Thus, the expressions "is yellow" or "is like broccoli" are true of those things that are yellow or like broccoli, respectively. This notion is closely related to the notion of a predicate in formal logic, which includes more expressions than the former one, such as nouns and some kinds of adjectives.

Predicate in traditional English grammar

A predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence (the other being the subject, which the predicate modifies).^[2] The predicate must contain a verb, and the verb requires, permits, or precludes other sentence elements to complete the predicate. These elements are: objects (direct, indirect, prepositional), predicatives, adverbs:

She dances. (verb-only predicate)

Ben reads the book. (direct object)

Ben's mother, Felicity, gave me a present. (indirect object without a preposition)

She listened to the radio. (prepositional object)

They elected him president. (predicative / object complement)

She met him in the park. (adverbial)

She is in the park. (obligatory adverbial / adverbial complement)

The predicate provides information about the subject, such as what the subject is doing or what the subject is like.

The relation between a subject and its predicate is sometimes called a nexus.

A **predicate nominal** is a noun phrase that functions as the main predicate of a sentence, such as "*George III is the king of England*", *the king of England* being the predicate nominal. The subject and predicate nominal must be connected by a linking verb, also called a copula.

A **predicate adjective** is an adjective that functions as a predicate, such as "Ivano is attractive", *attractive* being the predicate adjective. The subject and predicate adjective must be connected by a linking verb, also called copula.

Classes of predicate

Carlson classes

After the work of Greg N. Carlson, predicates have been divided into the following sub-classes, which roughly pertain to how a predicate relates to its subject:

Stage-level predicates

A **stage-level predicate** ("s-l predicate" for short) is true of a *temporal stage* of its subject. For example, if John is "hungry", that typically lasts a certain amount of time, and not his entire lifespan.

S-l predicates can occur in a wide range of grammatical constructions and is probably the most versatile kind of predicate.

Individual-level predicates

An **individual-level predicate** ("i-l predicate") is true throughout the existence of an individual. For example, if John is "smart", this is a property of him, regardless which particular point in time we consider.

I-l predicates are more restricted than s-l ones. I-l predicates can't occur in *presentational* "there" sentences (a star in front of a sentence indicates that it is odd or ill-formed):

There are police available. ("available" is s-l)

There are firemen altruistic. ("altruistic" is i-l)

S-l predicates allow modification by manner adverbs and other adverbial modifiers. I-l ones do not.

Tyrone spoke French loudly in the corridor. ("speak French" can be interpreted as s-l)

Tyrone knew French loudly in the corridor. ("know French" can't be interpreted as s-l)

When an i-l predicate occurs in past tense, it gives rise to what is called a "lifetime effect": The subject must be assumed to be dead or otherwise gone out of existence.

John was available. (s-l → no lifetime effect)

John was altruistic. (i-l → lifetime effect.)

Kind-level predicates

A **kind-level predicate** ("k-l predicate") is true of a kind of thing, but cannot be applied to individual members of the kind. An example of this is the predicate "are widespread." One can't meaningfully say of a particular individual John that he is widespread. One may only say this of kinds, as in

Humans are widespread.

Certain types of noun phrase can't be the subject of a k-l predicate. We have just seen that a proper name can't be. Singular indefinite noun phrases are also banned from this environment:

A cat is widespread. (compare: Nightmares are widespread.)

Collective vs. distributive predicates

Predicates may also be collective or distributive. Collective predicates require their subjects to be somehow plural, while distributive ones don't. An example of a collective predicate is "formed a line". This predicate can only stand in a nexus with a plural subject:

The students formed a line.

The student formed a line.

Other examples of collective predicates include "meet in the woods", "surround the house", "gather in the hallway" and "carry the piano together". Note that the last one ("carry the piano together") can be made non-collective by removing the word "together". Quantifiers differ with respect to whether or not they can be the subject of a collective predicate. For example, quantifiers formed with "all the" can, while ones formed with "every" or "each" cannot.

All the students formed a line.

All the students gathered in the hallway.

All the students carried a piano together.

Each student gathered in the hallway.

Every student formed a line.

The given annual project is dedicated to the linguistic problem - 'The Subject: Ways of Expressing It in the Sentence'.

The main goal of the work is to identify the main features of the subject in the sentence, basing on the theoretical and scientific works of Russian, English, American, Moldovan and Romanian authors, and examine the subject and its features in the works of American and English fiction.

The objectives of the thesis, in their turn, represent ascending steps to the main goal of the project:

1. to define the notion of the subject;
2. to present the classification of the subject according to the theoretical sources of the examined works of the linguists.
3. to present the ways the subject is expressed in the sentence.
4. to identify the subject features and the ways it is expressed in the works of the investigated American and English fiction.
5. to compare the means the subject is expressed in fiction in the works of such writers as: 'The Book of Grotesque' by Sherwood Anderson, 'The Magic Barrel' by Bernard Malamud, 'The Last Leaf', 'The Gift of the Magi' by O. Henry, 'The Man with the Scar', 'The Door of Opportunity', 'A Friend in Need' by W.S. Maugham.

Actuality of the work maintains the basic functions of the subject in the sentence as one of the main constituents and its continual study due to this fact. That is a linguistic phenomenon having been introduced into education on different educative levels starting from the simplest definitions in primary school and reaching gradually deep theoretical interpretations of the subject in the institutions of higher education.

The annual project is based mainly on the scientific sources of English and Russian linguists, such as:

Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, J. Svartvik, Richard Gardiner, Timothy Cobb, Geoffrey Leech, as for the Russian grammarians: V. L. Kaushanskaya, I. P. Krylova, M. A. Ganshina, N.M. Vasilevskaya, Б. А. Ильин.

Besides, the works of the Romanian scholars - Andrey Bahtae and Leon Levitchi, and others.

In English grammar the subject (along with the predicate) is researched by a number of linguists and philologists. It is defined in different interpretations, but still the entire variants base on one common backbone of the notion:

The subject (abbreviated **sub.** or **su.**) is one of the two main constituents of a clause or a simple sentence, according to a tradition that can be tracked back to

Aristotle. It is the main part of a two-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the predicate is grammatically dependent.

The subject is sometimes said to be the relatively familiar element, to which the predicate is added as something new, 'The utterer throws into his subject all that he knows the receiver is already willing to grant him, and to this he adds in the predicate what constitutes the new information to be conveyed by the sentence...'

Besides, the following features of the subject are maintained in most definitions of the studied linguists:

- a) the subject is normally a noun or a clause with nominal function;
- b) the subject occurs before the verb phrase in declarative clauses, and immediately after the operator in questions;
- c) the subject has number and person concord, where applicable, with the verb phrase.

The classifications of the subject are presented according to the role and structure of the subject in the sentence.

Ways of expressing the subject vary in conformity with the parts of speech and constructions it is presented by.

The practical part is aimed at investigation of the subject features in the works of American and English fiction and fulfillment of the comparative analysis in the given works of two different cultures - American and English.

The results of the executed practical work demonstrating common and contrasting ways of expressing the subject in British and American fiction are evidenced in conclusion of the project.

subject sentence

2. Definitions of the Subject

The Subject: Ways of Expressing It in the Sentence

The notion of the Subject in the grammatical theory of the English language can be presented very briefly and clearly: it is the main part of a two-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the predicate is grammatically dependent.

The reason for calling the subject and the predicate the main parts of the sentence and distinguishing them from all the other parts which are treated as secondary, is roughly this. The subject and the predicate between them constitute the backbone of the sentence: without them the sentence would not exist at all, whereas all the other parts may or may not be there, and if they are there, they serve to define or modify either the subject, or the predicate, or each other.

A linguistic experiment to prove the correctness of this view would be to take a sentence containing the subject, a predicate, and a number of secondary parts, and to show that any of the secondary parts might be removed without the sentence being destroyed, whereas if either the subject or the predicate were removed there would be no sentence left: its 'backbone' would be broken. This experiment would probably succeed and prove the point in a vast majority of cases.

The question now arises: what criteria do we practically apply when we say that a word (or, sometimes, a phrase) is the subject of a sentence?

The grammatical phenomenon of the subject in English has been examined by a number of linguists, philologists and grammatical experts both of English and foreign origin in different epochs. This notion is defined in various interpretations; still the common backbone is identified in all of them. Let's retrace this 'common thread', kept in all the definitions of the subject.

Sidney Greenbaum in 'The Oxford English Grammar' notes that the subject of a sentence is the constituent that normally comes before the verb in a declarative sentence and changes position with the operator in an interrogative sentence. It is applicable, the verb agrees in number and person with the subject (I am ready): the subject 'I' is first person singular and so is 'am'

Paul Roberts in 'Understanding Grammar' presents the subject as the element stressed or the new element added to the discourse end in complexities that are interesting philosophically but useless grammatically. The beginner's device to find

the subject is first to find the verb and then ask 'who?' or 'what' before it. When the subject is very specific (e.g. a proper name), we may even invert the normal word order without befuddling our listeners.

Some brief definitions of the subject are presented by Richard Gardiner and Timothy Cobb in 'Today's English Grammar' from one side, and by Geoffrey Leech in 'An A-Z of English Grammar and Usage' from the other side.

In 'Today's English Grammar' the authors state that the word indicating the person or thing referred to is called the subject of the sentence.

Geoffrey Leech, in his turn, notes that the subject is a grammatical term for the part of a clause or sentence which generally goes before the verb phrase (in statements).

Russian philologists, such as Kaushanskaya in «Грамматика английского языка», say that the subject is the principal part of a two-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the second principal part (the predicate) is grammatically dependent, i.e. in most cases it agrees with the subject in number and person. The subject can denote a living being, a lifeless thing or an idea.

According to I. P. Krylova in 'A Grammar of Present Day' the subject is a word or a group of words which names the person, object or phenomenon the sentence informs us about.

Thus, we can identify the following common points:

- a) the subject is normally a noun phrase or a clause with nominal function;
- b) the subject occurs before the verb phrase in declarative clauses, and immediately after the operator in questions;
- c) the subject has number and person concord, where applicable, with the verb phrase.

Б. А. Ильин in «Строй современного английского языка» examines the question first of all by formulating the structure of the definition itself. It is bound to contain the following items: (1) the meaning of the subject, that is its relation to the thought expressed in the sentence, (2) its syntactical relations in the sentence, (3) its morphological realization: here a list of morphological ways of realizing the

subject must be given, but it need not be exhaustive, as it is our purpose merely to establish the essential characteristics of every part of the sentence.

The definition of the subject would, then, be something like this. The subject is one of the two main parts of the sentence. (1) It denotes the thing whose action or characteristic is expressed by the predicate. (2) It is not dependent on any other part of the sentence. (3) It may be expressed by different parts of speech, the most frequent ones being: a noun in the common case, a personal pronoun in the nominative case, a demonstrative pronoun occasionally, a substantivized adjective or past participle, a numeral, an infinitive, and a gerund. It may also be expressed by a phrase.

The Subject

- Is the Noun of the sentence, The sentence is also based upon the Noun
In, "The beautiful *ballerina* leaped into the air like a deer." *Ballerina* is the subject
In, "The *Seminole Indians* traveled over the water in the dugout canals."
- The quickest way to find the subject is to read the sentence carefully
- The subject can be singular or plural and 1 or 2 words

The Predicate

- The predicate names the verb in the sentence that tells what is happening
In, "The beautiful ballerina *leaped* into the air like a deer." *leaped* is the predicate
In, "The Seminole Indians *traveled* over water in the dugout canals." the predicate is *traveled*."
- The easiest way to find the predicate is to find what the subject is doing.
Does a subject(The Subject) answer the questions of who? what? and designates an object. A subject can be expressed by a noun, pronoun, infinitive, gerund, numeral, any word or word-combination. II. In impersonal suggestions as a formal subject the pronoun of it is used: It is winter. It is cold. It is early morning. III. If it is necessary to distinguish some part of sentence, then use the turn of it is ... that: It was his sister that(whom) I met in the park. - Exactly(it) his sister I met in a park. During translation of this turn often use the words of *имен*
IV. When an acting person is thought indefinitely, in the function of subject the pronoun of one or they(people) is used: One must always keep one's word. - it is Needed always to restrain the word. They say that truth and honesty is the best policy. - It is said that a true and honesty are the best policy. V. Does a predicate(The Predicate) designate that is talked about a subject and answers the question of what does the subject do? A predicate can be simple, component nominal and component verbal. A simple predicate is expressed by a verb in the

personal form, time, mortgage and mood. Component nominal predicate you VI. A turn of there is(are) (present, is, exists) is the special type of simple predicate, expressing a presence or existence of person or object. The turn of there is(are) stands at the beginning of suggestion, a subject follows after him, further circumstance of place or time. In interrogative suggestions the simple forms of verb of to be(is, are was, were) are put before there, and at the difficult form of verb of to be before there an auxiliary verb is put. Do short answers consist of yes or on and turn of there is(are) in an affirmative or negative form: Is there a telephone in your room? - Yes, there is

II. A predicate comports with a subject. If in suggestion two subject to, then a predicate is put in MH. number: Peter and Mary were at home. If after the turn of there is(are) cost two or a few subject to, then a predicate comports with first from them : There were two girls and a boy in the room. If two subject to connected by the unions of either ... or(or ... or), neither ... nor(not ... not), a that predicate comports with the last from them: Either you or he has done it. If a subject are pronouns of each, every, everybody, no, one, someone, then a verb is put in ед. number.

3. Subject in contrastive linguistics

Classification of the subject There are some classifications given by different authors. For example, from the structural point of view and functional point of view

Classification of the subject from the structural point of view can be:

Simple, expressed by a word or a number of words in the nominal case, the combination of which represents one doer of the action.

No glass renders a man's form or likeness so true as his speech. (Ben Johnson, Timber)

The proper force of words lies not in the words themselves, but in their application. (William Hazlitt, On Familiar Style)

All things are admired either because they are new or because they are great. (Francis Bacon)

Even in his novels Hardy's pessimism is always a fighting pessimism. (T.A. Jackson, Thomas Hardy)

What do you think the weather will be tomorrow?

Compound, expressed by two or more nouns that represent one and the same notion (or one and the same person)

The great poet, essayist and philosopher died in 1882. (Emerson)

Coordinated or Homogeneous, that unites two or more different objects with the conjunction.

Tom and Maggie are the principal characters in 'The Mill of the Floss'. (G. Eliot's novel)

Complex, expressed by a special construction, first of all, by a noun in the nominal case with an infinitive or with a participle:

He had been reported to move house.

The rain could be heard rapping against the windows.

Double that is characteristic of the English folklore.

`Some suits, some suits,' the sheriff he said, `Some suits I'll give to thee.' (Robin Hood Rescuing the Widow's Three Sons) [9, 186]

Classification of the Subject from functional point of view

The most typical semantic role of a subject is AGENTIVE; that is the animate being instigating or causing the happening denoted by the verb:

John opened the letter.

Apart from its agentive function, the subject frequently has an INSTRUMENTAL role; that is, it expresses the unwitting (generally inanimate) material cause of the event:

The avalanche destroyed several houses

With intransitive verbs, the subject also frequently has the AFFECTED role that is elsewhere typical of the object:

Jack fell down

The pencil was lying on the table

We may also extend this latter function to subjects of intensive verbs:

The pencil was on the table

It is now possible to see a regular relation, in terms of clause function, between adjectives or intransitive verbs and the corresponding transitive verbs expressing CAUSATIVE meaning:

S affected Sagent/instr. Oaffected

The door opened John/The key opened the door

The flowers have died The frost has killed the flowers

Saffected Sagent/instr Oaffected

The road became narrower They narrowed the road

I got angry His manner angered me

Sagentive Sagentive Oaffected

My dog was walking I was walking my dog

The subject may also have a recipient role with verbs such as have, own, possess, benefit (from), as is indicated by the following relation:

Mr. Smith has bought/given/sold his son a radio > So now his son has/owns/possesses the radio

The perceptual verbs see and hear also require a 'recipient' subject, in contrast to look at and listen to, which are agentive. The other perceptual verbs taste, smell, and feel have both an agentive meaning corresponding to look at and a recipient meaning corresponding to see:

Foolishly, he tasted the soup

Foolishly, he tasted the pepper in the soup

The adverb foolishly requires the agentive; hence, the second sentence, which can only be understood in a non-agentive manner, does not make sense.

Verbs indicating a mental state may also require a recipient subject:

I thought you were mistaken (cf It seemed to me...)

I liked the play (cf The play gave me pleasure)

Normally, recipient subjects go with stative verbs. Some of them (notably have and possess) have no passive form:

They have a beautiful house - A beautiful house is had by them

The subject may have the function of designating place or time:

This path is swarming with ants (= Ants are swarming all over this path)

The bus holds forty people (=Forty people can sit in the bus)

Unlike swarm, the verbs in such sentences do not normally admit the progressive (* The bus is holding...) or the passive (* Forty people are held ...).

Temporal subjects can usually be replaced by the empty *it*, the temporal expression becoming adjunct:

Tomorrow is my birthday (= It is my birthday tomorrow)

The winter of 1970 was exceptionally mild (= It was exceptionally mild in the winter of 1970)

Eventive subjects (with abstract noun heads designating arrangements and activities) differ from others in permitting intensive complementation with a time adverbial:

The concert is on Thursday (but * The concert hall is on Thursday)

Finally, a subject may lack semantic content altogether, and consist only of the meaningless 'prop' word *it*, used especially with climatic predications:

It's raining/snowing, etc. It's getting dark It's noisy in here [3, 163]

Note: The 'prop' subject *it* as discussed here must be distinguished from the 'anticipatory' *it* of sentences like 'It was nice seeing you', where the 'prop' subject is a replacement for a postponed clausal subject (= Seeing you was nice).

4. Subject orientation

Ways of Expressing Subject

As it is stated above, the Subject is the main part of a two-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the predicate is grammatically dependent.

The subject can be expressed by different parts of speech and by different constructions:

1. The noun in the common (or occasionally possessive) case;

The sulky waiter brought my tea. (Du Maurier)

Marcellus slowly turned his head. (Douglas)

The address must be written in the center of the envelope.

Jonathan Swift is the father of irony. (E.B. Browning, Aurora Leigh)

Occasionally a noun in the possessive case is used as the subject of the sentence.

Mrs. Gummidge's was in a fretful disposition. (Dickens)

Oh, my dear Richard, Ada's is a noble heart. (Dickens)

2. A pronoun (personal, demonstrative, defining, indefinite, negative, possessive, interrogative);

After about an hour I heard Montgomery shouting my name. That set me thinking of my plan of action. (Wells)

All were clad in the same soft, and yet strong silky material. (Wells)

All were happy.

Everyone was silent for a minute. (Wells)

Nothing was said on either side for a minute or two afterwards. (Dickens)

Theirs is not a very comfortable lodging ... (Dickens)

Who tore this book? (Twain)

The pronouns `one, we, you are much used with the same general or indefinite force:

`As long as one is young, one easily acquires new friends.'

`We don't like to be flatly contradicted.'

`You don't like to be snubbed.'

3. A substantivized adjective or participle;

The Privileged have seen that charming and instructive sight. (Galsworthy)

The wounded were taken good care of.

4. A numeral (cardinal or ordinal);

Of course, the two were quite unable to do anything. (Wells)

The first and fourth stood beside him in the water. (Wells)

Two were indeed young, about eleven and ten. (Galsworthy)

The first was a tall lady with dark hair ... (Bronte)

5. An infinitive, an infinitive phrase or construction;

To see is to believe.

To live uprightly, then, is sure the best. (John Dryden)

To prolong doubt was to prolong hope. (Bronte)

For him to come was impossible.

To be a rich man, Lieutenant, is not always roses and beauty. (Heym)

To walk is useful. Walking is useful.

6. A gerund, a gerundial phrase or construction;

Lying doesn't go well with me.

Winning the war is what counts.

Walking is a healthy exercise.

Watching and ministering Kit was her best care. (Galsworthy)

Teaching others teaches yourself.

7. Any part of speech used as a quotation;

On is a preposition.

A is the first letter of the English alphabet.

And is a conjunction.

No is his usual reply to any request.

is the sign of perpendicular.

8. A group of words which is one part of the sentence, i.e. a syntactically indivisible group.

The needle and thread is lost. (here the subject represents one person).

Their friend and defender is darkly groping towards the solution.

Twice two is four.

How to do this is a difficult question.

9. It as the subject of the sentence.

In English the pronoun it is sometimes used as the subject of a sentence.

Table

Types of subject	Characteristics	Examples
Notional	it represents a living being or a thing and has the following characteristics:	The door opened. It was opened by a young girl of thirteen or

	stands for a definite thing or some abstract idea - the personal it;	fourteen. (Dickens)
	points out a person or thing expressed by a predicative noun, or it refers to the thought contained in a preceding statement, thus having a demonstrative meaning - the demonstrative it;	If this is a liberty, it isn't going to mean a thing. (Lindsay)
		It is John.
		It was a large room with a great window. (Dickens)
		Dick came home late, it provoked his father. (Lindsay)
Formal	it doesn't represent any person or thing. Here we must distinguish:	It is cold in winter.
	a) the impersonal it, which is used to denote:	It often rains in autumn.
	* denotes natural phenomena (such as the state of the weather, etc.) or that which characterizes the environment. In such sentences the predicate is either a simple one, expressed by a verb denoting the state of the weather, or a compound nominal one, with an adjective as predicative.	It is delightfully quiet in the night.
	* to denote time and distance	It is five minutes past six.
	b) the introductory or anticipatory it introduces the real subject.	How far is it from your office to the bank? (Galsworthy)
	When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive, or a gerund or a whole clause, it is placed after the predicate and the sentence begins with the pronoun it which is called an anticipatory or introductory it.	It is a long way to the station.
	c) the emphatic it is used for emphasis.	It is morning already.
		It's no use <u>disguising facts</u> .
		It was curious <u>to observe that child</u> .
		It was he who had brought back George to Amelia. (Thackeray)
		It was Winifred who went up to him. (Galsworthy)

The construction '**there is**'

When the subject of the sentence is indefinite (a book, books, some books), it is often placed after the predicate verb and the sentence begins with the introductory particle **there**. The word **there** has no stress and is usually pronounced with the neutral vowel /pə/ instead of /pɜ:/ . It has lost its local meaning, which is shown by the possibility of combining it in the sentence with the adverbs of place **here** and **there**:

there was a gate just there, opening into the meadow... (Bronte)

'There's a good spot over there.'

Things are specifically different in cases when **it** and **there** are used in subject positions as representatives of words or longer units which embody the real content of the subject but are postponed.

It is most pleasant that she has already come.

It was easy to do so.

There are a few mistakes in your paper.

There were no seats at all.

It and **there** in such syntactic structures are generally called anticipatory or introductory subjects.

There in such patterns is often referred to as a function word, and this is not devoid of some logical foundation. Sentences with the introductory **there** may serve to assert or deny the existence of something. In sentences with the introductory **there** the predicate verb is usually the verb **to be**; occasionally some other verbs are found, such as **to live**, **to occur**, **to come**, etc., which, similarly to the verb **to be**, indicate to exist or have the meaning of to come into the existence:

There was a little pause. (Voynich)

(**there** - an introductory particle; **was** - a simple verbal predicate; a pause - the subject; **little** - an attribute)

...there is the rustle of branches in the morning breeze;

...there is the music of a sunny shower against the window; (Gissing)

There came a laugh, high, gay sweet. (Galsworthy) r

...there came a scent of lime-blossom. (Galsworthy)

There soon appeared, pausing in the dark doorway as he entered, a hale, grey-haired old man. (Dickens)

Ways of Expressing Subject in Fiction

Practical part of the given project, presented in Chapter Two, brings to light subject features, investigated from theoretical point of view in Chapter One, in separate examples, drawn from fiction works. Opposing works of American and British English fiction, the paper is aimed at distinguishing subject peculiarities in both fiction sides. Thus, the investigated works are 'The Book of Grotesque' by Sherwood Anderson, 'The Magic Barrel' by Bernard Malamud, 'The Last Leaf', 'The Gift of the Magi' by O. Henry concerning American writers and 'The Man with the Scar', 'The Door of Opportunity', 'A Friend in Need' by W. S. Maugham for British authors.

Ways of Expressing Subject in British Fiction

'The greatest English playwright, novelist and short story writer, considered one of the most popular writers of his era, and reputedly, the highest paid author during the 1930s' William Somerset Maugham gives preference mainly to the personal pronouns in the role of the subject. All the examined works of the writer within the project keep the tendency of the presenting the personal pronouns as the subject.

'We draw our conclusions from the shape of the jaw, the look in the eyes, the contour of the mouth.'

'When you made him that offer of a job, did you know he'd be drowned?'

'Well, I hadn't got a vacancy in my office at the moment.'

'She gave him a long searching look.'

'In your place I should never have been able to resist the temptation to take my eight cops and have a whack at the blighters myself.'

'She is waiting at the prison door.'

The second preferable part of speech in the subject role is a noun in the nominal case.

`Women thought a lot of him.'

`The blood spurted from the cut vein and dyed his shirt.'

`This scar spoke of a terrible wound and I wondered whether it had been caused by a sabre or by a fragment of shell.'

`But Alban had already a London look.'

`Anne quickly made friends with the shy, pretty native woman and soon was playing happily with the children.'

Other parts of speech in the Subject position are surely kept but in much less frequent periodicity.

`That was how you thought a poet should look.' where `that' is a demonstrative pronoun in the Subject role.

`Two or three shouted back in answer.' where `two' and `three' are cardinal numerals occupying Subject position in the sentence.

`The worst of it was that Anne knew how low an opinion Alban had of the Governor's parts.' where `the worst of it' is construction carrying Subject function in the sentence.

`How can anyone be so shameless?' where `anyone' is indefinite pronoun in the Subject role.

`Nothing that concerns me was at stake.' where `nothing' is a negative pronoun carrying the Subject function.

`All that was far away in the future.' where indefinite pronoun `all' is in the Subject role.

The Subject it is surely also presented in the works of W. S. Maugham. In consequence of its research we can state that the frequency of the usage of notional `it' is much higher in comparison with the formal `it' in the works of W. S. Maugham.

`It's only an hour's journey,' said Anne. where `it' is formal denoting time aspect.

`It was a room with twin beds and a bathroom.' where `it' is notional pointing out a thing expressed by a predicative noun.

`It was a change, but Anne was always glad to get home.' where the notional `it' is the Subject pointing out a thing expressed by a predicative noun.

`It was on account of the scar that I first noticed him, for it ran, broad and red from his temple to his chin.' where both `it's are notional subjects but first `it' points out a thing expressed by a predicative noun whereas the second `it' stands for a definite thing mentioned before.

`It happened so quickly that many didn't know what had occurred, but the others gave a cry of horror;' where the notional subject `it' again denotes a thing expressed by a predicative noun.

`It was a busy, exhilarating scene, and yet, I know not why, restful to the spirit.' where `it' is notional carrying the Subject role in the sentence.

The introductory `there' also is maintained in the work but as it is mentioned above in Chapter One, the particle `there' carries just the introductory function, but doesn't represent the Subject of the sentence.

`There was a group of natives'

`There was a little stir at the gateway.'

Subject features corresponding to their characteristics in Classifications One and Two can be commented on the following points.

Proceeding from the structural point of view (Classification 1) simple and complex subjects are predominantly met.

`Though his offices were in Kobe, Burton often came down to Yokohama.' where `Burton' represents the simple Subject.

`Those sort of fellows always do.' where `sort' presents the simple Subject.

`I couldn't help laughing.' where I in combination with the gerund `laughing' represents the complex Subject.

`They laid the girl on the ground and stood round watching her.' where `they' in combination with the gerund `watching' represents again the complex Subject.

`The rebel advanced a step or two to meet her.' where `the rebel' in combination with the infinitive `to meet' represents the complex Subject.

`Alban, as was his way, tipped the porter generously and then went to the bookstall and bought papers.' where `Alban' represents the simple Subject.

Concerning Classification 2 agentive and affected Subjects are essentially identified.

`Burton came into the lounge presently and caught sight of me.' where `Burton' in relation with the predicate `came' represents the affected Subjects and in combination with the predicate `caught' - the agentive Subject.

`A sort of sigh passed through those men crowded together..' where `a sort' represents the instrumental Subject.

`She stared into his blue eyes as if they were open windows.' where `she' carries the agentive function of the Subject.

`The tears streamed from Anne's eyes, she rushed to the door and ran out.' where `tears' and `she' represent in both cases the agentive Subject.

`We shook hands.' where `we' represents the affected Subject.

`He gave a little mild chuckle and he looked at me with those kind and candid blue eyes of his.' where `he' represents the agentive Subject in both cases.

Thus, the cases of the agentive and affected Subjects, classified from the functional point of view, and the simple Subjects, classified from the structural point of view, constitute substantially 99% of the Subject, distinguished in fiction of W.S. Maugham.

Ways of Expressing Subject in American Fiction

Works of American fiction, examined in the given project are `The Book of Grotesque' by Sherwood Anderson, `The Magic Barrel' by Bernard Malamud, `The Gift of the Magi' and `The Last Leaf' by O. Henry.

Investigating American literature, we should mention that the same Subject

features, distinguished in the works of the British fiction, are kept here as well. Still some peculiarities of the Subject are evidenced in comparison with British fiction.

Proceeding from the classification of the Subject from functional and structural points of view, we can identify that surely, the simple (Classification 1) and agentive (Classification 2) are essentially distinguished.

A carpenter fixed the bed so that it would be on a level with the window.' where 'carpenter' carries the agentive function and meanwhile has a simple structure.

'Man made the truths himself and each truth was a composite of a great many vague thoughts.' where 'man' represents the simple and agentive Subject whereas 'truth' performs the affected function in a simple structure.

'The matchmaker appeared one night out of the dark fourth-floor hallway of the gray stone rooming house...' where 'the matchmaker' represents a simple Subject carrying the agentive function.

'Della finished her cry and attended to her cheeks with the powder rag.' where 'Della' is a simple Subject with an agentive function.

'The magi brought valuable gifts, but that was not among them.' where 'the magi' is again a simple Subject with an agentive function.

Still, another types of the Subject are also distinguished.

'Jim stopped inside the door, as immovable as a setter at the scent of quail.' where the simple Subject 'Jim' carries the affected function.

'John's eyes were open wide. 'where the simple Subject 'John's eyes' carry the affected function.

'The thing to get at is what the writer or the young thing within the writer, was thinking about.' where the construction in the role of the Subject 'the thing to get at' is complex in its structure.

'Her face deeply moved him.' where the simple Subject 'her face' performs the instrumental function.

'An odor of frying fish made Leo weak to the knees.' where the simple Subject 'odor' displays again the instrumental function.

`The idea alternately nauseated and exalted him.' where the simple Subject `the idea' performs the instrumental function.

`But, surprisingly, Salzman's face lit in a smile.' where the simple Subject `Salzman's face' carries the affected function.

`Suddenly she whirled from the window and stood before the glass.' where the simple Subject `she' displays the affected function.

The only peculiarity of American fiction in comparison with the British one in the Subject investigation is that the instrumental function of the Subject appears on the pages of the examined stories.

The ways of expressing the Subject also maintain similar features of being presented by a noun or pronoun (esp. personal) in nominal case in the examined stories of American fiction.

`She stood by the window and looked out dully at a gray cat walking a gray fence in a gray backyard.' where she is personal pronoun in the Subject role.

`After the doctor had gone Sue went into the workroom and cried a Japanese napkin to a pulp.' where `the doctor' and `Sue' represent Subjects expressed by a common and a denominative nouns in nominal case.

`The old man listed hundreds of the truths in his book.' where `the man' is the Subject expressed by a common noun in nominal case.

`By remembering it I have been able to understand many people and things that I was never able to understand before.' where the Subject is expressed by the personal pronoun `I'.

Still, some cases where the subject is expressed by numerals, interrogative and demonstrative pronouns are also noticed.

`Who can love from a picture?' mocked the marriage broker.' where the Subject `who' is expressed by the interrogative pronoun.

`This is my baby, my Stella, she should burn in hell.' where the Subject `this' is expressed by a demonstrative pronoun.

`Hundreds and hundreds were the truths and they were all beautiful.' where the Subject is expressed by cardinal numerals.

The Subject is undoubtedly maintained in American fiction as well.

The notional 'it' is noticed much oftener in comparison with the formal 'it' as it is witnessed in British fiction as well.

'Well, it is the weakness, then,' said the doctor. where the subject 'it' is notional and denotes a thing expressed by a predicative noun.

'It reached below her knee and made itself almost a garment for her.' where the Subject 'it' is notional and denotes a definite object mentioned before.

'No, it wasn't a youth, it was a woman, young, and wearing a coat of mail like a knight.' where the Subject 'it' is again notional and denotes a thing expressed by predicative noun.

The introductory features of 'there' are kept on the pages of the American fiction as well.

'There are only five left now'

'There was a pier-glass between the windows of the room.'

Thus, the Subject features in American fiction are predominantly similar to the ones kept in British literature; the only noticed peculiarity is the instrumental function of the Subject.

Conclusion

On the basis of the theoretical and practical investigation of the Subject within the framework of distinguishing its features in American and British fiction conforming to the examined theory, we have reached the following results of the research work:

The Subject justifies its definition of being 'the main part of a two-member sentence which is grammatically independent of the other parts of the sentence and on which the predicate is grammatically dependent' in combination with all the other characteristics mentioned by different grammarians of any languages practically throughout the investigated fiction.

Classifications of the Subject presented in two variants reflect that from structural point of view, simple and complex types of the Subject are predominantly used. From functional point of view, the agentive and affected role of the Subject is generally maintained. Vivid examples proving the present conclusion are presented

Ways of expressing the Subject vary mainly surely between the nouns in nominal case (these examples constitute the majority part of expressing the Subject), personal pronouns (that also present a vast percentage of the examples where they are in the role of the Subject), demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite pronouns are of less often frequency.

Numerals are also used in the role of the Subject, these cases are mainly characteristic of the colloquial dialogues.

Infinitive and gerundial constructions possess a rather high index of frequency usage identified in the investigated fiction.

Concerning 'it' Subject, the results of the investigations prove to state that generally the notional type of 'it' is practiced in the role of the Subject. Formal type of 'it' Subject is used much more moderate.

Regarding the other parts of speech that also can be used in the role of the Subject, that is substantivized adjective or participle, any part of speech used as a quotation, a group of words which is one part of the sentence, i.e. a syntactically indivisible group are less preferred both by the American and British writers within the given project.

In reference to the feature differences in the usage of the Subject in American and

British fiction, we can surely state that both cultures prefer to use common features of the Subject. The only characteristic of the American fiction touches the fact that instrumental function of the Subject is used a little oftener whereas British writers keep 100%-preference to the Subject expressed by nouns and personal pronouns.

The implemented investigation will be elaborated in the subsequent thesis of the next year based on the fiction of the John Galsworthy ('The Forsyte Saga') where detailed internal research analysis will be executed.

GLOSSARY:

REFERENCES: