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ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ КУРС АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Брест
БрГУ имени А.С. Пушкина
2017

Учреждение образования
«Брестский государственный университет имени А.С. Пушкина»

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Учебно-методический комплекс
для студентов 4-го курса специальности 1-02 03 04 Русский язык и
литература. Иностранный язык (английский)

Брест
БрГУ имени А.С. Пушкина
2017

УДК 811.111'36 (07)
ББК 81.2 Англ
Р 82

*Рекомендовано редакционно-издательским советом
Учреждения образования
«Брестский государственный университет имени А.С. Пушкина»*

Рецензенты:
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Кафедра иностранных языков по экономическим специальностям
УО «Брестский государственный технический университет»

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Теоретический курс английского языка: учеб.-метод. комплекс для студентов филологического факультета ун-та / Н.В. Рубанюк, Е.Г. Сальникова ; Брест. гос. ун-т им. А.С. Пушкина. – Брест : БрГУ, 2017. – 200 с.

В УМК «Теоретический курс английского языка» представлен теоретический материал по основным характеристикам грамматических явлений морфологии и синтаксиса, задания к практическим занятиям для работы с иноязычными научными текстами. Приложение содержит основные разделы грамматики английского языка, изложенные на английском и туркменском языках, что способствует дифференциации и индивидуализации обучения. Раздел контроля знаний включает вопросы к зачету, перечень тем рефератов и задания для управляемой самостоятельной работы студентов. Вспомогательный раздел содержит тематический план дисциплины, глоссарий, список учебных и научных изданий на английском и русском языках, рекомендуемых для изучения в рамках данной дисциплины.

Пособие адресовано иностранным студентам филологического факультета, изучающим английский язык как дополнительную специальность.

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Учебно-методический комплекс составлен в соответствии с Образовательным стандартом высшего образования 1-02 03 04 и учебной программой «Теоретический курс английского языка» (рег. № УД-15-003-16/уч. от 30.06.2016) и предназначен для иностранных студентов 4 курса филологического факультета дневной формы получения высшего образования, изучающих английский язык как дополнительную специальность. УМК обеспечивает учебно-методическое сопровождение дисциплины «Теоретический курс английского языка», на изучение которой отводится 64 аудиторных часа (26 ч. лекционных, 32 ч. практических занятий и 6 ч. УСРС).

Целью комплекса является формирование у студентов основных знаний в области теории английского языка для более глубокого понимания его современных закономерностей и особенностей, а также введение студентов в проблематику современных грамматических исследований и методику теоретического и практического анализа языкового материала.

Первая часть УМК включает теоретический материал на английском языке из современных учебных пособий по лингвистике и грамматике, дополняющий предлагаемый студентам лекционный материал. В текстах рассмотрены основные теоретические характеристики грамматических явлений морфологии и синтаксиса. К каждому тексту разработаны вопросы для самоконтроля.

Вторая часть комплекса представляет основные морфологические и синтаксические явления английского языка в русле практической грамматики. Большая часть учебного времени на практических занятиях посвящается обучению студентов методическим приемам работы с изученным теоретическим материалом и формированию навыков вычленения грамматических ошибок в устной и письменной речи.

Третья часть содержит основные разделы грамматики английского языка, изложенные на английском и туркменском языках, что способствует дифференциации и индивидуализации обучения иностранных студентов на филологическом факультете. Выражаем благодарность студентам филологического факультета специальности «Русский язык и литература. Иностраный язык (английский)» В. Чарыеву и Н. Ыбрайымову за помощь при редактировании текста на туркменском языке.

Включенные в УМК темы для самостоятельного изучения, вопросы к зачету, темы рефератов позволяют организовать управляемую самостоятельную работу студентов. Кроме того, УМК глоссарий, список

учебных и научных изданий, рекомендуемых для изучения в рамках данной дисциплины.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

Тема 1. Система и структура языка. Грамматический строй языка

Основные понятия, цели и задачи дисциплины. Уровни языка. Предмет и задачи теоретической грамматики. Морфология и синтаксис как два основных раздела грамматики. Синтагматический и парадигматический аспекты грамматики. Грамматическая форма и грамматическое значение, грамматические категории. Сравнительная характеристика грамматического строя современных английского и русского языков.

Тема 2. Словарный состав современного английского языка

Общая характеристика словарного состава современного английского языка, его особенности и системная организация. Структурные и деривационные типы слов, продуктивные модели словопроизводства.

Тема 3. Морфемная структура слова

Морфология. Слово, морфема. Определение морфемы. Ее статус в уровневой системе языка в соотношении со словом. Традиционная классификация морфем, их позиционная и семантическая характеристика. Корень и аффиксы. Лексические и грамматические морфемы. Внешняя и внутренняя флексия. Особенности флексий в английском языке.

Тема 4. Проблема частей речи в отечественной и зарубежной лингвистике. Теория частей речи

Понятие части речи как лексико-грамматического класса слов. Критерии выделения частей слов: семантический, формальный, функциональный. Основные части речи в традиционной классификации. Проблема деления частей речи на знаменательные и служебные. Сходства и расхождения в системе частей речи английского и русского языков.

Тема 5. Знаменательные части речи

Имя существительное: категория падежа; категория рода; категория числа; категория определенности/неопределенности. Имя прилагательное: категория степеней сравнения прилагательных. Синтетические и аналитические формы степеней сравнения. Глагол: категория лица и числа; категория времени; категория вида; категория залога; категория наклонения (модальности). Межъязыковая интерференция в сфере основных грамматических категорий; типичные ошибки, связанные с языковой интерференцией в сфере морфологических систем английского и русского языков.

Тема 6. Служебные части речи и служебные слова

Артикль, предлог/послелог, союз, частица, глагол-связка, вспомогательный глагол.

Тема 7. Синтаксис словосочетания

Типы словосочетания. Способы связи в словосочетаниях. Устойчивые словосочетания. Проблема определения словосочетания. Знаменательные и служебные словосочетания; свободные и устойчивые словосочетания. Согласование, управление, примыкание.

Тема 8. Основные признаки и категории предложения. Классификация предложений. Актуальное членение предложения

Понятие коммуникативного типа предложения. Основные коммуникативные типы предложения: повествовательный, вопросительный, побудительный. Понятие актуального членения предложения (информативная перспектива предложения). Соотношение актуального членения предложения и логического членения суждения. Компоненты актуального членения: тема, рема, переход. Языковые средства выражения актуального членения: фонетические (интонационные), грамматические (детерминативы, интенсификаторы, специальные грамматические конструкции).

ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

№	Наименование темы	Количество аудиторных часов		Часы УСР	Всего
		в том числе			
		Лекций	Практических занятий		
1	Система и структура языка. Грамматический строй языка	2	–	–	2
2	Словарный состав современного английского языка	2	2	–	4
3	Морфемная структура слова	4	4	2	10
4	Проблема частей речи в отечественной и зарубежной лингвистике. Теория частей речи	2	2	–	4
5	Знаменательные части речи	8	12	2	22
6	Служебные части речи и служебные слова	4	6	–	10
7	Синтаксис словосочетания	2	2	–	4
8	Основные признаки и категории предложения. Классификация предложений. Актуальное членение предложения	2	4	2	8
Всего		26	32	6	64

I ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ МАТЕРИАЛ

Тема 1. Система и структура языка. Грамматический строй языка

Language as a System and as a Structure

Language in modern linguistics is looked upon as a system of relationships or as an elaborate structure of mutually supporting parts, arranged in some hierarchical order. A language is a highly integrated system. In that sense all modern linguistics, regardless of the particular school of thought, is “structural”.

Language is a structure containing several systems (phoneme – morpheme – lexeme – utterance).

A consequence of the view of language as a structure is that linguistics operates largely with relational concepts. Among these *syntagmatic* versus *paradigmatic* relations have acquired much importance in linguistics.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string). *E. g.*: *Many houses were burnt during the Great Fire of London.* In this sentence the words and word-groups “many houses”, “were burnt”, “many houses were burnt”, “were burnt during the Great Fire”, “the Great Fire of London” are syntagmatically connected.

Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. *E. g.*: *house/s; burn/t.*

Phonemes are connected syntagmatically within morphemes and words, as well as at various juncture points (the processes of assimilation and dissimilation).

Since syntagmatic relations are actually observed in utterances, they are described by the Latin formula as relations “in praesentia” (“in the presence”).

The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic and called *paradigmatic*, are such as exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies find their expression in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set or series of connections based on different formal and functional properties.

In the sphere of phonology such series are built up by the correlations of phonemes on the basis of vocality or consonantism, voicedness or devoicedness, the factor of nasalization, the factor of length, etc. In the sphere of the vocabulary these series are founded on the correlations of synonymy and antonymy, on various topical connections, on different word-building dependencies. In the domain of grammar, series of related forms realize grammatical numbers and cases, persons and tenses, gradations of modalities, sets of sentence patterns of various functional nature, etc.

Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations cannot be directly observed in utterances, that is why they are referred to as relations “in absentia” (“in the absence”).

Paradigmatic relations coexist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realization of any paradigmatic series. This is especially evident in a classical grammatical paradigm which presents a productive series of forms each consisting of a syntagmatic connection of two elements: one common for the whole of the series (stem), the other specific for every individual form in the series (grammatical feature – inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). Grammatical paradigms express various grammatical categories.

Grammar in the Systemic Conception of Language

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Language incorporates the three constituent parts (“sides”), each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature. These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. Only the unity of these three elements forms a language; without any one of them there is no human language in the above sense.

The phonological system is the subfoundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative units. The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and stable word-groups. The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as the embodiment of thinking process.

Each of the three constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Thus, the phonological description of language is effected by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is effected by the science of grammar.

The nature of grammar as a constituent part of language is better understood in the light of explicitly discriminating the two planes of language, namely, the plane of content and the plane of expression.

The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of expression comprises the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, apart from the meanings rendered by them. The two planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realised without some material means of expression. Grammatical elements of language

present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning).

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, we may say that the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline is, in the long run, to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the formation of utterances out of the stocks of words as part of the process of speech production.

Modern linguistics lays a special stress on the systemic character of language and all its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs (meaningful units) which are closely interconnected and interdependent.

Each system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The common function of all the lingual signs is to give expression to human thoughts.

Furthermore, bearing in mind that the phonemic level forms the subfoundation of language, i. e. the non-meaningful matter of meaningful expressive means, the two notions of grammatical description shall be pointed out as central even within the framework of the structural hierarchy of language: these are, first, the notion of the word and, second, the notion of the sentence. The first is analysed by morphology, which is the grammatical teaching of the word; the second is analysed by syntax, which is the grammatical teaching of the sentence.

Categorial Structure of the Word

Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings. These features determine the grammatical form of the word.

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics.

For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural suffix *-(e)s*, and in some cases by other, more specific means, such as phonemic interchange and a few lexeme-bound suffixes. *Cf.: faces, branches; lives; heroes, pianos; oxen, children; swine, sheep, deer; cod, trout, men, women, feet, teeth, mice; formulae; data; nuclei; analyses, axes; phenomena, criteria.*

As we see, the grammatical form presents a division of the word on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

The most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena are referred to in logic as “categorial notions”, or “categories”. The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic

correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorial grammatical meanings. The forms themselves are identified within definite paradigmatic series.

The categorial meaning (*e. g.* the grammatical number) unites the individual meanings of the correlated paradigmatic forms (*e. g.* singular – plural) and it is exposed through them; hence, the meaning of the grammatical category and the meaning of the grammatical form are related to each other on the principle of the logical relation between the categorial and generic notions.

As for the grammatical category itself, it presents the same as the grammatical “form”, a unity of form (*i. e.* material factor) and meaning (*i. e.* ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically, the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm.

Questions:

1. What is language? Find all the definitions in the text.
2. Speak about paradigmatic vs syntagmatic relations.
3. Give your own examples of language paradigms.
4. Why are paradigmatic relations called relations “in the absence”?
5. Name all the systems that constitute language. What linguistic disciplines study them?
6. What is the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline?
7. What are the main units of grammar?
8. Do all words possess grammatical meaning?
9. What correlation exists between a grammatical form and a grammatical meaning?
10. Define the term “grammatical category”.

Тема 2. Словарный состав современного английского языка

What Is a Word? What Is Lexicology?

Lexicology, a branch of linguistics, is the study of words.

It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects.

First, the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication*.

Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it.

Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word.

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings.

Another structural aspect of the word is its unity. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic unity.

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between *a blackbird* and *a black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word *blackbird*, which is characterized by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbird's*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group *a black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest birds I've ever seen*. Other words can be inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: *a black night bird*.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group *a black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* – a kind of living creature; *black* – a colour.

The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

A further structural feature of the word is its susceptibility to grammatical employment. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realized.

All that we have said about the word can be summed up as follows. The *word* is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially

representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

Main Lexicological Problems

On the syntagmatic level, the semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech. In other words, the semantic characteristics of the word are observed, described and studied on the basis of its typical contexts.

On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning (e. g. *work*, n. – *labour*, n.; *to refuse*, v. – *to reject*, v. – *to decline*, v.), of opposite meaning (e. g. *busy*, adj. – *idle*, adj.; *to accept*, v. – *to reject*, v.), of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. *man*, n. – *chap*, n. – *bloke*, n. – *guy*, n.). Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are synonymy, antonymy, functional styles.

Phraseology is the branch of lexicology specializing in word-groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning, e. g. *to take the bull by the horns*, *to see red*, *birds of a feather*, etc.

One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. The vocabulary can be studied synchronically, that is, at a given stage of its development, or diachronically, that is, in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form. The opposition of the two approaches accepted in modern linguistics is nevertheless disputable as the vocabulary, as well as the word which is its fundamental unit, is not only what it is now, at this particular stage of the language's development, but, also, what it was centuries ago and has been throughout its history.

Major Types of Word-Formation in Modern English

Definition of affixation and general classification of affixes

Affixation [from Latin *affigere* 'to attach to'] is the formation of new words by adding derivative affixes to derivational bases.

Since the Old English period affixation has always been one of the most important resources of vocabulary replenishment, though affixes differ greatly in the number of the words they cause to be derived. According to the number of words they create all affixes may be classified into **productive**, as *un-*, *re-*, *-er*, *-ish* and **non-productive**, as, for example, the affixes *demi-*, *-ard*, *-hood*.

From the point of view of their current participation in word-formation processes the derivational affixes are divided into **active** and **non-active**, or **dead** affixes as *for-* in *forgive*, *forbid*, *forget*, *-d* in *dead*, *seed*, and *-t* in *gift*.

Other classifications of affixes may also be made from the point of view:

- of their *origin* into **native** (*-dom*, *-hood*, *-ship*; *under-*, *over-*, *out-*) and **borrowed** (*-able*, *-ist*, *-ism*; *dis-*, *inter-*, *re-*, *non-*);

- of *motivation* into **motivated** (*-like, -some, under-*) and **non-motivated** (*-er, -ish*);
- of their *functional characteristics* into **convertive**, or **class-changing** affixes that change the words they are added to into another part of speech (*horse, n – unhorse, v, bark, n – debark, v*), and **nonconvertive**, or **class-maintaining** affixes (*moral, a – amoral, a, president, n – ex-president, n*);
- of the *number of concepts* standing behind them into **monosemantic** (*-al adj suf* “of relating to, or characterized by”) and **polysemantic** affixes (*-ist* 1) “one that performs a specified action’ as in *cyclist*, or ‘produces a specified thing’ as in *novelist*; 2) ‘one that specializes in a specified art or science or skill’ as in *geologist*; 3) ‘one that adheres to or advocates a specified doctrine or system or code of behavior’ as in *royalist*). One should be aware that the meaning of an affix should be studied alongside the character of the derivational pattern of a derived word with which the affix is used. Thus the general meaning of the suffix *-er* “doer” acquires a more specific meaning ‘person, animal or instrument that does’ when it is added to the verbal derivational base like *work* in *worker*, or the meaning ‘the person belonging to a place’ when it is added to the nominal base like in *Londoner, Britisher, sixth-former*.

Like any other lexical units, affixes may be **homonymous** like *-al* acting as an adjective-forming suffix as in *fictional* and a homonymous noun-forming suffix as in *rehearsal, arrival*.

As mentioned above, there are two major types of affixes in English that take into account their structural position in relation to the base they are added to: **prefixes** and **suffixes**. Prefixation and suffixation are similar but they are also highly specific word-formation processes.

The number of prefixes (from Latin *pre-* ‘before’ + *fix* – fr. *of figere* ‘to attach’ = to attach before) in modern English is estimated to be from 50 to 80.

Suffixation [NL *suffixum* from Latin *suffixere* ‘to attach underneath’ from *sub-* ‘under’ + *figere* ‘to fasten’] is the formation of words with the help of suffixes.

Compounding

Word compounding (word composition) is a universal way of deriving new words. It is also one of the most ancient, productive and active types of word-formation in English. About one-third of all derived words in modern English are compounds.

Word compounding is a kind of word-formation based on combining two immediate constituents (IC) where each is a derivational base.

Derivational bases in compounds may have different degrees of complexity: one or each of them may be simple as in *snow+man*, derived as in *shoe+(make+er)* or even compound as in *water+(boat+man)* ‘a pond-bug’. But most English compounds have two simple bases, or, from the point of view of morphological

analysis, two roots as in *water-gun* or *snow-man*. In other Germanic languages the number of roots in a compound is very often more than two.

The meaning of many compounds is quite transparent and may be easily deduced from the lexical meaning of their constituent parts and common knowledge about the relations of the concepts they stand for, as in the examples above. Nevertheless, many compounds have non-transparent meaning because along with morphological derivational processing of compounding the process of lexical-semantic derivation may take place there.

As a result of these processes the idiomaticity and unpredictability of a new word derived in this way becomes greater which requires much memorizing on the part of the learner. A *green-bug*, for example, is ‘a *green aphid* very destructive to small grains’, *green dragon* is ‘an *American arum* with digitate leaves, slender greenish yellow spathe, and elongated spandex’, *greenroom* is ‘a *room in a theater* or concert hall where actors or musicians relax before, between or after appearances’, *green-heart* is a ‘*tropical South American evergreen tree* with a hard somewhat greenish wood’.

Questions:

1. What are the principles of defining a word?
2. Distinguish between the external and the internal structures of the word.
3. Explain the notions of “formal unity” and “semantic unity” of the word.
4. What are the main problems of lexicological paradigmatic studies?
5. Name the principles of classifying affixes.
6. Explain the term “homonymous affixes”. Give your own examples.
7. Give examples of the most productive prefixes and suffixes.
8. What is word compounding?
9. Name the most common pattern of English word compounding.
10. Give your own examples of compounds possessing idiomaticity.

Тема 3. Морфемная структура слова

Morphemic Structure of the Word

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the morphemic structure of words. It follows from this that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: the morpheme and the word. But the morpheme is not identified otherwise than part of the word; the

functions of the morpheme are effected only as the corresponding constituent functions of the word as a whole.

For instance, the form of the verbal past tense is built up by means of the dental grammatical suffix: *train-ed* [-d]; *publish-ed* [-t]; *meditat-ed* [-id].

However, the past tense as a definite type of grammatical meaning is expressed not by the dental morpheme in isolation, but by the verb (i. e. word) taken in the corresponding form (realized by its morphemic composition); the dental suffix is immediately related to the stem of the verb and together with the stem constitutes the temporal correlation in the paradigmatic system of verbal categories.

Thus, in studying the morpheme we actually study the word in the necessary details of its composition and functions.

The morpheme is a meaningful segmental component of the word; the morpheme is formed by phonemes; as a meaningful component of the word it is elementary (i. e. indivisible into smaller segments as regards its significative function).

The word is a nominative unit of language; it is formed by morphemes; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component (i. e. a component indivisible into smaller segments as regards its nominative function); together with other nominative units the word is used for the formation of the sentence – a unit of information in the communication process.

Types of Meaning in Morphemes

Meaning in morphemes has a different character in comparison with other lexical units, namely words.

It is assumed, that like words, some word building morphemes (further ‘morphemes’ for short) may have **lexical meaning: denotational** (especially revealed in root-morphemes, like in *-girl-*) and **connotational** (the suffixes in *piglet* and *horsy* have diminutive and endearing meaning). Connotational meaning may range from positive to derogative as in the following suffixes with denotational meaning of similarity: *woman-ly*, *woman-like*, *woman-ish*.

Besides lexical meaning many morphemes (except roots) may possess **part-of-speech meaning** (*govern-ment*, *teach-er*) as all words do.

In contrast to words and to inflectional endings like *-ed* for the Past Indefinite, word building morphemes *do not* possess grammatical meaning. For example, the root morpheme *-man-* in *man-ly*, *un-man-ly*, possesses neither grammatical meaning of case and number, nor part-of-speech meaning, while the word *a man* does.

In addition to the types of meaning observed in a word, morphemes possess specific meanings of their own. They are differential and distributional meanings.

Differential meaning serves to distinguish one word from another (*over-cook*, *under-cook*, *pre-cook*) and **distributional meaning** is the meaning of morpheme arrangement in a word (certain morphemes usually follow or precede the root as in *ineffective*, some morphemes may occupy different positions like in *ring-finger* and *finger-ring*, *piano-player* and *player-piano*, *billboard* and *board bill*. But difference in their arrangement provides differences in lexical meanings of the nominative units they form).

Classification of Morphemes

Structurally morphemes fall into three groups: **free**, **bound** and **semi-free (semi-bound)**.

A free morpheme coincides with a word form such as *friend* in *friendship*. The majority of English roots are free morphemes.

A bound morpheme is always a part of a word (*friend-ship*). The major part of affixes and some roots, especially in loan words such as *histor-* in *history*, *cor-* in *cordial*, or *not-* in *notion*, are bound.

Some bound morphemes seldom or never occur in other words. They are unique morphemes (*ham-let*, *Notting-ham*, *Prince-ton*) and are mostly observed in native words that became partially demotivated.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. Being extremely narrow, the list of them is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

- 1) the segments -(e)s [-z, -s, -iz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;
- 2) the segments -(e)d [-d, -t, -id]: the past and past participle of verbs;
- 3) the segments -ing: the gerund and present participle;
- 4) the segments -er, -est: the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

Besides free and bound there are also semi-bound morphemes that can occur both as free and bound (*to do well* and *well-done*, *take a half of it* and *half-eaten*).

In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes on the upper level are divided into root-morphemes (roots) and affixal morphemes (affixes). The roots express the concrete, “material” part of the meaning of the word, while the affixes express the specificational part of the meaning of the word, the specifications being of lexico-semantic and grammatico-semantic character.

The roots of notional words are classical lexical morphemes.

The affixal morphemes include prefixes, suffixes, and inflexions (in the tradition of the English school, grammatical inflexions are commonly referred to as “suffixes”). Of these, prefixes and lexical suffixes have word-building functions, together with the root they form the stem of the word; inflexions (grammatical suffixes) express different morphological categories.

The root, according to the positional content of the term (i. e. the border-area between prefixes and suffixes), is obligatory for any word, while affixes are not obligatory. Therefore one and the same morphemic segment of functional (i. e. non-notional) status, depending on various morphemic environments, can in principle be used as an affix (mostly, a prefix), or as a root. *Cf.*:

- *out* – a root-word (preposition, adverb, verbal postposition, adjective, noun, verb);
- *throughout* – a composite word, in which *-out* serves as one of the roots (the categorial status of the meaning of both morphemes is the same);
- *outing* – a two-morpheme word, in which *out* – is a root, and *-ing* is a suffix;
- *outlook, outline, outrage, out-talk, etc.* – words, in which *out-* serves as a prefix;
- *look-out, knock-out, shut-out, time-out, etc.* – words (nouns), in which *-out* serves as a suffix.

Questions:

1. What are two segmental units of morphology?
2. What is morpheme?
3. Name two types of lexical meaning.
4. Give your own examples of morphemes expressing connotational meaning.
5. What morphemes possess part-of-speech meaning? Give your own examples.
6. What morphemes do not possess grammatical meaning?
7. Define the terms “differential meaning” and “distributional meaning”.
8. Distinguish between free, bound and semi-free morphemes.
9. What morpheme is obligatory for any word?
10. Give your own example of a morphemic segment used as an affix and as a root.

Тема 4. Проблема частей речи в отечественной и зарубежной лингвистике. Теория частей речи

Grammatical Classes of Words

The words of language, depending on various formal and semantic features, are divided into grammatically relevant sets or classes. The traditional grammatical classes of words are called “parts of speech”. Since the word is distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic

properties, some scholars refer to parts of speech as “lexico-grammatical” series of words, or as “lexico-grammatical categories”.

It should be noted that the term “part of speech” is purely traditional and conventional, it cannot be taken as in any way defining or explanatory. This name was introduced in the grammatical teaching of Ancient Greece, where the concept of the sentence was not yet explicitly identified in distinction to the general idea of speech, and where, consequently, no strict differentiation was drawn between the word as a vocabulary unit and the word as a functional element of the sentence.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: “semantic”, “formal”, and “functional”. The *semantic* criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the “categorical meaning of the part of speech”. The formal criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The *functional* criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The said three factors of categorial characterization of words are conventionally referred to as, respectively, “meaning”, “form”, and “function”.

In accord with the described criteria, words on the upper level of classification are divided into notional and functional, which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, and the adverb.

The *features of the noun* within the identificational triad “meaning – form – function” are, correspondingly, the following: 1) the categorial meaning of substance (“thingness”); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; the specific suffixal forms of derivation (prefixes in English do not discriminate parts of speech as such); 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

The *features of the adjective*: 1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The *features of the numeral*: 1) the categorial meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal); 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The *features of the pronoun*: 1) the categorial meaning of indication (debus); 2) the narrow sets of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorial changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The *features of the verb*: 1) the categorial meaning of process (presented in the two upper series of forms, respectively, as finite process and non-finite process); 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixed verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The *features of the adverb*: 1) the categorial meaning of the secondary property, i. e. the property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

We have surveyed the identifying properties of the notional parts of speech that unite the words of complete nominative meaning characterized by self-dependent functions in the sentence.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech.

On the principle of “generalized form” only unchangeable words are traditionally treated under the heading of functional parts of speech. As for their individual forms as such, they are simply presented by the list, since the number of these words is limited, so that they needn’t be identified on any general, operational scheme.

The basic functional series of words in English include the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, and the interjection.

The *article* expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The *preposition* expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

The *conjunction* expresses connections of phenomena.

The *particle* unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside other specifying words, should be referred verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The *modal word*, occupying in the sentence a more pronounced or less pronounced detached position, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (*probably, perhaps, etc.*), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily, etc.*), and also of affirmation and negation.

The *interjection*, occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotions.

Each part of speech after its identification is further subdivided into subseries in accord with various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words. This subdivision is sometimes called “subcategorization” of parts of speech.

Thus, nouns are subcategorized into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, concrete and abstract, etc. *Cf.:*

- Mary, Robinson, London, the Mississippi, Lake Erie – girl, person, city, river, lake;

- man, scholar, leopard, butterfly – earth, field, rose, machine;

- coin/coins, floor/floors, kind/kinds – news, growth, water, furniture;

- stone, grain, mist, leaf – honesty, love, slavery, darkness.

Verbs are subcategorized into fully predicative and partially predicative, transitive and intransitive, actional and statal, purely nominative and evaluative, etc. *Cf.:*

walk, sail, prepare, shine, blow – can, may, shall, be, become;

take, put, speak, listen, see, give – live, float, stay, ache, ripen, rain;

write, play, strike, boil, receive, ride – exist, sleep, rest, thrive, revel, suffer;

roll, tire, begin, ensnare, build, tremble – consider, approve, mind, desire, hate, incline.

Adjectives are subcategorized into qualitative and relative, of constant feature and temporary feature (the latter are referred to as “statives” and identified by some scholars as a separate part of speech under the heading of “category of state”), factual and evaluative, etc. *Cf.:*

- long, red, lovely, noble, comfortable – wooden, rural, daily, subterranean, orthographical;

- healthy, sickly, joyful, grievous, wry, blazing – well, ill, glad, sorry, awry, ablaze;

- tall, heavy, smooth, mental, native – kind, brave, wonderful, wise, stupid.

The adverb, the numeral, the pronoun are also subject to the corresponding subcategorizations.

Questions:

1. What other terms for “part of speech” can be used?
2. Explain three criteria of discriminating parts of speech.
3. What parts of speech belong to the notional ones?
4. Name functional parts of speech in English.
5. What are the semantic features of the noun?
6. What are the formal features of the adjective?
7. What are the functional features of the verb?

8. What does the modal verb express?
9. What groups are nouns subcategorized into?
10. Name notional and functional parts of speech in your own language.

Тема 5. Знаменательные части речи

Noun

Nouns are names of objects, i. e. things, human beings, animals, materials and abstract notions (e. g. *table, house, man, girl, dog, lion, snow, sugar, love, beauty*). Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups: **proper names** (e. g. *John, London, the Thames*) and **common nouns**.

Common nouns, in their turn, are subdivided into **countable** nouns and **uncountable** nouns. Countable nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may be either concrete (e. g. *book, student, cat*) or abstract (e. g. *idea, word, effort*). Uncountable nouns are names of objects that cannot be counted. They may also be concrete (e. g. *water, grass, wood*) and abstract (e. g. *information, amazement, time*).

Nouns have the grammatical categories of number and case.

Category of Number

1. **noun + s**: a dog – dogs [z], a book – books [s], a horse – horses [iz].
2. **noun + es** (after *s, ss, x, ch, sh, tch*): a bus – buses, a glass – glasses, a box – boxes, a bench – benches, a brush-brushes.
3. **y – ies**: a fly – flies, army – armies, a city – cities, **but**: a boy – boys, a day – days, a toy – toys, a guy – guys, Mary – Marys.
4. **o + es**: a hero – heroes, a potato – potatoes, a cargo – cargoes, **but**: a piano – pianos, a radio – radios, a photo – photos, a solo – solos, a soprano – sopranos, a kilo – kilos, a kimono – kimonos.
but: a zero – zeroes and a zero – zeros, a mosquito – mosquitos or mosquitoes, a volcano – volcanoes or volcanos, a tornado – tornadoes or tornados, a buffalo – buffaloes or buffalos.
oo + s a zoo-zoos, a cuckoo-cuckoos,
5. **fe – ves** a wife – wives, a knife – knives, a life – lives, a leaf – leaves, a thief – thieves, a shelf – shelves, a wolf – wolves, a half – halves, a loaf – loaves, a calf – calves, **but**: “f” doesn’t change into “v” in the words: a roof – roofs, a chief – chiefs, a safe – safes, a cliff – cliffs, a belief – beliefs, a proof – proofs, a gulf – gulfs, a muff – muffs, a cuff – cuffs, a handkerchief – handkerchiefs.
6. Seven nouns **change the root vowel**: a man – men, a woman – women, a foot – feet, a tooth – teeth, a goose – geese, a mouse – mice, a louse – lice.
7. Two nouns **form the plural in “en”**: an ox – oxen, a child – children.

8. Some nouns have **the same form** for the singular and the plural:

1) craft, grouse, deer, sheep, swine, fish, trout, cod, pike, salmon, carp, mackerel, plaice, *but* a crab – crabs, eels, herrings, lobsters, sardines, sharks;

2) a means of transport, many means of transport; a species of bird – 200 species of birds; a TV series – two TV series; a summons – summons.

9. Words of **Greek** or **Latin** origin: phenomenon – phenomena, criterion – criteria, datum – data, crisis – crises, basis – bases, analysis – analyses, hypothesis – hypotheses, stimulus – stimuli, radius – radii, *but* some of them have acquired English plural forms: formula – formulae and, also, formula – formulas; memorandum – memoranda or memorandums, symposium – symposiums or symposia, index – indices or indexes; antenna – antennae or antennas.

10. **Compound nouns**: editor-in-chief – editors-in-chief, looker-on – lookers-on, brother-in-law – brothers-in-law, a passer-by – passers-by, sister-in-law – sisters-in-law, a man-of-war – men-of-war, *but*: a woman doctor – women doctors, a man driver – men drivers, a boyfriend – boyfriends, a hotel keeper – hotel keepers, a grown-up – grown-ups, a lady-bird – lady-birds, forget-me-not – forget-me-nots, merry-go-round – merry-go-rounds.

11. Some nouns have **only the plural form**: trousers, spectacles, scissors, scales, pants, pyjamas, binoculars, glasses, etc.

12. Some nouns are **plural in the form** but **singular in the meaning**: The *news* is good. *Mumps* is a dangerous disease. *Measles* is mainly the disease of children. *Games*: billiards, darts, draughts, bowls, dominoes, etc. *Billiards* is a very interesting game. The names of *subjects* and *sciences*: phonetics, physics, optics.

13. Some words are **singular in the form** but **plural in the meaning**: police are..., cattle are..., people are...

14. **Collective nouns** can take a singular or a plural verb: Our *team* is the best. Our *team* are wearing their new jerseys (a number of individuals is meant). *Jury, crowd, group, family, parliament, crew, committee, delegation, etc.*

15. **Special notes for Russian learners** of the English language. *Advice, knowledge, information, hair (hairs), money, progress* are used **only in the singular**, *but*: a glove – gloves, a stocking – stockings, a mitten – mittens, a sledge – sledges, a watch – watches.

16. **In the plural**: clothes are... belongings are, savings are, earnings are, whereabouts are..., stairs are, riches are wages are..., goods are...outskirts are, slums are.

17. Pay attention:

a custom – customs (taxes on goods – only customs); a work – works (a work of art, *but* a chemical works); damage – damages (compensation for the damage); export, import (process) – exports, imports (goods); paper – a paper

(a newspaper or a test paper); a draught – draughts – currents of air, draughts – a game; a glass = a cup, glasses = spectacles; a penny – 5 pence, 5 pennies.

18. Scotland are playing in a football match next week.

Five thousand pounds was stolen (sum of money).

Three years is a long time (a period of time).

Three kms is not a long distance (distance).

19. **A week's holiday.** A three-week holiday or three weeks' holiday.
Five dozen eggs, six million people but millions of people.

20. He goes out in all weathers.

Possessive Case

To show possession, both *the of-phrase* and *the possessive case 's* can be used.

1. Nouns usually form possessives by adding 's. After a singular noun 's is used, after a plural noun (which ends in -s) only the apostrophe (') is used. If a plural noun does not end in -s, we use 's: *my son's room, my sons' room, Mr. Brown's flat, the Browns' flat, children's toy.*

The apostrophe 's can be used with a word combination after the last noun: *Mr. and Mrs. White's house, Bill and Jane's wedding.*

The 's form can be used without a following noun if the noun is used already: Tom's flat is smaller than Ann's (= Ann's flat).

2. The 's form is obligatory with:

a) names of shops: *baker's* (shop), but: *bakery*;

b) names of places where people live: at my *granny's* (house);

c) time words (*today, tomorrow, Friday, etc.*): Have you still got last *Sunday's* newspaper?

d) periods of time; mind that with plurals only the apostrophe (') is used: Jack has got *a week's* leave. I need *eight hours'* sleep a night.

3. Normally the apostrophe 's is used when the first noun is a person or an animal: *the manager's* office, *the horse's* tail.

Otherwise (with things) the *of-phrase* is normally used: the door of the room / the beginning of the tale.

Sometimes 's can be used when the first noun is a thing, but it is safer and more common to use *the of-phrase*: the book's title / the title **of** the **book**.

4. Both the 's-form and *the of-phrase* can be used:

a) when the first noun is an organization (= *a group of people*): *the government's* bill / the bill *of the government*;

b) with places: *Britain's* largest fortress / the largest fortress of Britain, the *world's* coal resources / the coal resources of the world;

c) with nouns denoting parts of the entity, or units of machines and mechanisms: our *plane's* engines / the engines of our plane, the *table's* legs / the legs of the table;

d) with nouns of special interest to human activity: *science's influence / influence of science.*

Pronoun

The pronoun is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them.

Classification of pronouns

Pronouns fall under the following groups:

- 1) **personal** pronouns: *I, he, she, it, we, you, they*;
- 2) **possessive** pronouns: *my, his, her, its, our, your, their; mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*;
- 3) **reflexive** pronouns: *myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself (yourselves), themselves*;
- 4) **reciprocal** pronouns: *each other, one another*;
- 5) **demonstrative** pronouns: *this (these), that (those), such, (the) same*;
- 6) **interrogative** pronouns: *who, whose, what, which*;
- 7) **relative** pronouns: *who, whose, which, that, as*;
- 8) **conjunctive** pronouns: *who, whose, which, what*;
- 9) **defining** pronouns: *each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another*;
- 10) **indefinite** pronouns: *some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, one*;
- 11) **negative** pronouns: *no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing*.

There is no uniformity of morphological and syntactical characteristics in the groups of pronouns. Some pronouns have the grammatical categories of **person, gender, case, and number**. The categories of person and gender (in the third person singular) exist only in personal, and possessive pronouns.

Pronouns as well as nouns have two cases but whereas some pronouns (e. g. personal pronouns and the relative and interrogative *who*) have the nominative and objective cases, others (e. g. indefinite pronouns such as *somebody*, reciprocal pronouns such as *one another*, negative pronouns such as *nobody*) have the common and genitive cases.

The category of number is found in demonstrative pronouns (*this* and *that*) and the defining pronoun *other*.

Many pronouns are characterised by double syntactical use (they may be used as subject, predicative, object, and at the same time as attribute). Here belong demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns, etc.

Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns have the grammatical categories of person, case, number and (in the third person singular) gender.

The personal pronouns have **two cases**: the **nominative** case and the **objective** case.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns have the same distinctions of **person**, **number**, and **gender** as personal pronouns.

Possessive pronouns have two forms, namely the **dependent (or conjoint)** form and the **independent (or absolute)** form.

The **conjoint** form is used when the possessive pronoun comes before the noun it modifies. The conjoint form of the possessive pronoun is used as an attribute. *In **his** turn old Jolyon looked back at **his** son.*

The **absolute** form is used when the possessive pronoun does not modify any noun. “**Yours** (sum of money) won’t come short of a hundred thousand, my boy,” said old Jolyon.

I know Tom	Tom knows me	It’s my car	It’s mine
We know Tom	Tom knows us	It’s our car	It’s ours
You know Tom	Tom knows you	It’s your car	It’s yours
He knows Tom	Tom knows him	It’s his car	It’s his
She knows Tom	Tom knows her	It’s her car	It’s hers
They know Tom	Tom knows them	It’s their car	It’s theirs

Reflexive pronouns

1. Reflexive pronouns have the categories of **person**, **number**, and **gender** in the third person singular.

I	myself	I looked at myself in the mirror.
he	himself	He cut himself with a knife.
she	herself	She fell off her bike, but she didn’t hurt herself .
you	yourself	Please help yourself . (<i>one person</i>)
	yourselves	Please help yourselves . (<i>two or more people</i>)
we	ourselves	We had a good holiday. We enjoyed ourselves .
they	themselves	They had a nice time. They enjoyed themselves .

2. Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence in which they are used, indicating that the action performed by the doer passes back to him or is associated with him. In the sentence they are usually used as direct objects.

Reciprocal pronouns

1. Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns *each other* and *one another*. They express mutual action or relation. The subject to which they refer must always be in the plural. *Each other* generally implies only two, *one another* two or more than two persons: *They raced **each other** home. We haven’t set eyes on **one another** for years.*

2. Reciprocal pronouns have two case forms.

Girls banged into each other and stamped on each other's feet.

Demonstrative pronouns

The demonstrative pronouns are *this, that, such, (the) same*.

The demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* have two numbers: *this – these; that – those*.

This is used to point at what is nearer in time or space; *that* points at what is farther away in time or space. *He looked him over critically. "Yes, this boy might do," he thought. Do you remember that film we saw yesterday?*

This and *that* may be applied both to persons and things.

The pronoun *such*: *You should not be in such a hurry.*

The pronoun *same* is always used with the definite article: *The same fate awaits us all.*

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in inquiry, to form special questions. They are: *who, whose, what, which*.

The interrogative pronoun *who* has the category of case: the nominative case is *who*, the objective case *whom*. *Who* refers to human beings: *Slipping her hand under his arm, she said: "Who was that?"*

What when not attributive usually refers to things but it may be applied to persons when one inquires about their occupation. *What did you say? What was he? – A painter.*

Which has a selective meaning: it corresponds to the Russian 'который из' (an individual of the group). It may refer to persons and things. *Which side of the bed do you like, Mum?*

Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns (*who, whose, which, that, as*) not only point back to a noun or a pronoun mentioned before but also have conjunctive power. They introduce attributive clauses. The word they refer to is called their antecedent. It may be a noun or a pronoun.

Who is used in reference to human beings or animals. *Whose* is mainly used in reference to human beings or animals but it may be applied to things. *Which* is used in reference to things and animals.

That is mainly used in reference to animals and things. It may also be used in reference to human beings.

As usually introduces attributive clauses when the demonstrative pronoun *such* is used in the principal clause (it is a rare case when *as* is used without *such* in the principal clause). *As* may refer to living beings and things.

Defining pronouns

The defining pronouns are: *all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, either, both, other, another.*

All is a generalizing pronoun, it takes a group of things or persons as a whole. *We all know him.*

Both points out two persons, things or notions mentioned before. *She's invited us both.* The pronoun *both* may be used as subject, object, and attribute.

Each and *every* refer to all the members of the group of persons, things, or notions mentioned before and taken one by one. When used as subject, *each* etc. require a verb in the singular. *Each side of a cube is equal to each other side. He spends every penny he earns.*

Everybody, everyone refer to all the members of the group of persons mentioned before or taken one by one.

The pronouns *everybody, everyone* have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

Either has two meanings: a) each of the two, b) one or the other. *You can take either of the two routes. Either of the examples is correct.*

Other denotes some object different from the one mentioned before.

Other has **two numbers**: singular – *other*; plural – *others*. It has **two cases**: the common case and the genitive case (*other's, others'*). *Where is the other glove? You are not fair to the others.*

Another has two meanings: 1) a different one, 2) an additional one. *He has learnt sheep-farming at another place. I broke my knife. Please bring me another one.*

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns point out some person or thing indefinitely. The indefinite pronouns are *some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything, one.*

The pronouns *somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, one* have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

Some is chiefly used in affirmative sentences while *any* is used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses. *We spread down some wide blankets. But his chief trouble was that he did not know any editors or writers. If you have any new books, show them to me please.*

When used with nouns of material *some* and *any* have the meaning of indefinite quantity. *Now run along and get some candy, and don't forget to give some to your brothers and sisters.*

Some, not *any*, is used in special and general questions expressing some request or proposal. *"Do you want some water?" – "No, I don't want any water."*

Some may have the meaning of 'certain' (некоторые) before a noun in the plural. *You have some queer customers.*

Any may be used in affirmative sentences with the meaning of ‘every’ (любой). Ask **any** person you meet.

Somebody, someone, something are chiefly used in affirmative sentences.

Anybody, anyone, anything are used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

The indefinite-personal pronoun *one* is often used in the sense of any person or every person. *New York presents so many temptations for **one** to run into extravagance.*

The pronoun *one* may be used in the genitive case. *I know exactly what it feels like to be held down on **one**'s back.*

One may be used as a word-substitute. *I've lost my umbrella and have to buy a new **one**.* As a word-substitute *one* may be used in the plural.

Negative pronouns

Most of the indefinite pronouns correspond to negative pronouns: *some – no, none; something – nothing, none; somebody, someone – nobody, no one, none.* Some defining pronouns also correspond to negative pronouns: *everything – nothing; all, everybody, every, each – no, none, nobody; both, either – neither.*

The negative pronoun *no* is used only before a noun as its attribute. *No Forsyte can stand it for a minute.*

The negative pronoun *none* may be applied both to human beings and things. *None of us can hold on for ever!*

The negative pronouns *nobody, no one* refer to human beings. They correspond to the indefinite pronouns *somebody, someone* and to the defining pronouns *all, every, each, everybody.*

The negative pronoun *nobody* may be used in the genitive case: *nobody's.*

The negative pronoun *nothing* refers to things. It is opposite to the indefinite pronoun *something* and to the defining pronoun *everything.* *And **nothing** of vital importance had happened after that till the year turned.*

The negative pronoun *neither* is opposite to the defining pronouns *either, both.* *Neither of them answered.*

The negative pronouns *nobody, no one, nothing* are singular in meaning and when they are used as the subject of the sentence they require a verb in the singular (see the above examples).

Adjective

An adjective tells you more about a noun. It is used before a noun and after a few verbs (be, become, feel, get, smell, taste, sound, seem, look in the meaning of seem): *He is a good engineer. This pie tastes strange. Be quiet, please.*

Adjectives like *large, tall, wooden* are **fact** adjectives. They give you objective information about something (age, size, colour etc.). Adjectives like *nice, good, beautiful* are **opinion** adjectives. They tell you what someone thinks of something. Opinion adjectives usually go before fact adjectives: *a nice sunny day, an intelligent young man*.

Sometimes there are two or more fact adjectives. Very often (but not always) we put fact adjectives in this order:

1 how big?	2 how old?	3 what colour?	4 where from?	5 what is it made of?	NOUN
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a large wooden table, a white cotton shirt, a small black plastic bag.

Adjectives of size and length usually go before adjectives of shape and width: *a tall thin girl, a long narrow street*.

The words *fast, hard, late* are both adjectives and adverbs.

When they are used before nouns they are adjectives, when after verbs – they are adverbs. Compare:

Ann is a hard worker. Ann works hard.

He was late for school. He got up late this morning.

There are many pairs of adjectives ending in *-ing* and *-ed*. Someone is **-ed** if something (or someone) is **-ing**. Or, if something is **-ing**, it makes you **-ed**. *Ted is bored because his job is boring. Ted's job is boring, so Ted is bored.*

There are two ways to form the degrees of comparison of regular adjectives. Short (one- or two-syllable) ones form **the comparative degree** with the help of the suffix **-er** and **the superlative degree** – with the suffix **-est** added to their base form. The superlative degree has the definite article: *nice – nicer – the nicest; heavy – heavier – the heaviest*.

Long adjectives form **their comparative degree** with the help of the adverb **more** and **the superlative degree** – with the adverb **most** used before them: *interesting – more interesting – the most interesting; beautiful – more beautiful – the most beautiful*.

The degrees of comparison of irregular adjectives should be learnt by heart: *good – better – the best; bad – worse – the worst; far – farther / further – the farthest / furthest*.

Less quality of the objects named by adjectives can also be compared: *Ann is not so beautiful as Sally. Ann isn't as beautiful as Sally. Ann is less beautiful than Sally*.

The least degree of quality is expressed in the following way: *This is the least interesting film I've seen lately*.

Two objects can be equal in quality named by the adjective. In positive sentences and questions you use **as ... as**: *It is as cold today as it was yesterday. Is he as clever as his father?*

You can also say **the same as** (not “the same like”): *George is of the same age as Alan.*

You also say **twice as ... as**, **three times as ... as**, etc.: *Their house is three times as big as ours.*

Sometimes an object is acquiring or losing quality by degrees: *Your French is getting better and better. I am becoming more and more interested with my job.*

Adverb

Adverbs are used after verbs: *We didn't go out because it was raining heavily.* Adverbs can also be used before adjectives, other adverbs and Participle II: *The examination was surprisingly easy. She speaks German very well.*

According to the meaning, adverbs may indicate: 1) time (*yesterday, never*); 2) manner (*carefully, hard*); 3) place (*here, outside*); 4) degree (*much, quite*). Only manner adverbs have a recognizable form, most of them consist of the ending **-ly** on an adjective base (*quickly, clearly*). Other adverbs cannot be recognised by their form. Mind that the adverbs *hardly* and *lately* have a meaning different to that of *hard* and *late*.

The adverbs **such** and **so** make the meaning of adjectives stronger. **Such** is used with an adjective and a noun while **so** is used with an adjective without a noun: *We enjoyed the book. The story was so fascinating. We enjoyed the book. It was such a fascinating story.*

You say *so long* but *such a long time*; *so far* but *such a long way*; *so many*, *so much* but *such a lot (of)*: *I didn't know you lived so far / such a long way from the city centre. Why did you buy so much / such a lot of food?*

The adverb **enough** goes after adjectives and adverbs but before nouns:

You can't get married yet. You're not old enough. He won't pass the exam if he doesn't work hard enough. I'd like to go on holiday but I haven't got enough money.

After the adverbs **enough** and **too** you can use for someone / something or to + Infinitive: *I've got enough money for a holiday at the sea. Let's take a taxi. It's too far to walk.*

Adverbs form their **degrees of comparison** in two ways. Regular short (one-syllable) adverbs form the comparative degree with the help of the suffix **-er** and the superlative degree – with the suffix **-est** added to the base form: *hard – harder – hardest; fast – faster – fastest.*

Long (two- and more syllable) adverbs form the comparative degree with the adverb **more** and the superlative degree – with the adverb **most** used before them: *slowly – more slowly – most slowly; skillfully – more skillfully – most skillfully.*

The degrees of comparison of irregular adverbs should be learnt by heart: *well – better – best; badly – worse – worst; much – more – most; little – less – least; far – farther – farthest.*

Other structures to compare how the action is done can also be used with adverbs. They are as follows: *as ... as, not so ... as, the ... the*, etc.: *He ran as fast as he could. The more you learn the more you know.*

Verb

The verb is a part of speech which denotes an action. The verb has the following grammatical categories: **person, number, tense, aspect, voice** and **mood**. These categories can be expressed by means of affixes, inner flexion (change of the root vowel) and by form words.

Verbs may be **transitive** and **intransitive**.

Verbs have **finite forms** which can be used as the predicate of a sentence and **non-finite forms** which cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

The **basic forms** of the verb in Modern English are: the **Infinitive**, the **Past Indefinite** and **Participle II**: *to speak – spoke – spoken.*

According to the way in which the Past Indefinite and Participle II are formed, verbs are divided into three groups: regular verbs, **irregular** verbs, and **mixed** verbs.

Regular verbs. They form the Past Indefinite and Participle II by adding *-ed* to the stem of the verb, or only *-d* if the stem of the verb ends in *-e*.

Irregular verbs. Here belong the following groups of verbs:

- a) verbs which change their root vowel: *to sing – sang – sung;*
- b) verbs which change their root vowel and add *-en* for Participle II: *to speak – spoke – spoken;*
- c) verbs which change their root vowel and add *-d* or *-t*: *to bring – brought – brought;*
- d) verbs which change their final *-d* into *-t*: *to build – built – built;*
- e) verbs which have the same form for the Infinitive, Past Indefinite and Participle II: *to put – put – put;*
- f) verbs whose forms come from different stems: *to be – was, were – been;*
- g) special irregular verbs: *to have – had – had.*

Mixed verbs. Their Past Indefinite is of the regular type, and their Participle II is of the irregular type: *to show – showed – shown.*

According to the **syntactic function** of verbs, which depends on the extent to which they retain, weaken or lose their meaning, they are divided into notional verbs, **auxiliary** verbs and **link** verbs.

Notional verbs are those which have a full meaning of their own and can be used without any additional words as a simple predicate. Here belong such verbs as *to write, to read, to speak, to know, to ask*.

Auxiliary verbs are those which have lost their meaning and are used only as form words, thus having only a grammatical function. They are used in analytical forms. Here belong such verbs as *to do, to have, to be, shall, will, should, would, may*.

Link verbs are verbs which to a smaller or greater extent have lost their meaning and are used in the compound nominal predicate.

In different contexts the same verb can be used as a notional verb and an auxiliary verb or a link verb.

There is a special group of verbs which cannot be used without additional words, though they have a meaning of their own. These are modal verbs such as *can, may, must, ought, etc.*

A verb can be **transitive** and **intransitive**. Transitive verbs can take a direct object, i. e. they express an action which passes on to a person or thing directly. Here belong such verbs as *to take, to give, to send, to make, to see, to show, to bring, to love etc.*

There are some transitive verbs which are hardly ever used without a direct object, such as *to take, to make, to give, to have*.

Intransitive verbs cannot take a direct object. Here belong such verbs as *to stand, to sleep, to laugh, to think, to lie, to swim*.

The verb has the grammatical categories of **person, number, tense, aspect, voice** and **mood**.

In Modern English there are but few forms indicating person and number in the synthetic forms of the verb. These are:

- 1) the third person singular Present Indefinite Indicative – *he speaks*.
- 2) the Future Indefinite tense.

I shall speak	We shall speak
He will speak	They will speak

The verb *to be* has suppletive forms for different persons (singular and plural).

I am,	was	We	}	are, were
He is,	was	You		
		They		

The category of **tense** is very clearly expressed in the forms of the English verb. This category denotes the relation of the action either to the moment of speaking or to some definite moment in the past or future. The category of tense and the category of aspect are intermingled.

The category of **aspect** shows the way in which the action develops, whether it is in progress or completed, etc. In Russian the category of aspect

predominates, and the category of tense is subordinated to it. In English contrariwise the category of tense predominates and aspect is subordinated to it. Some of the English tenses denote time relations, others denote both time and aspect relations. There are four groups of tenses: Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect and Perfect Continuous. The Indefinite form has no aspect characteristics whatever, the Continuous, Perfect and Perfect Continuous forms denote both time and aspect relations. Each of these forms includes four tenses: Present, Past, Future and Future in the Past, i. e. future from the point of view of the past. Thus there are 16 tenses in English.

Voice is the category of the verb which indicates relation of the predicate to the subject and the object. There are three voices in English: the **active voice**, the **passive voice**, and the **neuter-reflexive voice**.

The active voice shows that the person or thing denoted by the subject is the doer of the action expressed by the predicate.

The passive voice shows that the person or thing denoted by the subject is acted upon.

The neuter-reflexive voice shows that the action expressed by the predicate passes on to the subject. This voice is formed by means of a reflexive pronoun. *Helen lifted herself up and looked towards nurse.*

Tenses in the Active Voice

The **Indefinite** form merely shows that the action takes place in the present, past or future. The form of the verb gives no indication as to its duration or completion.

The **Continuous** form denotes an action in progress at the present moment or at a given moment in the past or future. It is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* in the required tense and Participle I of the notional verb.

It naturally follows from the definition of the Continuous that verbs which do not express a process are not used in the continuous form.

The following groups of verbs do not express a process:

- a) verbs denoting sense perception (*to see, to hear*);
- b) verbs denoting mental activity (*to know, to believe*);
- c) verbs denoting wish (*to want, to wish*);
- d) verbs denoting feeling (*to love, to hate, to like*);
- e) verbs denoting abstract relations (*to have, to consist, to depend, to belong*).

In such expressions as *to see the sights of, to see somebody home, to see somebody off* the verb *to see* does not mean 'видеть', so it can be used in the Continuous form.

The **Perfect** form denotes an action completed before the present moment (and connected with it) or before a definite moment in the past or future. It is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to have* in the required tense and Participle II of the notional verb.

The **Perfect Continuous** form denotes an action in progress, whose duration before a definite moment in the present, past or future is expressed. It is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* in one of the perfect tenses and Participle I of the notional verb.

Tense Time	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Present	I, we, they work It, he, she works	I <i>am working</i> We, they <i>are working</i> It, he, she <i>is working</i>	I, we, they <i>have worked</i> It, he, she <i>has worked</i>	<i>has / have been working</i>
Past	worked	I, it, he, she <i>was working</i> We, they <i>were working</i>	<i>had worked</i>	<i>had been working</i>
Future	I, we <i>shall work</i> It, he, she, you, they <i>will work</i>	<i>will / shall be working</i>	<i>will / shall have worked</i>	<i>will / shall have been working</i>
Future in the Past	<i>would work</i>	<i>would be working</i>	<i>would have worked</i>	<i>would have been working</i>

Tenses in the Passive Voice

The Passive Voice can be used:

a) without the doer of the action being mentioned (the usual case). In this case the doer is either unknown or unimportant. *Tom Tusher was sent off early, however, to a school in London.*

b) with the doer of the action being mentioned. This occurs only when the doer of the action is to some extent emphasized.

The noun or pronoun denoting the doer of the action is introduced by the preposition *by*. *They were thus introduced by Holly.*

Tense Time	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Present	<i>am is written</i> <i>are</i>	<i>am is being written</i> <i>are</i>	<i>have been written</i> <i>has</i>	
Past	<i>was were written</i>	<i>was were being written</i>	<i>had been written</i>	

Future	<i>shall be written will</i>		<i>will have been written shall have</i>	
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Here is a list of time indicators used in the English tenses.

Tense Time	Indefinite	Continuous	Perfect	Perfect Continuous
Present	Every day (week, morning), often, seldom, usually, as a rule, from time to time, sometimes, always	Now , at this moment Look! Hear! <u>Still</u> : <i>He is still sleeping.</i> <i>He is still at home.</i>	Ever, never, just, yet (? , -), already + (? , - удивление), recently, lately, of late, since, for, this week (month, year	Since For
Past	Yesterday, the day before yesterday, ... years ago, last year / week, in 1900, the other day (<i>на днях</i>), just now (<i>в настоящий момент; только что</i>)	At <u>5</u> o'clock, from <u>5</u> to <u>6</u> , all day long, the whole day, <u>While</u> <i>While I was reading a book, my father was watching TV.</i> <u>When</u> (придаточное) <i>When I came home my father was reading a book.</i> <i>When I was climbing the tree I fell down.</i>	By (к моменту в прошлом) Since For	
Future	Tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, next week, one of these days (<i>на днях</i>)	(At <u>5</u> o'clock, from <u>5</u> to <u>6</u> , all day long, the whole day) + tomorrow <u>When</u> you come tomorrow, <i>I'll be still sleeping</i>	By	

Mood

Mood is a grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality.

We distinguish the **indicative** mood, the **imperative** mood, and the **subjunctive** mood.

The **Indicative Mood** shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact: *We went home early in the evening.*

The **Imperative Mood** expresses a command or a request. In Modern English the Imperative Mood has only one form which coincides with the

infinitive without the particle *to*; it is used in the second person (singular and plural): *Please **put** the papers on the table by the bed.*

The **Subjunctive Mood** shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired. The Subjunctive Mood is also used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker, to real facts: *If only he **were** free!*

The Subjunctive Mood is used in **conditional sentences** to express an unreal condition (in the subordinate clause) and an unreal consequence (in the principal clause).

In sentences of unreal condition referring to the present or future the Past Indefinite of the Indicative Mood is used in the subordinate clause. In the principal clause we find the analytical subjunctive consisting of the mood auxiliary *would* and the Indefinite Infinitive. *The world **would be** healthier if every chemist's shop in England **were** closed.*

In sentences of unreal condition referring to the past the Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood is used in the subordinate clause; in the principal clause we find the analytical subjunctive consisting of the mood auxiliary *would* and the Perfect Infinitive. *If I **had consulted** my own interests, I **should never have come** here.*

There are two mixed types of sentences of unreal condition. In the first of these the condition refers to the past and the consequence refers to the present or future: *If you **had taken** your medicine yesterday, you **would be** well now.*

In the second type the condition refers to no particular time and the consequence to the past: *If he **were** not so absent-minded, he **would not have mistaken** you for your sister.*

Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are used to show the speaker's attitude toward the action or state indicated by the infinitive, i. e. they show that the action indicated by the infinitive is considered as possible, impossible, probable, improbable, obligatory, necessary, advisable, doubtful or uncertain, etc. The modal verbs are: *can (could), may (might), must, should, ought, shall, will, would, need, dare.* The modal expressions *to be + Infinitive* and *to have + Infinitive* also belong here.

Modal verbs are called defective because all of them (except *dare* and *need*) lack verbals and analytical forms (i. e. compound tenses, analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood, the Passive Voice). Besides they do not take *-s* in the third person singular. They also have the following peculiarities:

1) all of them (except *ought* and sometimes *dare* and *need*) are followed by the infinitive without the particle *to*;

2) all of them (except *dare* and *need*) form the negative and the interrogative form without the auxiliary *do*.

Can

The verb *can* has two forms: *can* for the Present Tense and *could* for the Past Tense; the expression *to be able* which has the same meaning can be used to supply the missing forms of the verb *can*.

Can expresses ability or capability, possibility, incredulity or doubt, astonishment:

1. Physical or mental ability. In this meaning it can be used only with the Indefinite Infinitive.

2. Possibility.

a) due to circumstances: *You **can** have the book when I have finished it.*

b) due to the existing laws: *You **cannot** play football in the street (i. e. you have no right).*

Can expressing possibility is used with the Indefinite Infinitive only.

Note. *Could* is often used in polite requests.

***Could** you give us a consultation tomorrow?*

3. Incredulity, doubt, astonishment (they are closely connected).

In these meanings *can* is used with all the forms of the Infinitive in interrogative and negative sentences, though astonishment is expressed only in interrogative sentences.

*She **cannot** have been waiting for us all the time.*

May

The verb *may* has two forms: *may* for the Present Tense and *might* for the Past Tense. The expressions *to be allowed* and *to be permitted*, which have the same meaning, can be used to supply the missing forms of the verb *may*.

*“**May** I come along?” asked Karen.*

May expresses permission, uncertainty, possibility, reproach.

1. Permission. *“**May** I use your phone?”*

2. Uncertainty as to the fulfilment of an action, state or occurrence, supposition implying doubt. *“You **may** think you’re very old,” he said, “but you strike me as extremely young.”*

May denoting uncertainty is used with all the forms of the infinitive.

3. Possibility due to circumstances. *May* is used in this sense only in affirmative sentences. *Can* is also possible in this meaning.

*In this museum you **may** see some interesting things.*

4. Reproach. Only *might* is used in this meaning but not *may*.

*I realize now how you spent your days and why you were so forgetful. Tennis lesson, my eye. You **might have told** me, you know.*

Must

The verb *must* has only one form. The expressions *to have to* and *to be obliged to*, which have the same meaning, can be used to supply the missing tense forms of the verb *must*.

Must expresses obligation, necessity, an urgent command or prohibition, and a supposition bordering on assurance.

1. Obligation, necessity.

a) due to circumstances (in this meaning it is equivalent to *have to* and is used only with the Indefinite Infinitive in affirmative, negative and interrogative sentences): *He must write. He must earn money.*

The absence of necessity is expressed by *need not*: *Must I go there tomorrow? – Yes, you must. (No, you needn't.)*

b) arising out of the nature of man and consequently inevitable: *All experience tended to show that man must die.*

2. A command, an urgent (emphatic) request or a prohibition. In this meaning it is used only with the Indefinite Infinitive. *You must leave the room at once!*

3. Probability or supposition. Supposition bordering on assurance, almost a conviction. In this meaning *must* is used with all the forms of the Infinitive in affirmative sentences only. It corresponds to the Russian *должно быть*. If the action refers to the present the Indefinite Infinitive is used; if the action refers to the past the Perfect Infinitive is used.

Surely, they don't want me for myself. Then they must want me for something else.

Supposition referring to the future cannot be expressed by *must*. The modal word *probably* or the modal expression *to be likely* are to be used instead.

She is not likely to come so late. She will probably come tomorrow.

Should and ought

The modal verbs *should* and *ought* are treated together here as there is hardly any difference between them. Very often they are interchangeable.

I ought to have married; yes, I should have married long ago.

There is, however, a difference in construction. Whereas *should* is followed by the infinitive without the particle *to*, *ought* is always followed by the *to*-infinitive.

When reference is made to the present or future, the Indefinite Infinitive is used.

When reference is made to the past the Perfect Infinitive shows that the obligation was not carried out.

She **ought to have known** that the whole subject was too dangerous to discuss at night.

Both *should* and *ought* express obligation, something which is advisable, proper or naturally expected.

1. Obligation, very often a moral obligation or duty. In this meaning *ought* is used more often than *should*.

2. Advisability.

In this meaning *should* is more common than *ought*, as it always shows some personal interest whereas *ought* is more matter-of-fact. *You should be more careful.*

To be + Infinitive

To be + Infinitive is a modal expression. Some of its meanings are close to those of modal verbs and expressions denoting obligation (*must, shall, should, ought, to have* + Infinitive).

This modal expression can be used in two tenses – the Present Indefinite and the Past Indefinite (*was, were*).

They were to go to Spain for the honeymoon.

To be + Infinitive expresses a weakened order, an arrangement, possibility, something thought of as unavoidable. The ways of rendering this expression in Russian differ in accordance with its meaning.

1. An order which is generally the result of an arrangement made by one person for another, an arrangement which is not to be discussed.

In this case only the Indefinite Infinitive is used. *You are to go straight to your room.*

2. An arrangement, or agreement, part of a plan.

In this meaning both the Indefinite and the Perfect Infinitive can be used; the Perfect Infinitive shows that the action was not carried out.

I'm sorry, Major, we had an agreement. – I was to do the questioning here.

To have + Infinitive

The modal expression *to have* + Infinitive is used in three tense forms: the Present Indefinite, the Past Indefinite and the Future Indefinite. *I have to get up at six every day.*

The negative and interrogative forms of this modal expression are formed with the help of the auxiliary *do*. *Did you have to walk all the way home? I did not have to walk, I took a tram.*

Only the Indefinite Infinitive Active and Passive can be used in this modal expression.

To have + Infinitive expresses an obligation or necessity arising out of circumstances. Its meaning is close to that of *to be obliged*. It is often rendered in Russian by *приходится, должен, вынужден*.

Though both the modal expressions *to be* + Infinitive and *to have* + Infinitive express a shade of obligation or necessity, there is a great difference in their meaning.

C o m p a r e: *As I was to be there at 5 sharp (part of an arrangement), I had to take a taxi (necessity arising out of this arrangement).*

Shall

Shall is never a purely modal verb. It always combines its modal meaning with the function of an auxiliary expressing futurity.

In interrogative sentences *shall* is used in the first and third persons to inquire after the wish of the person addressed. ***Shall I shut the door, madam?***

Will

Will is hardly ever a purely modal verb. It generally combines its modal meaning with the function of an auxiliary expressing futurity.

The modal verb *will* expresses volition, intention on the part of the speaker, or insistence.

In most cases this meaning is rendered in Russian by emphatic intonation, but sometimes the verb *хотеть* is used. It is used with all persons but mostly with the first person.

The modal verb *will* is used in polite requests. ***Will you have a cup of tea? Will you give me a piece of bread, for I am very hungry?***

Would

Would was originally the past tense of *will* in the same way as *should* was the past tense of *shall*. But while the latter has acquired new shades of meaning, *would* has preserved those of *will*. Thus it expresses volition, persistence referring to the past.

1. Volition. In this meaning it is mostly used in negative sentences.
2. Persistence.

Dare

Dare means ‘to have the courage (or impertinence) to do something’. In the negative it denotes the lack of courage to do something. ***“How dare you ask the little Kelveys into the courtyard,” said her cold, furious voice.***

The verb *dare* as well as *need* has some peculiarities which make it different from other modal verbs.

It is used both as a normal verb (taking the auxiliary *do* in the interrogative and negative forms, -s in the third person singular and the *to*-Infinitive) and as an anomalous verb (without any auxiliary in its interrogative and negative forms, without -s in the third person singular and without the particle *to* before the infinitive which follows it). *Dare* has two forms – *dare* for the Present and *dared* for the Past. ***Did he dare to strike me when I was down? How dare you go out by yourself after the orders I gave you?***

Sometimes *dare* takes the auxiliary but is followed by the bare infinitive. ***You know you didn’t dare give the order to charge the bridge until you saw us on the other side.***

Dare is mostly used in interrogative and negative sentences. However, we often come across *I dare say* which has become a stock phrase and acquired a new meaning 'I suppose'. *Dare* is used only with the Indefinite Infinitive.

Need

Need expresses necessity. It is mostly used in negative and interrogative sentences. *You needn't be in such a fright. Take my arm.*

Note. When *need* is used in the meaning of 'to be in want of' it is treated as a normal verb. *He needs a new pair of shoes.*

Need has only one tense form – the Present. In the same way as *dare*, *need* is used as a normal and as an anomalous verb; the latter is much more common in colloquial English. *One need to be careful. He did not need to be told twice.*

Need is used both with the Indefinite and with the Perfect Infinitive. *I suppose I needn't have made that observation.*

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb (Verbals)

The verb has finite and non-finite forms, the latter being also called **verbals**. The verbals, unlike the finite forms of the verb, do not express person, number or mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

Like the finite forms of the verb the verbals have tense and voice distinctions, but their tense distinctions differ greatly from those of the finite verb. There are three verbals in English: the **participle**, the **gerund** and the **infinitive**.

Participle

The participle is a non-finite form of the verb which has a verbal and an adjectival or an adverbial character. There are two participles in English – **Participle I** and **Participle II**, traditionally called the Present Participle and the Past Participle. **Participle I** is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb.

Participle I has tense distinctions; Participle I of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions. In Modern English Participle I has the following forms:

*When **writing** letters he does not like to be disturbed.*

***Being written** in pencil the letter was difficult to make out.*

***Having written** some letters he went to post them.*

***Having been written** long ago the manuscript was illegible.*

Participle I Indefinite Active and Passive usually denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb; depending on the tense-form of the finite verb it may refer to the present, past, or future.

Participle I Perfect Active and Passive denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite verb.

Participle II has no tense distinctions; it has only one form which can express both an action simultaneous with, and prior to the action expressed by the finite verb; the latter case is more frequent. *I was reminded of a portrait **seen** in a gallery.*

Gerund

The **gerund** developed from the verbal noun, which in course of time became verbalized preserving at the same time its nominal character.

The gerund is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb, and coincides in form with Participle I.

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	<i>writing</i>	<i>being written</i>
Perfect	<i>having written</i>	<i>having been written</i>

The tense distinctions of the gerund

The Indefinite Gerund Active and **Passive** denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb; depending on the tense form of the finite verb it may refer to the present, past, or future.

He can swim for any number of hours without tiring.

The Perfect Gerund denotes an action prior to that of the finite verb.

She denies having spoken with him.

However, a prior action is not always expressed by a Perfect Gerund; in some cases we find an indefinite Gerund. This occurs after the verbs *to remember, to excuse, to forgive, to thank* and after the prepositions *on (upon), after* and *without*.

I don't remember hearing the legend before.

On leaving the house we directed our steps to the nearest shade.

The voice distinctions of the gerund

The gerund of transitive verbs has special forms for the active and the passive voice. *He liked neither reading aloud nor being read aloud to.*

It is to be observed that after the verbs *to want, to need, to deserve, to require* and the adjective *worth* the gerund is used in the active form, though it is passive in meaning. *He realized that his room needed painting.*

Infinitive

The infinitive developed from the verbal noun, which in course of time became verbalized, retaining at the same time some of its nominal properties. Thus in Modern English the infinitive, like the participle and the gerund, has a double nature, nominal and verbal.

In Modern English the infinitive has the following forms:

	Active	Passive
--	--------	---------

Indefinite	to write	to be written
Continuous	to be writing	—
Perfect	to have written	to have been written
Perfect Continuous	to have been writing	—

The use of the infinitive without the particle *to* (the bare infinitive)

In Modern English the infinitive is chiefly used with the particle *to*. Still there are cases when the so-called **bare infinitive** (the infinitive without the particle *to*) is used. They are as follows:

1. After auxiliary verbs.

*I don't **understand** the meaning of this passage.*

*We shall **go** there at once.*

2. After modal verbs except the verb *ought*.

*If one cannot **have** what one loves, one must **love** what one has.*

3. After verbs denoting sense perception, such as *to hear*, *to see*, *to feel*, etc.

*I never saw you **look** so well before.*

*I felt my heart **jump**.*

Note. The verb *to be* after the verb *to feel* is used with the particle *to*.

*I felt this **to be** very true.*

4. After the verb *to let*. *Let us **be** the best friends in the world!*

5. After the verb *to make* in the meaning of 'заставлять' and the verb *to have* in the meaning of 'заставлять, допускать, велеть'.

*What makes you **think** so? I... had them **take** my baggage.*

Note. After the verbs *to hear*, *to see*, *to make* in the Passive Voice the *to*-Infinitive is used.

*He was heard **to mention** your name several times.*

*They were seen **to leave** the house early in the morning.*

*The child was made **to obey**.*

7. After the expressions *had better*, *would rather*, *would sooner*, *cannot but*, *nothing but*, *cannot choose but*.

*You had better **go to bed** and leave the patient to me.*

*I would rather not **speak** upon the subject.*

*I would sooner **die** here, at your feet... than see you married to such a one as that.*

*There was nothing left for him to do but **watch and wait**.*

*I cannot but **think** so.*

Had better, *would rather*, *to do nothing but* belong to colloquial English, whereas *cannot but* and *cannot choose but* are characteristic of elevated style.

8. In sentences of a special type (infinitive sentences) beginning with *why*. *Why not **come and talk** to her yourself?*

The gerund and the infinitive

With a number of verbs and word-groups **both** the gerund and the infinitive may be used.

Verbs taking to-infinitive or -ing form with a change in meaning

1	<p>target + to-inf = not remember: <i>I'm sorry, I forgot to buy milk.</i></p> <p>forget + ing form = forget a past event: <i>He'll never forget flying over the Alps.</i></p>	6	<p>try + to-inf = do one's best, attempt: <i>The firemen are trying to put out the fire.</i></p> <p>try + -ing form = do sth as an experiment: <i>Why don't you try adding some sugar to the sauce? It might taste better.</i></p>
2	<p>remember + to-inf = remember to do sth: <i>Remember to turn off the cooker before leaving.</i></p> <p>remember + -ing form = recall a past event: <i>I don't remember staying in this hotel before.</i></p>	7	<p>want + to-inf = wish: <i>I want to spend my holidays in Spain.</i></p> <p>want + -ing form = need sth done: <i>This room wants painting again.</i></p>
3	<p>go on + to-inf = finish doing sth and start doing sth else then: <i>After finishing the report, she went on to type some letters.</i></p> <p>go on + -ing form = continue: <i>She went on talking for hours.</i></p>	8	<p>stop + to-inf = pause temporarily: <i>She stopped to get some petrol before continuing on her journey to Leeds.</i></p> <p>stop + -ing form = finish; end: <i>Stop talking, please!</i></p>
4	<p>mean + to-inf = intend to: <i>He means to find a job abroad.</i></p> <p>mean + -ing form = involve: <i>Finding a job means attending many interviews.</i></p>	9	<p>be sorry + to-inf = regret: <i>I'm sorry to hear they fired him.</i></p> <p>be sorry for + -ing form = apologise: <i>I'm sorry for being / having been unfair to you</i></p>
5	<p>regret + to-inf = be sorry to: <i>I regret to tell you that there is no money left in your account.</i></p> <p>regret + -ing form = have second thoughts about sth one has already done: <i>I regret buying / having bought this dress; it doesn't look nice on me.</i></p>	10	<p>be afraid + to-inf (the subject is too frightened to do sth): <i>I'm afraid to climb up that tree. (I don't want to do it.)</i></p> <p>be afraid of + -ing form (the subject is afraid that what is described by the -ing form may happen): <i>She won't climb up the tree; she is afraid of falling. (She is afraid because she might fall.)</i></p>

Questions:

1. Name irregular ways of forming plural of nouns.
2. What nouns can have possessive forms?
3. Speak about groups of pronouns.
4. Differentiate between adjectives ending in *-ing* and *-ed*.

5. What is the place of adverb in the sentence?
6. What grammatical categories does the verb have?
7. What modal verbs express probability?
8. When is the bare infinitive used?
9. Speak about tense distinctions of the gerund.
10. Name verbs used with the infinitive and the gerund.

Тема 6. Служебные части речи и служебные слова

Article

The Indefinite Article

The indefinite article **a/an** is used with singular countable nouns.

1. The indefinite article **a/an** is used the first time a speaker mentions a noun: *For lunch I had **a sandwich** and **an apple**.*

2. **A/an** is also used in sentences beginning with *there is*: *There is **a newspaper** on the table.*

3. The indefinite article preserves its old original meaning of 'one' with nouns denoting time, weight, measure and with numerals *hundred, thousand, million*: *A **week** or two passed. My new car cost **a thousand** pounds. The butter is three dollars **a kilo**.*

4. You can use **a/an** to state that the object denoted by the noun belongs to a certain class: *Tom is **a very nice person**. Jack has got **a big nose**.*

5. You can use **a/an** with the noun used in the general sense. The article has the meaning of 'every': *A **good dog** deserves a good bone.*

6. **A/an** is used before singular countable nouns in exclamatory sentences and after **such, quite** and **rather**: *What **a lovely day** today! It's **such an interesting idea**, isn't it?*

The Definite Article

The definite article **the** is used before uncountable nouns, or singular plural countable nouns.

Before countable and uncountable nouns

1. The definite article **the** is used the second time a speaker mentions a noun. Compare: *For lunch I had **a sandwich** and **an apple**. **The sandwich** wasn't very nice.*

2. **The** is used when it is clear in the situation which person or thing you mean. For example, in a room you talk about **the light / the floor / the ceiling / the door** etc.: *Can you close **the door**, please? (= the door of this room)*

3. The speaker uses an attribute to point out a particular object: *This is **the** house that Jack built, and this is **the** mouse that lives in the house that Jack built.*

4. **The** is also used with nouns denoting unique things (*the moon, the sun etc.*): ***The sun** was bright.*

5. You can use **the** with nouns used in the generic sense to talk about a type of plant, animal, or a type of machine, invention or musical instrument: ***The bicycle** is an excellent means of transport. Can your daughter play **the** piano?*

6. You can also use **the** with nouns in word-groups the first component of which is **some, many, most, none**, and the second one is a noun with the preposition of: ***Most of the novels** by G. Durrel are devoted to animals.*

7. The definite article is used with nouns modified by the pronoun **same** or by the following: **next, wrong, right, very** etc. *She asked me **the same** question again.*

8. **The** is used with nouns modified by adjectives in the superlative degree: ***The Volga** is **the longest** river in Russia.*

9. You can use **the** with some adjectives (*without a noun*). The meaning is always plural. So **the** is used with the following adjectives: **the rich, the poor, the old, the young, the blind, the deaf, the sick, the dead, the disabled, the unemployed, the injured.** *Do you think **the rich** should pay more taxes?*

10. You can use **the** with some nationality adjectives when you mean “*the people of that country*”: ***The French** are famous for their food.*

The use of articles with proper nouns

Geographical Names

Geographical names	NO ARTICLE	The definite article THE	NOTES
Continents, countries, cities / towns, villages	a) as a rule <i>Africa, Asia, France, London</i> b) when modified by a prepositional attribute <i>Latin America, Central Asia</i> <i>Petrovka</i> But: <i>the village of Petrovka</i>	when having a particularizing attribute. <i>The Philadelphia he was born in...</i> <i>Gone is the Moscow of the merchants and aristocrats.</i> <i>In his book W. Scott described the England of the Middle Ages.</i>	The word groups are always used with <i>the</i> : <i>the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom of Great Britain, the Netherlands, the Hague, the Crimea, the Caucasus</i>
Oceans, rivers, seas, channels,		<i>the Pacific</i> <i>the Black Sea</i> <i>the Neva</i>	

canals, deserts		<i>the Sahara</i> <i>the (English) Channel</i> <i>the Suez Canal</i>	
Lakes	<i>Lake Baikal</i> <i>Lake Ontario</i>	<i>the Baikal</i> <i>the Ontario</i>	
Mountains	peaks: <i>Elbrus, Everest</i>	mountain chains: <i>the Urals, the Alps</i>	
Islands	a single island: <i>Corfu, Sicily,</i> <i>Madagascar</i>	island groups: <i>the Bermudas</i> <i>the British Isles</i> <i>the Bahamas</i>	
Regions	<i>North America,</i> <i>Latin America,</i> <i>Central Asia</i>	<i>the Middle East</i> <i>the Far East</i> <i>the north of England</i> <i>the south of France</i>	But: <i>western Canada</i> <i>southern Spain</i>
Four cardinal points of the compass		<i>the South, the North</i> <i>the West, the East</i>	But: <i>from East to West</i> <i>from North to South</i>

Names of Persons

Names of persons	NO ARTICLE	The definite article THE	The indefinite article A/AN
Names of persons	a) as a rule no article is used: <i>There was a letter from Susan inviting me to a party.</i> b) modified by attributes: <i>old, young, little, dear, poor, honest</i> <i>Young Jolyon was standing by the piano.</i> <i>She is a widow of poor George.</i>	a) with a name in the plural to indicate the whole family: <i>He is very different from the rest of the Kents.</i> b) with the name modified by a particularizing attribute: <i>Is he the Sheldon who is a writer?</i> <i>She was no more the Julia of the first years of their marriage.</i>	a) one member of a family: <i>I have often wondered if Tim was really a Burton.</i> b) when names of persons become countable nouns indicating typical features of a well-known name: <i>Why, you are quite a Monte Cristo.</i> <i>She felt like an Alice in Wonderland.</i> c) names of persons when meaning 'a certain': <i>I heard it from a (certain) Mr. Jagger.</i>

Nouns of relationship	a) followed by a proper name: <i>uncle Jolyon, aunt Polly</i> b) not followed by a proper name and used only by the members of the family: <i>She went into the hall: "Is Mother back?"</i>	a) If other people's relations are meant: <i>The son was as clever as the father.</i> b) Mind the expressions: <i>Lomonosov was the son of a fisherman.</i> <i>Becky was the daughter of an artist.</i>	
Nouns denoting ranks, titles, profession followed by a proper name	<i>Academician, professor, doctor, count, lord, colonel, Mr / Mrs</i>	<i>Brown</i>	Nouns denoting profession followed by a proper name: <i>The painter Warhol left many fine pictures.</i>

The use of articles in the names of places, some buildings, public organizations

Names of places, buildings, public organizations, etc.	The definite article THE	NO ARTICLE
Historical events public / political organizations	the French Revolution, the Senate, the Houses of Parliament, the United Nations, the Government	NATO Parliament, Congress
Public / historical buildings, Churches	the Bank of England, the Winter Palace, the Tower of London	Westminster Abbey St. Paul's Cathedral, Buckingham Palace
Documents, Parties, Names of newspapers and periodicals	the Constitution, the Tory, the Washington Post, the Labour Party, the Times	(foreign) Pravda, Der Spiegel
Businesses and chains of shops		General Motors, Sony, Shell
Ships, trains, spacecrafts	the Orient Express, the Titanic	Apollo, Challenger
Theatres, cinemas	the Globe, the Bolshoy, the Odeon, the Arbat	Her Majesty's
Museums	the British Museum, the Hermitage, the Tate Gallery	
Parks		Hyde Park, St. James's Park
Schools, colleges,	the University of London	Carnegie College,

universities		London University, Manchester Grammar School
Restaurants, hotels	the Cage Royal, the Hilton	Leoni's, Brown's
Stations and airports		Heathrow, Sheremetyevo
The names of counties, states, streets		Yourkshire, Texas, Oxford, High Street

Preposition

The **preposition** is a part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and other words.

Usually the preposition is not stressed and stands before the word it refers to. *Desert moved quickly **to** the windows.*

Sometimes, however, a preposition may be separated from the word it refers to and placed at the end of the sentence or clause. In that case it is stressed. *But he sounds as though he knows what he's talking **about**.*

As to their **morphological structure** prepositions fall under the following groups:

- 1) **simple** (*in, on, at, for, with, etc.*);
- 2) **derivative** (*behind, below, across, along, etc.*);
- 3) **compound** (*inside, outside, within, without, etc.*);
- 4) **composite** (*because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.*).

According to their **meaning** prepositions may be divided into prepositions of **place** and **direction** (*in, on, below, under, between, etc.*), **time** (*after, before, at, etc.*), prepositions expressing **abstract relations** (*by, with, because of, with a view to, etc.*).

The lexical meaning of some prepositions is quite concrete (e. g. *in, below, between, before, after, till, etc.*), while that of some other prepositions may be weakened to a great extent (e. g. *to, by, of*).

For instance, the preposition *to* generally indicates direction or movement towards something: *Every night Sissy went **to** Rachel's lodging, and sat with her in her small neat room.*

Some prepositions are polysemantic and may express different relations; e. g. *for*: *Never once had Erik sensed the struggle **for** life (purpose).*

*Even when their eyes had met and her sister had approached the bed, Louisa lay **for** minutes looking at her in silence... (time).*

*She could scarcely move her head **for** pain and heaviness, her eyes were strained and sore, and she was very weak (cause).*

Conjunction

The **conjunction** is a part of speech which denotes connections between objects and phenomena. It connects parts of the sentence, clauses, and sentences.

Sadie brought them in **and** went back to the door.

According to their **morphological structure** conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

- 1) **simple** conjunctions (*and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when, etc.*);
- 2) **derivative** conjunctions (*until, unless, etc.*);
- 3) **compound** conjunctions (*however, whereas, wherever, etc.*); these conjunctions are few;
- 4) **composite** conjunctions (*as well as, as long as, in case, for fear (that), on the ground that, for the reason that, etc.*).

Some conjunctions are used in pairs (correlatively): *both... and, either... or, not only... but (also), neither... nor, whether... or.*

*If anyone had asked him if he wanted to own her soul, the question would have seemed to him **both** ridiculous **and** sentimental.*

As to their **function** conjunctions fall under two classes:

- 1) coordinating conjunctions;
- 2) subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions join coordinate clauses in a compound sentence (a), or homogeneous parts in a simple sentence (b), or homogeneous subordinate clauses in a complex sentence (c), or independent sentences (d).

(a) *He had said he would stay quiet in the hall, **but** he simply couldn't any more; **and** crossing the gravel of the drive he lay down on the grass beyond.*

(b) *He opened his eyes **and** stared quietly at the pure sky.*

(c) *Hers was that common insularity of mind that makes human creatures believe that their color, creed, and politics are best and right **and** that other human creatures scattered over the world are less fortunately placed than they.*

(d) *Fabermacher wasted no time on a comedy of errors, and Havi-land apologized for his mistake. **But** he was not as impressed as Erik had wanted him to be.*

Subordinating conjunctions generally join a subordinate or dependent clause to a principal clause (a), or adverbial modifiers to the predicate in a simple sentence (b), or sometimes they join homogeneous parts (c).

(a) ***When** he was eight, he got work in another mill.*

(b) *He shook his head a bit **as if** in wonder that he had permitted himself to be caught in such crosscurrents.*

(c) *My look or something else must have struck her as offensive, for she spoke with extreme, **though** suppressed irritation.*

Particle

The **particle** is a part of speech giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words or groups of words or clauses. A particle may join one part of the sentence to another (connecting particles). Particles have no independent function in the sentence.

According to their **meaning** particles fall under the following main groups:

1. **Limiting** particles: *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely*, etc.
2. **Intensifying** particles: *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even*, etc.
3. **Connecting** particles: *too, also*.
4. **Negative** particles: *not, never*.

Almost all the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs (*simply*), but also with conjunctions (*but*), pronouns (*all*), and adjectives (*only*). The particles *else, solely, merely* have no homonyms.

Questions:

1. What is the original meaning of the indefinite article?
2. What nouns are the indefinite article used with?
3. Name the main principles of the definite article usage.
4. Speak about the usage of the definite article with proper names.
5. Explain the usage of the definite article with adjectives.
6. What groups do prepositions fall under?
7. Give examples of polysemantic prepositions.
8. What types of conjunctions do you know?
9. Differentiate between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.
10. Speak about the groups of particles according to their meaning.

Тема 7. Синтаксис словосочетания

Phrase as the Basic Unit of Syntax

Despite the fact that the phrase, along with the sentence, is a basic unit of syntax, there is no universally accepted definition of the phrase. Despite all the controversies regarding the essence and nature of the phrase, the most adequate interpretation seems to be as follows: the phrase is any syntactically organized group including either notional words (*happy life, very nice, to ignore the comment*), or both notional and functional words (*on the table, in the bag, under the tree*) connected with any of the existent types of syntactic connection. The phrase is a linear language unit that can be either a part of the sentence, or a separate sentence thus acquiring not only intonation coloring and corresponding

phrase stress, but also communicative orientation. Thus, the phrase can be defined as a syntactically organized group of words of any morphological composition based on any type of syntactic connection.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is fundamental: the phrase is a nominative unit which fulfils the function of polynomination denoting a complex referent (phenomenon of reality) analyzable into its component elements together with various relations between them; the sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality.

General characteristics of the phrase are:

1. A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of different denotates (*a black bird – a blackbird; a loud speaker – a loudspeaker*).

2. Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: to see a house – to see houses – saw houses (grammatical modifications of one phrase).

A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

3. A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own. Intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguishes it from a phrase.

Types of Phrases

Linguists discuss different classifications of phrases, all of them having their own advantages.

The traditional classification of phrases is based on the part of speech status of the phrase constituents, therefore noun, verb, adjective, adverb, etc. phrases are singled out.

According to the classification based on the internal structure of phrases, two groups can be singled out: **kernel phrases** and **kernel-free phrases**.

Kernel phrases are grammatically organized structures in which one element dominates the others. This element is not subordinated to any other element within the group, therefore it is the leading element, that is, the kernel of the given phrase (for example, *a nice place, well-known artists, absolutely positive, to run fast, to see a movie, to taste good*).

According to the direction of dependencies, that is, the position of the dominating and subordinated elements relative of each other, all kernel phrases are divided into **regressive** and **progressive** (with the left and right position of dependent elements respectively).

Further types of regressive and progressive kernel phrases can be singled out according to what part of speech the head word belongs. The following types are differentiated:

Regressive:	Progressive:
substantive (<i>a good girl</i>)	substantive (<i>a feeling of comfort</i>)
adjectival (<i>absolutely clear</i>)	adjectival (<i>independent of your decision</i>)
verbal (<i>to fully understand</i>)	verbal (<i>to read a book</i>)
adverbial (<i>very quickly</i>)	prepositional (<i>on the wall</i>)

Three types of syntactic connections can be singled out: **coordination**, **subordination** and **accumulation**.

Coordination: coordinate phrases consist of two or more syntactically equivalent units joined in a cluster which functions as a single unit. The member units can be potentially joined together by means of a coordinate conjunction.

Subordination: subordinate phrases are structures in which one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the phrase. This dominating element is called the head-word, or the kernel, and can be expressed by different parts of speech.

Accumulation: the accumulative connection is present when no other type of syntactic connection can be identified.

Cf. (*to give*) *the boy an apple* – (*to give*) *an apple to the boy*

The presence of a certain syntactic connection between the words in the phrase “the boy an apple” can be proved by the fact that the change of order results in the change of the form.

The accumulative connection is widely spread in attributive phrases made up by attributes expressed by different parts of speech (*these problematic (issues); some old (lady)*). The position of the elements relative to each other is fixed, they cannot exchange their positions (*problematic these (issues); old some (lady)*).

Types of Syntactic Relations

Syntactic relations of the phrase constituents are divided into two main types: **agreement** and **government**.

Agreement takes place when the subordinate word assumes a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate, that is formal correspondences are established between parts of the phrase. The sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small: it is found in the pronouns *this* and *that*, which agree in number with their head word (*that chair* – *those chairs*).

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action (*Jack is eating; Jack and Jenny are eating*), this is a controversial problem. The question is whether the verb stands, say, in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun, or

whether the verb expresses by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers). There are some phenomena in Modern English which would seem to show that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as *The police have arrived too late*, on the one hand, and *The United States is a democracy*, on the other.

Government takes place when the subordinate word is used in a certain form required by its head word, the form of the subordinate word not coinciding with the form of the head word. The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. Government can be observed between the verb and its object expressed either by a personal pronoun or by the pronoun *who*, the verb being the governing element (*to rely on him, to be proud of her*).

Agreement and government are considered to be the main types of expressing syntactic relations, however, there exist some special means of expressing syntactic relations within a phrase. They are **adjoinment** and **enclosure**.

Adjoinment is described as absence both of agreement and of government.

Combined elements build syntactic groups without changing their forms. A typical example of adjoinment is a combination of an adverb with a head word (*to nod silently, to act cautiously*).

An adverb can only be connected with its head word in this manner, since it has no grammatical categories which would allow it to agree with another word or to be governed by it.

While adjoinment is typical of Russian, enclosure is peculiar to Modern English. By enclosure (замыкание) some element is put between the two parts of another constituent of a phrase. It is, as it were, enclosed between two parts of another element.

The most widely used type of enclosure is use of an attribute between the article (determiner) and the head-noun (*a pretty face, your perfect man, one good essay*). Many words other than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position. *The then president* – here the adverb *then*, being enclosed between the article and the noun it belongs to, is in this way shown to be an attribute to the noun. In the phrase *a go-to-devil expression* the phrase *go-to-devil* is enclosed between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and this characterises the syntactic connections of the phrase.

Questions:

1. Define the term “phrase”.
2. What words can be referred to as “notional” and “functional”? Give your own examples.
3. Name general characteristics of the phrase.
4. What is the difference between a phrase and a sentence?

5. What are the principles of the phrase classification.
6. What types of regressive and progressive kernel phrases do you know?
7. Speak about three types of syntactic connections.
8. Name the main types of syntactic relations of the phrase constituents.
9. Explain the terms “adjoinment” and “enclosure”.
10. Compare the main types of syntactic relations in English and your native language.

**Тема 8. Основные признаки и категории предложения.
Классификация предложений. Актуальное членение предложения**

Sentence: General

The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standings. *Cf.: Night. Congratulations. Away! Why? Certainly.*

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another in the continual flow of uttered segments and, together with various segmental means of expression, participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (such as, for instance, the syntactic meaning of interrogation in distinction to the meaning of declaration).

Actual Division of the Sentence

The main components of the actual division of the sentence are the **theme** and the **rheme**. The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i. e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre. Between the theme and the rheme are positioned intermediary, transitional parts of the actual division of various degrees of informative value (these parts are sometimes called “transition”).

The theme of the actual division of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject of the sentence. The rheme of the actual division, in its turn, may or may not coincide with the predicate of the sentence – either with the whole predicate group or its part, such as the predicative, the object, the adverbial.

Thus, in the following sentences of various emotional character the theme is expressed by the subject, while the rheme is expressed by the predicate: *Max bounded forward. Again Charlie is being too clever! Her advice can't be of any help to us.*

In the following sentences the correlation between the nominative and actual divisions is the reverse: the theme is expressed by the predicate or its part, while the rheme is rendered by the subject: *Through the open window came the purr of an approaching motor car. Who is coming late but John! There is a difference of opinion between the parties.*

Communicative Types of Sentences

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the "purpose of communication".

The purpose of communication, by definition, refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this sentential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a lingual unit.

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence-types have long been recognized in linguistic tradition: first, the *declarative* sentence; second, the *imperative (inducive)* sentence; third, the *interrogative* sentence. These communicative sentence-types stand in strict opposition to one another, and their inner properties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with the corresponding features of the listener's responses.

Thus, the declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in systemic syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention, of appraisal (including agreement or disagreement), of fellow-feeling. Cf.: *"I think, he said, that Mr. Desert should be asked to give us his reasons for publishing that poem"*.

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. As such, the imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding "action response" (Ch. Fries), and lingually is systemically correlated with a verbal response showing that the inducement is either complied with, or else rejected.

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i. e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity. Cf.: *"What do you suggest I should do, then?" said Mary helplessly. – "If I were you I should play a waiting game," he replied.*

Alongside the three cardinal communicative sentence-types, another type of sentences is recognized in the theory of syntax, namely, the so-called *exclamatory* sentence. In modern linguistics it has been demonstrated that exclamatory sentences do not possess any complete set of qualities that could place them on one and the same level with the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. Each of the cardinal communicative sentence-types can be represented in the two variants, viz. non-exclamatory and exclamatory. For instance, with the following exclamatory sentences-statements it is easy to identify their non-exclamatory declarative prototypes:

What a very small cabin it was! ← *It was a very small cabin.*

Simple Sentence: Constituent Structure

The basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence, as has already been pointed out, are expressed by the finite verb which is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence. This predicative connection is commonly referred to as the “predicative line” of the sentence. Depending on their predicative complexity, sentences can feature one predicative line or several (more than one) predicative lines; in other words, sentences may be, respectively, “**monopredicative**” and “**polypredicative**”. Using this distinction, we must say that the simple sentence is a sentence in which only one predicative line is expressed. *E. g.: Bob has never left the stadium. Opinions differ. This may happen any time.*

Finally, bearing in mind that the general identification of obligatory syntactic positions affects not only the principal parts of the sentence but is extended to the complementive secondary parts, we define the **unexpanded simple sentence** as a monopredicative sentence formed only by obligatory notional parts. The **expanded simple sentence** will, accordingly, be defined as a monopredicative sentence which includes, besides the obligatory parts, also some optional parts, i. e. some supplementive modifiers which do not constitute a predicative enlargement of the sentence.

The subject-group and the predicate-group of the sentence are its two constitutive “members”, or, to choose a somewhat more specific term, its “axes” (in the Russian grammatical tradition – «составы предложения»). According as both members are present in the composition of the sentence or only one of them, sentences are classed into “**two-member**” and “**one-member**” ones.

All simple sentences of English should be divided into **two-axis** constructions and **one-axis** constructions.

In a two-axis sentence, the subject axis and the predicate axis are directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure. This concerns all the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. *E. g.: The books come out of the experiences. What has been happening here? You better go back to bed.*

In a one-axis sentence only one axis or its part is explicitly expressed, the other one being non-presented in the outer structure of the sentence. Cf.: “*Who will meet us at the airport?*” – “*Mary.*”

The composite sentence, as different from the simple sentence, is formed by two or more predicative lines. Being a polypredicative construction, it expresses a complicated act of thought, i. e. an act of mental activity which falls into two or more intellectual efforts closely combined with one another. In terms of situations and events this means that the composite sentence reflects two or more elementary situational events viewed as making up a unity; the constitutive connections of the events are expressed by the constitutive connections of the predicative lines of the sentence, i. e. by the sentential polypredication.

Each predicative unit in a composite sentence makes up a clause in it, so that a clause as part of a composite sentence corresponds to a separate sentence as part of a contextual sequence. E. g.: *When I sat down to dinner I looked for an opportunity to slip in casually the information that I had by accident run across the Driffields; but news travelled fast in Blackstable.*

The two main types of the connection of clauses in a composite sentence are **subordination** and **coordination**. By coordination the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i. e. equipotently; by subordination, as units of unequal rank, one being categorially dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (*subordinate*) is placed in a notional position of the other (*principal*). This latter characteristic has an essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types of polypredication in question. As a matter of fact, a subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i. e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance. This is of especial importance for post-positional subordinate clauses of circumstantial semantic nature. Such clauses may often shift their position without a change in semantico-syntactic status.

The means of combining clauses into a polypredicative sentence are divided into **syndetic**, i. e. conjunctive, and **asyndetic**, i. e. non-conjunctive. The great controversy going on among linguists about this division concerns the status of syndeton and asyndeton versus coordination and subordination. Namely, the question under consideration is whether or not syndeton and asyndeton equally express the two types of syntactic relations between clauses in a composite sentence.

According to the traditional view, all composite sentences are to be classed into **compound sentences** (coordinating their clauses) and **complex**

sentences (subordinating their clauses), syndetic or asyndetic types of clause connection being specifically displayed with both classes.

Questions:

1. What is the object of syntax?
2. What is sentence?
3. Define the “theme” and the “rheme” as the main components of the actual division of the sentence.
4. Name communicative types of sentences. Give your own examples.
5. Can exclamatory sentences be referred to as a communicative type?
6. What are the main sentence members?
7. Give your own example of an unexpanded simple sentence and add some words to make it expanded.
8. What is the difference between the simple sentence and the composite sentence?
9. Define the terms “subordination” and “coordination”.
10. How are composite sentences classified?

II ПРАКТИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

LEVEL I

Nouns

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

SENTENCE	ERROR CORRECTION
1. Give your <i>childrens</i> a holiday they will never forget.	children
2. The fields were full of cows and <i>sheeps</i> .	sheep
3. Ten years <i>are</i> a long time to spend in prison.	Ten years is a long...
4. The crowd outside the gates of the palace <i>were</i> enormous.	The crowd... was enormous.
5. The police <i>is</i> investigating the accident.	the police are
6. The news <i>are</i> always bad nowadays.	news is
7. <i>Every children</i> needs love and attention.	Every child
8. Every student <i>have</i> a chance to take examination again.	Every student has
9. Climbing <i>a ten-feet wall</i> is not easy.	a ten-foot wall
10. Some customers always <i>smell the fishes</i> to make sure that they are fresh.	smell the fish
11. We took <i>enough foods</i> with us for three days.	enough food
12. This report is based on <i>informations</i> received from teachers and pupils.	information
13. The museum contains some of the oldest <i>aircrafts</i> in the world.	aircraft
14. The flight takes about <i>one and a half hour</i> .	one and a half hours
15. During the next two weeks I ate <i>nothing but fruits</i> .	nothing but fruit

II. Give the right form of agreement of the subject and the predicate.

1. Chemistry *are / is* my least favourite subject.
2. Your bathroom scales *is / are* not very accurate.
3. £2000 *is / are* far too expensive for that stereo.
4. Table-tennis *is / are* sometimes referred to as ping-pong.
5. The police *is / are* coming to the rescue.
6. Paper *is / are* made from wood.
7. Children *likes / like* playing games.
8. The scissors *don't / doesn't* work very well.

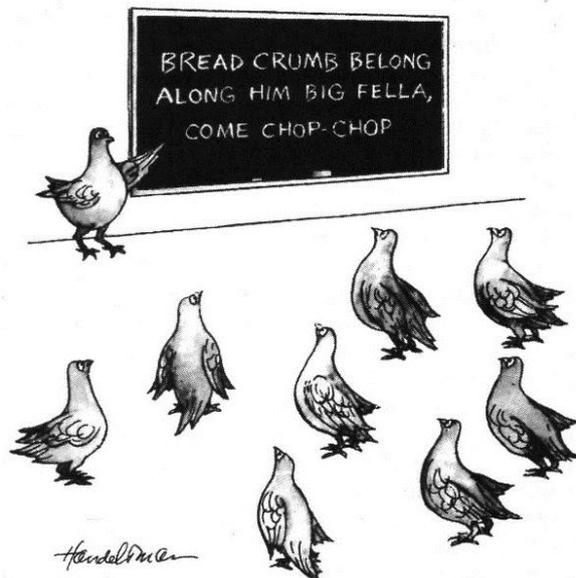
9. These trousers *is / are* terribly unflattering.
10. Education *are / is* considered to be very important by almost everyone.
11. Most people *worry / worries* about the effect of pollution on the environment.
12. Water *is / are* necessary for plants to grow.
13. When I'm ill my hair *becomes / become* greasy.
14. The rubbish *has / have* been taken away.
15. The information *is / are* inaccurate.
16. Binoculars *is / are* needed to see that far.
17. His luggage *was / were* left on the platform.
18. The stairs *is / are* very dangerous.
19. Mumps *is / are* contagious.
20. The news *was / were* unexpected.

III. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. I felt very too happy about passing the exam and went out to celebrate.
1. She didn't go to the work because she was ill.
2. I have had a really bad day yesterday.
3. The children had a great fun at the fair.
4. Jack and Mary did arrived shortly after everyone else.
5. Unless you have not tried, you don't know if you can do it.
6. This jumper it is too small for me.
7. Next the week Simon is leaving for Germany.
8. I don't know not anything about Spain; I've never been there.
9. Jenny told to me that I'd lost weight.

IV. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. Her advices were very wise.
2. You was the first to do it.
3. The class wasn't able to agree.
4. I've many works to do this morning.
5. The thunders and lightnings frightened the little girl.
6. I've more than two dozens of books at home.
7. The poors say that riches does not make a man happy.



8. She waited at the terminal for her luggages.
9. You should go and have your hairs cut, they're too long.
10. I'm waiting for more informations about this matter.

Articles

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. She needs <i>a good advice</i> about choosing a career.	some good advice
2. <i>The December</i> is the last month.	December
3. They couldn't give me <i>a detailed information</i> .	any detailed information
4. I don't like driving in <i>a heavy traffic</i> .	in heavy traffic
5. To teach young children, you need <i>a patience</i> .	some patience
6. In the old days, many children did not go to <i>a school</i> .	to school
7. We <i>had a breakfast</i> in the hotel restaurant.	had breakfast
8. She telephoned <i>a police</i> and told them her daughter had not come home.	the police
9. My parents couldn't afford to send me <i>to a college</i> .	to college
10. The war lasted almost <i>hundred years</i> .	a hundred years
11. Dentists <i>use a very expensive equipment</i> .	use very expensive equipment
12. I waited <i>for few minutes</i> and then rang again.	for a few minutes
13. Unfortunately, <i>a few of the passengers</i> escaped injury.	few of the passengers
14. The landlord <i>provided a new furniture</i> .	provided some new furniture
15. You must be careful <i>in the future</i> .	in future

II. Fill in: *a / an* or *the* where necessary.

0. On *...the...* thirty-first of December, thousands of people gather in ... Times Square, New York, to celebrate ... coming of ... New Year.
1. Of all ... countries on ... continent of ... North America Phil has only visited ... Canada.
2. ... universities of Oxford and Cambridge are two of ... most famous universities in ... Europe.
3. If you want to work abroad, why don't you contact ... agency I went to in ... Lamb Street?
4. ... capital city of ... Spain, ... Madrid, is to ... north of Seville.
5. ... holiday I took in ... Rome was ... best I've ever had.
6. ... Detective Sherlock Holmes and his assistant ... Doctor Watson, solved ... lot of mysteries.

7. I would love to spend ... summer cruising in ... Caribbean.
8. Mrs Hamilton holds ... flower arranging class in ... Cathedral on ... Wednesday evenings.
9. The highest mountain in ... world ... Mount Everest, is in ... Himalayas.
10. There is ... wonderful 1920's style restaurant-cafe in ... Glasgow which has some of ... most charming and helpful waiters I've ever seen.
11. Belfast is ... capital of ... Northern Ireland and Dublin is ... capital of ... Republic of ... Ireland.
12. ... Balearic Islands lie to ... south of Spain.
13. Julia is ... extremely patient girl – she will have no problem in her career as ... nanny.
14. Stephen has ... seminar on ... Saturday morning, so we are not able to go to ... ski-slopes until ... Sunday.
15. On Sunday we decided to go to ... beach by ... train, but by the time we got to ... station ... weather looked so threatening that we went to ... cinema instead.

III. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. Susan, who is a terrible ballet dancer, is not very good at the tap-dancing either. (*the*)
1. They drove around the Paris in a car.
2. He travelled to Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, by a car.
3. I was invited to a dinner given to welcome the President Chirac of France.
4. Our plan was to meet him at Cafe Sandal and not at the home.
5. It was nice of you to invite me to go to the Malta with you.
6. She was born in the July, 1971.
7. Can you walk the faster?
8. I like the active holidays more than relaxing ones.
9. It is known that smoking does a damage to your health.

IV. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. The train left half hour ago.
2. She's the clever girl.
3. He tried without success to find a work.
4. My little brother will go to the school next year.
5. Cotton of Egypt is exported to many countries.
6. Nile flows into Mediterranean.
7. She can speak the French.
8. I've no money to buy car.

9. I play violin, but not piano.
10. The Sarah will go to the England.

Pronouns

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "Which perfume do you like best?" "<i>I don't really like neither of them.</i>" 2. Amelia bought <i>the same bag that me.</i> 3. <i>Either Sonia and Rachel</i> are nurses. 4. He didn't <i>tell me nothing.</i> 5. He <i>isn't neither</i> wise nor good. 6. I couldn't <i>find him nowhere.</i> 7. I like both of these skirts but I'll take <i>this ones</i> because it's cheaper. 8. I've <i>a brother which</i> is at school. 9. She says she's not afraid of <i>nobody.</i> 10. There was <i>few annoyance</i> caused by her outbreak of anger. 11. We didn't give him <i>nothing.</i> 12. <i>Who of the two boys</i> is the taller? 13. <i>A little students</i> here have passed the exam. 14. <i>This two girls</i> were playing hide-and-go-seek. 15. We need a telescope equipped for solar photography; this is <i>a such telescope.</i> 	<p>"I don't really like either of them."</p> <p>... bought the same bag as me.</p> <p>Both Sonia and Rachel are ...</p> <p>He didn't tell me anything.</p> <p>He is neither wise nor good.</p> <p>I couldn't find him anywhere.</p> <p>I like both of these skirts but I'll take this one because it's cheaper.</p> <p>a brother who</p> <p>She says she's not afraid of anybody. <i>Or:</i> She says she's afraid of nobody.</p> <p>There was much annoyance caused by her outbreak of anger.</p> <p>We didn't give him anything.</p> <p>Which of the two boys is the taller?</p> <p>A few students</p> <p>These two girls</p> <p>such a telescope</p>
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II. Underline the correct item. Explain the rule.

Part 1:

1. There are *much / many / a lot* skyscrapers in Chicago.
2. We spent *a lot of / many / few* money on holiday.
3. *A lot / Much / Few* visitors are disappointed by our hotel.
4. If you add *a little / a few / many* salt, it will taste better.
5. There are *much / a lot of / little* people on this bus.
6. We've had *many / little / too many* rain this winter.
7. *Few / Much / A little* people are as pretty as she is.
8. There's been *few / very little / a few* news about the earthquake.

9. You must pay *many / lots of / few attention* to understand this.
10. *Lots of / Much / Little* flowers were planted in the garden.

Part 2:

1. Don't worry, I said *nothing / anything*.
2. Pete didn't see *anyone / no one* come out of the building.
3. We need to take *some / any* food with us.
4. It took him *any / some* time to recover from his illness.
5. *Anybody / Everybody* was pleased with their exam results.
6. Is there *any / some* sugar in this coffee? It's very bitter.
7. We didn't go *nowhere / anywhere* this year.
8. Can I have *some / any* water please?
9. The doctor told her there was *anything / nothing* wrong with her.
10. He does his homework *any / every* evening before dinner.

Part 3:

1. *Both / All* Margo and Steve are models.
2. *Neither / Either* Julie nor Lucy enjoyed the film.
3. He goes to the gym *either / every* day.
4. *Both / Neither* Rebecca and Charlie are teachers.
5. *All / Each* eight men are working really hard.
6. *None / Every* of the applicants he interviewed were suitable for the job.
7. *Every / All* that he needs is a good rest. He's very tired.
8. *Neither / Either* the bride nor the groom arrived on time. They were *all / both* late.
9. There's *no / none* need to do the washing up. The maid will do it.
10. He spent *whole / all* the evening studying for the exam.

Part 4:

1. There was a good film on television yesterday but *all / none* of us saw it.
2. Sam plays football nearly *each / every* day.
3. *Each / All* flat will have central heating installed before November.
4. Jane did not utter a single word the *whole / all* time she was here.
5. *Either / Neither* you start doing some work or I'll fire you.
6. "Do you like these trousers?" – "No, I prefer those *ones / one* actually."
7. *All of / None of* us wanted to go to the party, but we couldn't refuse the invitation.
8. *None of / All of* us eat meat so we went to a vegetarian restaurant.
9. *Each / Both* time I try to call Jenny her phone is engaged.
10. The twins' grandfather gave them *all / each* five pounds for their birthday.

III. Fill in: *there* or *it*.

0. ...*It*...'s such a pity you can't come with us. ... is said that Rome is beautiful at this time of the year.
1. ...'s such a lovely day today – let's go for a picnic. ...'s a good picnic site only 5 kms from here.
2. We'd better take our anoraks ... are lots of clouds in the sky. ... looks like it's going to rain.
3. Let's go by car. ... will only take us 2 hours to drive there.
4. ...'s nothing on the television tonight. ...'s a shame we didn't go to the cinema.
5. Mum, ...'s a man at the door. He wants to talk to you.
6. ...'s so nice to see you. ... seems that we haven't had a proper chat in ages.
7. ...'s a pity you can't come to the cinema tonight. ...'s a new film on.
8. ...'s someone waiting to see you.
9. ... are some new magazines on your desk.
10. ... appears that she has quit her job.
11. This fax machine doesn't work properly. ... seems to be faulty.
12. ... seems to be heavy traffic. We may be late.
13. ...'s a shame he lied to you.
14. ...'s another thirty miles to Brighton.

IV. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. We all us went to see a film last night. (*us*)
1. She always enjoys buying them gifts for her family.
2. They admire each the other a lot.
3. They are both of very happy about the news.
4. Every one child has to be at school by nine o'clock.
5. She stood herself up and went to the front of the classroom.
6. I spent the whole of day writing letters.
7. My brother he works in a bank.
8. If anyone person calls, tell them to call back in an hour.
9. This shirt is nice but and the other one is nicer.
10. There are a lot of much animals to see in the zoo.
11. Whoever he gave you those instructions was mistaken.
12. I don't know how much about Physics.
13. He hates waking up himself early in the morning.
14. My uncle he owns a large restaurant.
15. All of runners must take their places for the race to begin.
16. The only else thing he could do was refuse the offer.
17. She is too much young to get married.
18. There was not someone in the room.

19. She turned herself round to see who was behind her.

V. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. One should mind his own business.
2. The most of the people are fond of the cinema.
3. This is the boy which is always late.
4. I speak English better than him.
5. She told her mother all what had been said.
6. This cake is for you and myself.
7. I want to give me your book, please.
8. Is a very good girl.
9. It is them.
10. I and Stephen are friends.

Adjectives

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. To my surprise, his friend was an <i>Arabic</i> too.	Arab
2. The car he bought wasn't <i>economic</i> at all.	economical
3. Inside the basket there was <i>an alive snake</i> .	was a live snake
4. I pulled the string <i>tightly</i> .	I pulled the string tight .
5. We bought <i>six handmade very old wine glasses</i> .	We bought six very old handmade wine glasses .
6. Each child was given <i>a red beautiful balloon</i> .	a beautiful red balloon
7. He is one of <i>the most rudest</i> men I've ever met.	of the rudest
8. The medicine made me feel <i>much more better</i> .	much better
9. Gas is usually <i>more cheap</i> than electricity.	is cheaper than
10. I am <i>very interesting</i> in problems caused by pollution.	very interested
11. It was such <i>a bored film</i> that I fell asleep.	a boring film
12. For <i>farther information</i> ring 02104889.	further information
13. My <i>most favourite season</i> is autumn.	my favourite season
14. He has <i>very few chance</i> of getting a good job.	very little chance
15. These new cars will mean <i>fewer pollution</i> .	less pollution

II. Underline the correct item.

Part 1:

1. A *gold / golden* eagle glided gracefully across the sky.
2. She ruined her *silk / silky* suit by washing it.
3. We had to climb over a low *stone / stony* wall.
4. He approached the task with *steel / steely* determination.
5. This soap will leave your skin feeling *silk / silky* and soft.
6. *Leathery / Leather* coats never seem to go out of fashion.
7. This plant has soft *feather / feathery* leaves.
8. We spotted the *metal / metallic* blue car speeding into the tunnel ahead.
9. The manager's *stone / stony* expression showed that all was not well.
10. She was given an expensive *gold / golden* watch for her twenty-first birthday.

Part 2:

1. The floor looks *clean / cleanly*.
2. A rose smells *good / well*.
3. The plane landed *safe / safely* on the runway.
4. When the wind started to blow, I grew *anxious / anxiously*.
5. The crowd yelled *wild / wildly* when the team scored a goal.
6. Most of the students did *well / good* on their tests.
7. This list of names appears *complete / completely*. No more names need to be added.
8. The contract offer sounded *fair / fairly* to me, so I accepted the job.
9. Jim felt *terrible / terribly* about forgetting his son's birthday.
10. As dawn approached, the sky became *light / lightly*.
11. Bert spoke *confident / confidently* when he delivered his speech.
12. I don't think this milk is spoiled. It tastes *fine / finely* to me.
13. Dogs make loving, trainable and *gentle / gently* pets.
14. Tina is always patient and speaks *sensitively / sensitive* when helping her friends with their problems.
15. When people are tired they walk *slow / slowly*.



III. Put the adjectives in brackets into the correct form. Add *the* or *a*, where necessary.

Two weeks ago I went down town to buy a birthday present for my (*old*) sister. You couldn't meet (*wonderful*) person than her. She is one of (*charming*) women I know. She is also (*generous-hearted*) person I've

ever met. Mother says she could be a bit (*tidy*) than she is. Anyway, the present I wanted to buy her had to be (*good*) I could afford. Eventually, I came across (*beautiful*) scarf I had ever seen. Imagine my disappointment when I discovered the next day that Mother had bought her exactly the same scarf.

IV. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. The car who they had rented broke down after half an hour. (*who*)
1. Tom has two brothers as the well as three sisters.
2. My aunt she has lived in America for the past ten years.
3. This car cost to my parents a lot.
4. My school it is so far away that I have to travel two hours to get there.
5. Sharon did has met many famous film stars.
6. He likes driving a second hand cars.
7. Since she got married, Judy is the most happiest person I know.
8. He has an uncle who he likes fishing.
9. Mary's parents did took her to the zoo for her birthday.

V. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. Alexandria is smaller from Cairo.
2. New York is the larger city in the United States.
3. He's the better student from all.
4. John is more stronger than his brother.
5. My handwriting is more bad than my sister's.
6. Which is the heaviest you or I?
7. Which of these three girls is the elder?
8. This boy's manners are more good than his brother's.
9. Which of the girls is the taller in the class?
10. Mount Everest is the higher mountain of the world.

Adverbs

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. I don't understand how she could treat him <i>so bad</i> .	so badly
2. I usually play <i>more better</i> when nobody is watching me.	I usually play better
3. She always <i>looks beautifully</i> .	looks beautiful
4. He behaved <i>rather silly</i> .	He behaved in a rather silly way . / His behavior was rather silly .
5. He has <i>worked hardly</i> today. (= <i>усердно</i>)	He has worked hard .

6. When I first got the camera, it <i>worked perfect</i> .	it worked perfectly
7. I answered her <i>as casual as I could</i> .	as casually as I could
8. He drives <i>too fastly</i> .	too fast
9. I don't speak English <i>very good</i> .	speak English very well .
10. <i>At last</i> I would like to end my talk with some suggestions for further reading.	Finally , I would like to...
11. <i>Like in</i> many successful corporations, the link between the people and the policymakers is an important one.	As in many successful corporations...
12. I like <i>very much playing tennis</i> .	I like playing tennis very much .
13. She <i>spoke loud</i> so that everyone could hear her.	spoke loudly
14. <i>Most of the Japanese girls</i> prefer tall men.	Most Japanese girls
15. He <i>knows much</i> about cars.	He knows a lot about cars.

II. Study the table and then underline the correct item.

Adverbs with two forms and differences in meaning		
deep = a long way down	hard = with effort	pretty = fairly
deeply = greatly	hardly = scarcely	prettily = in a pretty way
direct = by the shortest route	high = at / to a high level	short = suddenly
directly = immediately	highly = very much	shortly = soon
easy = gently and slowly	last = after all others	sure = certainly
easily = without difficulty	lastly = finally	surely = without a doubt
free = without cost	late = not early	wide = as far as possible
freely = willingly	lately = recently	widely = to a large extent
full = exactly; very	near = close	wrong = incorrectly
fully = completely	nearly = almost	wrongly = unjustly

Part 1:

- I managed to get to New York *easy / easily* by flying there *directly / direct*.
- She has been *deeply / deep* upset by his behaviour *late / lately*.
- Lately / Late* the cost of living has been increasing, things generally are not *nearly / near* as cheap as they used to be.
- It is *wide / widely* believed that she was *wrong / wrongly* accused.
- Laura is a very shy person who *rare / rarely* goes out and she does not mix *free / freely* with the other students.

6. She is *highly / high* regarded in the school as people can get or with her *easily / easy*.
7. I was not *full / fully* satisfied with the doctor as he had *wrong / wrongly* diagnosed my previous illness.
8. "Do you intend to leave *shortly / short?*" – "I think so. I've *nearly / near* finished."
9. He'll *surely / sure* get a good grade; he's been studying very *hardly / hard* for the past year.
10. I was *prettily / pretty* embarrassed when I realised that I had *hardly / hard* enough money to pay the bill.
11. He came *last / lastly* in the race and was *pretty / prettily* disappointed by his performance.
12. The train goes *direct / directly* to Edinburgh without stopping so it will probably be *full / fully*.
13. She *free / freely* admitted that she had not been working very *hard / hardly* recently.
14. It is *wide / widely* believed that politicians are people who can't be *full / fully* trusted.
15. *Sure / Surely* we must be *near / nearly* there by now.
16. I listen to the radio a lot but I *hard / hardly* ever watch television.
17. I tried *hard / hardly* to remember her name but I couldn't.
18. We *hard / hardly* know each other.
19. Kate is a *hard / hardly* worker.
20. She used to be a great musician, but she *hard / hardly* plays at all now.

Part 2:

I am writing to request 1) *farther / further* information on the climbing holidays you run. I am 2) *most / much* interested in climbing, but fear that I will be 3) *most / much* older than the other participants. Also, I am 4) *far / very* less fit than I used to be. Nonetheless, I am 5) *even / very* keener on the sport than ever. So my question is, will there be climbs which are 6) *a bit / most* easier for older ones like me? In addition, do you do discounts for pensioners? Your holidays are 7) *very / even* expensive for someone on a low income. I look forward to hearing from you and receiving 8) *any / more* details.

III. Give the adequate English equivalent.

1. I was (*глубоко*) moved by his words. *deep / deeply*
2. You must dig very (*глубоко*) to reach the water. *deep / deeply*
3. He was (*сильно*) doubtful about the necessity of that action. *high / highly*
4. The eagle soared (*высоко*). *high / highly*

- | | | |
|-----|---|--------------------------|
| 5. | It could be (<i>едва</i>) seen. | <i>hard / hardly</i> |
| 6. | He had to work really (<i>тяжело</i>) to obtain what he wanted. | <i>hard / hardly</i> |
| 7. | The policeman looked (<i>внимательно</i>) at the suspect. | <i>close / closely</i> |
| 8. | We have (<i>почти</i>) run out of petrol. | <i>near / nearly</i> |
| 9. | There is a big grocery store (<i>рядом</i>) our house. | <i>near / nearly</i> |
| 10. | We have not heard from him (<i>в последнее время</i>). | <i>late / lately</i> |
| 11. | His letter came too (<i>поздно</i>). | <i>late / lately</i> |
| 12. | This dress is (<i>довольно</i>) expensive. | <i>pretty / prettily</i> |
| 13. | This little girl is very (<i>красиво</i>) dressed. | <i>pretty / prettily</i> |
| 14. | He passed by her window singing (<i>громко</i>). | <i>loud / loudly</i> |
| 15. | He doesn't speak (<i>громко</i>) enough for everybody to hear. | <i>loud / loudly</i> |
| 16. | I'm afraid you will have to pay (<i>дорого</i>) for your silence. | <i>dear / dearly</i> |
| 17. | They all loved him (<i>нежно</i>). | <i>dear / dearly</i> |
| 18. | The gate of the courtyard stood (<i>широко</i>) open. | <i>wide / widely</i> |
| 19. | Nabokov's works are (<i>широко</i>) known throughout the world. | <i>wide / widely</i> |
| 20. | "Open your mouth (<i>широко</i>)," the dentist said. | <i>wide / widely</i> |

IV. Translate the adverbs in brackets into English.

1. She stared at us with (*широко*) open eyes, but remained silent.
2. I am (*глубоко*) concerned about his lack of interest in our business.
3. We examined these animals very (*тщательно*).
4. The plant stood (*близко*) to the lake.
5. The man pulled (*сильно*) at the chain.
6. The rain was pouring so (*сильно*) that we could (*едва*) see the boat sailing up to the shore.
7. The contribution of this scientist to the progress of physics is (*высоко*) valued.
8. When he walked, he usually held his head (*высоко*).
9. She called him (*громко*) but he didn't come.
10. Jane plays the flute (*хорошо*).

V. Fill in: *as* or *like*.

1. Although it lives in the sea, the whale is classed ...*as*... a mammal. It may look ... a dangerous beast, but it is really ... gentle ... a lamb.
2. My friend George describes himself ... a great singer. He thinks he has a voice ... an angel, but when he sings it sounds ... a cat wailing! He works ... a taxi driver and everybody keeps telling him not to give up his job!
3. McTaverty's Tavern has been described ... the best restaurant in Perthshire with dishes that smell delicious and taste ... they have been made

with only the finest ingredients. Surprisingly, the prices are not ... high ... you might expect.

VI. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. The lions are noble animals. (*the*)
1. Your version of the incident is as very confusing as Peter's.
2. This soup tastes like as porridge.
3. They hardly not understood where all their money had gone.
4. I'd sooner than go now.
5. I always feel more safer when I'm wearing a seat-belt.
6. His offer was many more generous than we had expected.
7. Your behaviour is getting the worse and worse.
8. Their car cost three times as much more as ours.
9. He is known as like "the living legend" of his time.
10. It was the most best offer I could ever have had.

VII. Rewrite the following sentences, placing the adverbs or adverbial phrases in the right position.

1. I can speak very well English.
2. I like very much music.
3. A beginner can't speak correctly English.
4. The teacher explained very well the problem.
5. Michael recorded with his video camera the concert.
6. He put into his pocket the money.
7. He likes very much tea.
8. She learnt by heart the poem.
9. I received from my aunt a nice present.
10. He shut quickly the book.



"HE CAN SMELL BETTER THAN WE CAN, BUT HE USUALLY SMELLS WORSE."

Tenses

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. I couldn't understand why the meal <i>had costed</i> so much.	had cost
2. Let's go to the airport now just in case her plane <i>will arrive early</i> .	arrives early
3. I will telephone you as soon as <i>I will reach</i> London.	I reach

<p>4. How many children <i>do Angela have</i>?</p> <p>5. My mother <i>write</i> to me three times a week.</p> <p>6. I <i>have seen</i> her in the café about ten minutes ago.</p> <p>7. When I turned round, the woman <i>was disappeared</i>.</p> <p>8. I <i>did not observed</i> very much student-teacher interaction.</p> <p>9. Do you know <i>where does he live</i>?</p> <p>10. Do you know <i>who did write</i> the poem?</p> <p>11. She warned him <i>don't go near</i> the dog.</p> <p>12. Some of us <i>are feeling</i> that we are given too much homework.</p> <p>13. For the last three weeks the shop <i>is closed</i>.</p> <p>14. If you speak to the manager, I'm sure <i>he is going to help</i> you.</p> <p>15. The course <i>is going to start</i> on January 20th.</p>	<p>does Angela have writes I saw</p> <p>had disappeared</p> <p>did not observe</p> <p>where he lives who wrote the poem She warned him not to go near the dog Some of us feel that... ... has been closed I'm sure he will help you. The course starts...</p>
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Active Voice

I. Underline the correct word.

0. She has gone to Singapore and she's still / yet there.
1. He doesn't want to watch the film as he's seen it already / still.
2. Ann was on a diet five months before / ago. She lost three kilos.
3. She's only been playing the violin for two years and she can already / still play several of Mozart's most difficult pieces.
4. Even after twenty-five years she is still / yet actively involved in the club.
5. Jo's yet / still got a good figure even though she's five months pregnant.
6. "Has Sandra typed up those reports yet / still? I need them now."
7. Peter left the party two hours before / ago because he wasn't feeling well.
8. She had come back ago / before he returned.
9. I can't do the exam – I haven't finished doing all my revision still / yet.

II. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. She is being looking for a new job these days. (*being*)
1. Jerry has been given me a lot of help.
2. Do they know what time does the plane leaves?
3. We have been gone to that restaurant twice this month.
4. He opened the door, switched off the light and had left the house.

5. Tony was used to live on a farm as a young boy.
6. Simon was being happy because he had been offered a scholarship.
7. They had returned from New York late last night.
8. We can leave as soon as we will have the results.
9. I am see what you mean.
10. The Mayor is be going to open the new school tomorrow.
11. Sue has joined our company four years ago.
12. He has to been working as a chef for twelve years.
13. As long as you will promise to be back before ten you can go out.
14. The workers will have had finished the repairs by Wednesday.
15. He isn't being used to addressing big audiences.
16. Is Fiona will going to get married in June?
17. He is owns a luxurious mansion.

III. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. I have seen her yesterday at church.
2. What do you do now? – I do my project.
3. I'll speak to him as soon as he will come.
4. I've forgot to bring my book.
5. Look! Two boys fight.
6. I'm understanding the lesson now.
7. Every morning I'm going for a walk.
8. Last year I was walking to school every day.
9. The train already left before I arrived.
10. If he'll ask me, I will stay.

Passive Voice

I. Fill in: *by* or *with*.

0. *The Magus* was written ...**by**... John Fowles.
1. Who was the radio invented ...?
2. The cyclist was knocked down ... a bus.
3. Soup is eaten ... a spoon.
4. The car was fixed ... a mechanic.
5. The glass was cut ... a special tool.
6. Her hair is coloured ... henna.
7. "Born in the USA" was sung ... Springsteen.
8. The roast was flavoured ... wine.
9. Music will be played ... the local band.

II. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. She has been had her house repainted. (*been*)
1. Did he make you to stay at home?
2. He was been knighted for his service to the country.
3. Liz has had her hair be done.
4. The bankrobbers were been arrested at the airport yesterday.
5. The pictures they were donated to the gallery by the Queen.
6. He was been stopped at customs.
7. Charlotte had Bill to mend her TV.
8. The symphony was being written by Sibelius.
9. The goods will have be shipped to you tomorrow.
10. They have had central heating installed last Monday.
11. Jo was been given a beautiful necklace for Christmas.
12. All the windows were being broken in last night's explosion.

III. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. A lot of homes in the area have been being broken into by burglars.
2. As I drove south, I could see that the old road was rebuilding.
3. I suppose the letter will been delivered by now.
4. There is nothing more annoying than been interrupted when you are speaking.
5. Jim was been given the sack from his new job.
6. Somehow without my noticing my wallet had been disappeared.
7. The new shopping centre was opened with the local MP.
8. Harry is been questioned by the police about the accident.
9. A lot of meetings have been held, but nothing has being decided yet.
10. Last week it is decided not to have an office party after all.

Modal Verbs

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. I <i>daren't to tell</i> her that I've lost her keys.	I daren't tell her...
2. We <i>had him to put</i> a new lock on the door.	We had him put ...
3. <i>Had you to walk</i> all the way home?	Did you have to walk...
4. Most of us <i>haven't to work</i> on Sundays.	don't have to work...
5. She apologized and said that <i>she won't do it</i> again.	she wouldn't do it again.
6. She felt that she <i>could never to go</i> home again.	could never go
7. All I could <i>do was to cry</i> .	All I could do was cry .
8. In my last job <i>I must wear</i> a tie.	I had to wear a tie.

<p>9. You <i>mustn't</i> come if you don't want to.</p> <p>10. You <i>need not to sign</i> the form if you prefer not to.</p> <p>11. <i>I think I can't afford</i> a holiday this year.</p> <p>12. Fifty per cent of the machinery <i>have to be replaced</i>.</p> <p>13. Must I send the fax immediately? – <i>No, you mustn't</i>.</p> <p>14. The train <i>should arrive</i> at 10.30, but it was almost an hour late.</p> <p>15. We can do the job <i>faster than they</i>.</p>	<p>You needn't come... You need not sign...</p> <p>I don't think I can afford... has to be replaced</p> <p>No, you needn't. should have arrived</p> <p>faster than them / than they can</p>
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II. Choose the correct item.

1. Even though I'd hurt my leg, I *was able to / could* swim back to the boat.
2. In the future people will *be able to / can* live on other planets.
3. Harry's new jacket doesn't seem to fit him very well. He *must have tried / should have tried* it on before he bought it.
4. There is a law that says that you *might not / must not / don't have to* throw your trash on the streets.
5. Look at those clouds. I think it *might / must* rain.
6. I am not sure. I *must not / may not* be able to get there in time.
7. Soldiers *have / must / will* to obey the orders.
8. Helen *can't have stolen / must have stolen* the money from the office. She didn't come in to the office the day it was stolen.
9. It *can't / must / will* be a star, it's too bright. Perhaps it's an alien spaceship!
10. Helen *had to / must* leave the meeting early because she had a train to catch.
11. I *didn't need to / couldn't* get tickets after all – they were sold out.
12. I *will / could* be able to speak better if I practice more.
13. I *don't need to / shouldn't* wear glasses because my eyesight is still quite good.
14. You *don't have to / mustn't* wear your seatbelt during the whole of the flight.
15. You *should / have got to* tell her that you are sorry.
16. We *needn't have / couldn't have* ordered so much food as nobody was hungry.
17. When I first came to Madrid, I *could / couldn't* speak only a few words of Spanish.

18. He *can / could / was able* swim very well when he was young.
19. He *may / must* know her address, but I'm not sure.
20. I *must / had to / can* stay at home yesterday.
21. You *should / should have* told me about it yesterday.
22. Little children like books with large print. They *should / can / have to / must* read them more easily.
23. You *must / should / have to* take some book to read on the train.
24. *Need / May / Must* I have a look at the camera?
25. I hope you will *have to / be allowed to* take a vacation next week.
26. *Should / May / Can* you play the piano, Jane?
27. You *shouldn't / needn't* have worried about it. He kept his promise.
28. *Should / Were / Could* you drive before your husband bought a car?
29. You *can / ought to / are* be more careful when you drive a car.
30. *May / Must* I take this medicine every day?
31. I *might / had to* work overtime yesterday.
32. What *may / can / am* I do for you?
33. They *should / may / must* come any time.
34. Why *am / should / ought* I sell my car? It isn't very old.
35. Frank *might / had to* look for a job when he went back to Chicago.

III. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

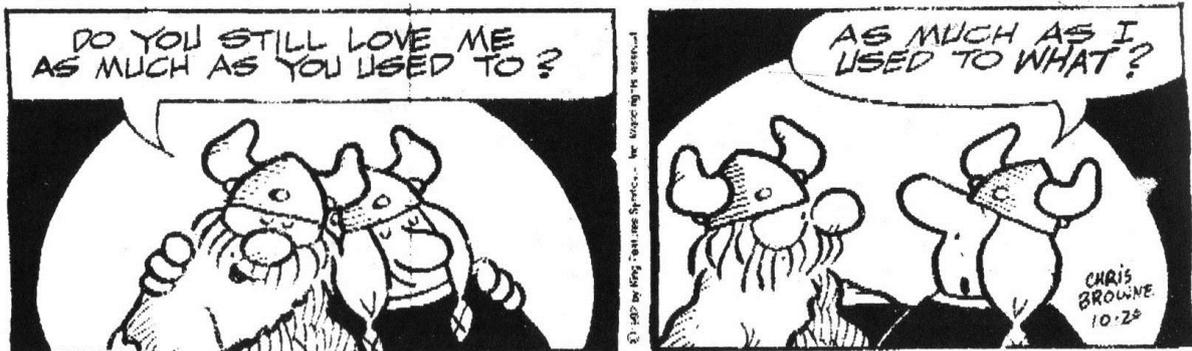
0. You needn't to repeat the course. (*to*)
1. Fortunately, we didn't have needed to walk the whole distance.
2. Jeremy would like that to study nuclear physics.
3. She had has to work overtime every day last month.
4. They ought to have had given us more instructions.
5. Let's not to argue about this any more.
6. The Prime Minister is being supposed to leave for the USA tonight.
7. They can't have had spent all that money in just one week.
8. They must have pack all their things before noon.
9. You should have try to treat customers more politely.
10. Might I to ask you for a favour?
11. You needn't have to invited so many people.
12. Let's we go to Ann's.

IV. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. If you pass the exam successfully, you could go abroad to get a BA degree.
2. She speaks English very well, but I'm not sure whether she can speaks French too.

3. Are you able lend me 5 pounds? – I'm afraid not.
4. You may not have seen a ghost. They don't exist.
5. Will you like me stay with you till midday?
6. You must not ring the doorbell. I've got the key.
7. You need not drive fast. The speed limit is 30 km / h.
8. Betty must have married my nephew but they parted a month before the wedding.
9. You need not try these berries. They are poisonous.
10. You could have eaten some fruit instead of mushrooms. Mushrooms don't agree with you.

Hager the Horrible



Subjunctive Mood

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. <i>If you watered</i> the plant regularly, it wouldn't have died.	If you had watered ...
2. <i>If you will go</i> to London, you can stay with my uncle.	If you go ...
3. Everyone <i>who will get</i> all the answers correct will receive a special prize.	who gets
4. We're going to the beach tomorrow as long as <i>it won't rain</i> .	as long as it doesn't rain .
5. If you had proper lessons, <i>you will make</i> more progress.	would make
6. If I were to start again, my choice of career <i>would have been</i> the same.	would be
7. <i>If only I don't have to work</i> tonight.	If only I didn't have to work tonight.
8. <i>If only you came</i> to me before, I could have helped you.	If only you had come to me before...
9. <i>If he only would stop</i> biting his fingernails!	If only he would stop ...!
10. If I hadn't been there, the child <i>should have</i>	the child would have

<p><i>drowned.</i></p> <p>11. I'd sooner <i>you don't tell</i> anyone about this.</p> <p>12. It's time you <i>answer</i> this letter.</p> <p>13. I <i>would like asking you</i> a few more questions.</p> <p>14. I <i>suggest your wife to talk</i> to the manager.</p> <p>15. I wish my legs <i>will stop aching</i>.</p>	<p>drowned.</p> <p>you didn't tell anyone...</p> <p>It's time you answered...</p> <p>I would like to ask you</p> <p>I suggest that your wife should talk...</p> <p>legs would stop aching</p>
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II. Underline the correct verb form.

1. If I *see / will see* Mike I *will tell / tell* him everything.
2. If she *changed / would change* her job she *earned / would earn* more.
3. If Jane *had studied / studied* more she *passed / would have passed* her exams.
4. If Mike *receives / has received* the telegram I'm sure he *phones / will phone* you tomorrow.
5. If you *worked / had worked* more, you *were / would be* a student now.
6. If I *lived / would live* in Spain I *did / would do* a lot of sunbathing.
7. If I *met / had met* you earlier I *didn't marry / wouldn't have married* Betty.
8. If you *phone / will phone* me I *pick / will pick* you up.
9. If I *stay / will stay* late I always *get / will get* a taxi home.
10. 10. If she *loved / had loved* him she *stayed / would have stayed* with Bob.

III. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. If you shall pay attention, maybe you'll learn something. (*shall*)
1. If Tom is busy, will ask Sarah to help.
2. If only she had been caught that train.
3. It's time we had announced the winner.
4. He'd better to pay off his debts before he buys a car.
5. I'd rather to write a project than sit an exam.
6. If only that I hadn't lost my traveller's cheques.
7. Suppose he had caught you stealing, what would you do?
8. Had if he known it was her birthday, he would have bought her a present.
9. Take my business card in case you will want to contact me.

IV. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. Paul acts as if he is a rich man.

2. If he'll ask me, I'll stay.
3. Janine talks as if she knows everything.
4. I would wish to know more English.
5. If I knew her well I will visit her.
6. If I have a computer I would learn Computer Studies.
7. If the weather would be nice tomorrow we'll go on excursion.
8. You did not miss the plane if you had taken a taxi.
9. I wish things were different in the past.
10. I wish I didn't go to bed early yesterday.

Gerund, Participle, Infinitive

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. I am not <i>accustomed to see</i> boys and girls in the same classroom.	accustomed to seeing
2. I don't know why she is so eager <i>for seeing</i> you.	eager to see you
3. I <i>felt something to run</i> across my pillow.	I felt something run
4. Have you <i>finished to write</i> the letter yet?	finished writing
5. Don't <i>forget buying</i> some milk while you are out.	forget to buy some milk
6. Last December we <i>went to ski</i> in the French Alps.	went skiing
7. After the short stories, she <i>went on writing</i> her first novel.	she went on to write
8. It's <i>no good to have</i> a piano if nobody can play it.	It's no good having a piano...
9. Two people stopped me and <i>helped me changing</i> the wheel.	helped me change
10. I <i>couldn't help to notice</i> the hole in his trousers.	I couldn't help noticing...
11. I <i>hope to hearing</i> from you again soon.	I hope to hear...
12. I <i>cannot imagine to live</i> in a cold climate.	I cannot imagine living in...
13. I <i>look forward to see</i> you again.	look forward to seeing you again
14. I <i>enjoy to speak</i> foreign languages.	I enjoy speaking...
15. I had great <i>difficulty to make</i> him understand me.	difficulty in making him understand me

II. Underline the correct participle.

On Saturday, I took my children to the circus. I thought I would have a 1) *boring / bored* time, but actually I was quite 2) *astonishing / astonished* by the 3) *amazing / amazed* acts. We were 4) *stunning / stunned* by the acrobats. They balanced on top of each other with incredible ease. We were really 5) *impressing / impressed* by their performance. The children found the lion-tamer's act 6) *exciting / excited*. I felt 7) *terrifying / terrified* when he put his hands into the lion's mouth, but the children were 8) *amusing / amused* and they clapped loudly. A magician performed many incredible tricks; it was 9) *fascinating / fascinated* to watch him make various objects disappear and reappear. The children were more 10) *interesting / interested* in the elephant act. When the huge animals came into the arena, the audience cheered. The elephants were well-trained and their tricks were 11) *entertaining / entertained*. Some children from the audience were invited to ride on the elephants' backs. My children were 12) *disappointing / disappointed* when they were not chosen, but their disappointment faded when the clowns took the centre ring. It was quite a 13) *captivating / captivated* show. By the time we got home we all felt 14) *exhausting / exhausted*.

III. Choose the correct item.

1. He gave up *to smoke / smoking*.
2. He seems *to be following / following* us.
3. He went away instead *to wait / of waiting*.
4. I don't remember *to have seen / having seen* him.
5. I enjoy *to play / playing* football.
6. I had the pleasure *to meet / of meeting* him.
7. I look forward to *see / seeing* him soon.
8. I managed *to put / putting* the fire out.
9. I often think *to go / of going* to England.
10. Is it possible *to sign / signing* a construction contract without discussing the main clauses?
11. Is today's film worth *to see / seeing*?
12. It takes time *to learn / learning* the subject matter thoroughly.
13. It's no good *to get / getting* angry.
14. She agreed *to pay / paying* 50\$.
15. She has no difficulty *to do / in doing* it.
16. The customer got tired *to wait / of waiting*.
17. The music went on *to play / playing* all day.
18. The rain prevented me *to go / from going*.
19. There's no harm *to visit / in visiting* her now.
20. We couldn't risk *to leave / leaving* him alone.

IV. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. She let me to use her computer. (*to*)
1. The Persian rug was too expensive for us to buy it.
2. Taking regular exercise it is beneficial to your health.
3. We saw the Queen to welcome the British Olympic winners.
4. It was enough too late to find accommodation elsewhere.
5. We would sooner to renew our contract than move somewhere else.
6. He might to be given a more responsible position in future.
7. To making promises you do not intend to keep is dishonest.
8. Those curtains want being dry-cleaning.
9. She prefers working out than to sitting at home doing nothing.
10. I would like entertaining people at home at the weekends.
11. We enjoy going for fishing from time to time.
12. It's no use you spending money on impractical household items.
13. She'll never forget to meeting Bruce Springsteen.
14. He was afraid of to tell his parents that he had damaged the car.
15. Shirley won't accept their offer if it means that working at the weekend.

V. Put the verbs in brackets into the correct form (*gerund* or *infinitive*).

Part 1:

1. I am looking forward to (*see*) you.
2. He dreads (*have*) to retire.
3. I arranged (*meet*) them here.
4. He urged us (*work*) faster.
5. I wish (*see*) the manager.
6. It's no use (*wait*).
7. He warned her (*not touch*) the wire.
8. Don't forget (*lock*) the door before (*go*) to bed.
9. My mother told me (*not speak*) to anyone about it.
10. I can't understand her (*behave*) like that.
11. He tried (*explain*) but she refused (*listen*).
12. At dinner she annoyed me by (*smoke*) between the courses.
13. You are expected (*know*) the safety regulations of the college.
14. He decided (*disguise*) himself by (*dress*) as a woman.
15. I am prepared (*wait*) here all night if necessary.
16. Would you mind (*show*) me how (*work*) the lift?
17. After (*walk*) for three hours we stopped to let the others (*catch*) up with us.
18. I am beginning (*understand*) what you mean.
19. He was fined for (*exceed*) the speed limit.
20. The boys like (*play*) games but hate (*do*) lessons.

21. I regret (*inform*) you that your application has been refused.
22. I couldn't help (*overhear*) what you said.
23. Mrs Jones: I don't allow (*smoke*) in my drawing-room.
– Mrs Smith: I don't allow my family (*smoke*) at all.
24. He surprised us all by (*go*) away without (*say*) 'Good-bye'.
25. Please go on (*write*); I don't mind (*wait*).

Part 2:

1. He wore dark glasses (*avoid*) (*be*) recognized.
2. Before (*give*) evidence you must swear (*speak*) the truth.
3. I tried (*persuade*) him (*agree*) with your proposal.
4. Your windows need (*clean*); would you like me (*do*) them for you?
5. Would you mind (*shut*) the window? I hate (*sit*) in a draught.
6. I can't help (*sneeze*); I caught a cold yesterday from (*sit*) in a draught.
7. Do stop (*talk*): I am trying (*finish*) a letter.
8. His doctor advised him (*give up*) (*jog*).
9. My watch keeps (*stop*). – That's because you keep (*forget*) (*wind*) it.
10. Without (*realize*) it, he hindered us instead of (*help*) us.
11. People used (*make*) fire by (*rub*) two sticks together.
12. He hates (*answer*) the phone, and very often just lets it (*ring*).
13. If you go on (*let*) your dog (*chase*) cars he'll end by (*be*) run over.
14. I prefer (*drive*) to (*be driven*).
15. I advise you (*start*) (*look*) for a flat at once.
16. Would you mind (*lend*) me £5? I forgot (*cash*) a cheque.
17. (*Lie*) on this beach is much more pleasant than (*sit*) in the office.
18. She likes her children (*go*) to the dentist every six months.
19. By (*neglect*) (*take*) ordinary precautions he endangered the life of his crew.
20. An instructor is coming (*show*) us how (*use*) the aqualung.
21. I have no intention of (*go*) to that film; I couldn't bear (*see*) my favourite actress in such a dreadful part.
22. I suggest (*telephone*) the hospitals before (*ask*) the police (*look*) for him.
23. After (*hear*) the conditions I decided (*not enter*) for the competition.
24. Some people seem (*have*) a passion for (*write*) to the newspapers.
25. He expects me (*answer*) by return but I have no intention of (*reply*) at all.

Part 3:

1. I tried (*explain*) to him but he refused (*listen*) and went on (*grumble*).
2. By (*offer*) enormous wages he is persuading men (*leave*) their present jobs and (*work*) for him.
3. He postponed (*make*) a decision till it was too late (*do*) anything.
4. Imagine (*have*) (*get up*) at five a.m. every day!
5. Try (*forget*) it: it isn't worth (*worry*) about.
6. There is no point in (*remain*) in a dangerous place if you can't do anything (*help*) the people who have (*stay*) there.
7. The horse won't be well enough (*run*) in tomorrow's race. He doesn't seem (*have recovered*) from his long journey.
8. At first I enjoyed (*listen*) to him but after a while I got tired of (*hear*) the same story again and again.
9. It is usually easier (*learn*) a subject by (*read*) books than by (*listen*) to lectures.
10. It wouldn't be safe (*start*) down now; we'll have (*wait*) till the mist clears.
11. After (*discuss*) the matter for an hour the committee adjourned without (*have reached*) any decision.
12. It's not much use (*have*) a bicycle if you don't know how (*ride*) it.
13. He didn't dare (*leave*) the house because he was afraid of (*meet*) someone who might (*recognize*) him.
14. I distinctly remember (*pay*) him. I gave him J2.
15. Did you remember (*give*) him the key of the safe? – No, I didn't. I'll go and do it now.
16. Please forgive me for (*interrupt*) you but would you mind (*repeat*) that last sentence?
17. I know my hair wants (*cut*) but I never have time (*go*) to the hairdresser's.
18. He made a lot of money by (*buy*) tickets in advance and (*sell*) them for twice the price on the day of the match.
19. She rushed out of the room without (*give*) me a chance (*explain*).
20. He keeps (*ask*) me the time and I keep (*tell*) him (*buy*) himself a watch.
21. He has a theory that it is possible (*tell*) the time in daylight by (*look*) into a cat's eyes.
22. I'd hate (*be*) beside a volcano when it started (*erupt*).
23. Do you feel like (*go*) to a film or would you rather (*stay*) at home?
24. I liked (*listen*) to folk music much better than (*listen*) to pop.
25. You'll never regret (*do*) a kind action.

VI. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. The wind has almost stopped to blow.
2. It's no use to cry like a baby.
3. They're quite capable to do that.
4. Simon insisted to go to London.
5. I object to be treated like this.
6. Paula succeeded to win the prize.
7. She's used to get up early.
8. I can't avoid to make mistakes.
9. Have you finished to speak?
10. Would you mind to open the door?

Word Order

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. <i>Our both countries</i> get money from oil.	Both our countries
2. We <i>gave all them</i> a present.	We gave them all a present.
3. Last August I <i>went with some friends camping</i> .	I went camping with some friends.
4. I told him <i>to not be so impatient</i> not to be so impatient.
5. He told us <i>to read carefully the questions</i> .	to read the questions carefully.
6. Children cannot be expected to <i>keep all the time quiet</i> .	cannot be expected to keep quiet all the time.
7. <i>Always he arrives late</i> .	He always arrives late.
8. I <i>have difficulty often</i> in understanding her.	I often have difficulty in...
9. My letters <i>still are being</i> sent to the wrong address.	My letters are still being sent to the wrong address.
10. <i>They each were</i> delighted with the photographs.	They were each delighted.
11. <i>The watch is either broken or</i> it needs a new battery.	Either the watch is broken or it needs a new battery.
12. She asked me <i>if I ever had been</i> to France.	if I had ever been to
13. Could you <i>do a favour to me</i> ?	Could you do me a favour ?
14. The flat isn't big enough <i>to live in for the six of us</i> .	The flat isn't big enough for the six of us to live in.
15. Last week <i>happened to me something</i>	Last week something very

<i>very strange.</i>	strange happened to me.
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II. Put the words into the correct order to make up a sentence.

Part 1:

1. to / pass / plate / John / please / the
2. them / haven't / told / I / accident / about / the
3. to / children / the / I / taking / Zoo / am / the
4. didn't / pocket / elder / to / I / money / son / any / send / my
5. good / was / idea / it / a / to / him / way / ask / the
6. trying / skates / put / Mr Winkle / was / to / on / his
7. want / from / anything / him / I / to / don't / take
8. director / with / his / not / satisfied / the / was / secretary
9. says / him / anything / he / nobody / told
10. got / a / test / the / he / mark / very / for / good
11. me / forget / send / a / to / don't / post-card
12. the / haven't / since / been / I / last / to / year / theatre
13. don't / to / Sundays / go / on / we / school
14. students / last / meeting / the / to / didn't / Wednesday / come / the
15. evening / the / at / walk / he / for / in / usually / a / goes / five o'clock

Part 2:

1. to / going / London / next / few / am / a / I / days / week / for
2. Sweden / left / ago / she / town / two / her / for / years
3. should / the / to / every / dentist / months / you / go / six
4. I'll / to / tonight / think / early / go / bed / I
5. drives / work / every / to / Ann / car / her / day
6. sure / are / there / by / get / 8 o'clock / we / to
7. don't / work / on / I / Sundays / usually / to / have
8. has / probably / home / gone / he / early
9. you / take / a / ever / don't / break?
10. they / at / talking / about / 5 o'clock / were / football / still
11. says / never / late / he / for / is / his / work / he
12. name / I / remember / his / can / never
13. television-set / often / our / down / breaks
14. has / very / always / been / she / generous
15. colour / a / they / bought / new / have / television-set

III. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. I always am on time.
2. It rains seldom in the desert.
3. We went yesterday there.

4. I'm not enough tall.
5. He begged the teacher to not punish him.
6. I could have not arrived sooner.
7. She will have not finished her work by tomorrow.
8. I prefer usually coffee to tea.
9. They are leaving for London this evening at seven o'clock.
10. Peter yesterday did not come to school.

Inversion

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. <i>Not only did</i> Jean win first prize, <i>and</i> she was <i>also</i> offered a promotion.	Not only did ... , but also ...
2. <i>If were you</i> to pay the full amount now, there would be a ten per cent discount.	Were you to pay...
3. <i>Never I have enjoyed</i> myself more!	Never have I enjoyed ...!
4. <i>Rarely I had had</i> so much responsibility.	Rarely had I had so much
5. <i>Hardly the train left</i> the station, <i>when</i> there was an explosion.	Hardly had the train left ... , when...
6. <i>Scarcely had I entered</i> the room <i>than</i> the phone rang.	Scarcely ... when...
7. <i>No sooner had I reached</i> the door <i>when</i> I realised it was locked.	No sooner ... than...
8. <i>Only after</i> posting the letter <i>I did remember</i> that I had forgotten to put on a stamp.	Only after posting the letter did I remember...
9. <i>On no condition they are</i> to open fire without a warning.	On no condition are they to open...
10. <i>Not until</i> I got home <i>I didn't notice</i> that I had the wrong umbrella.	Not until I got home did I notice that...
11. <i>Should he has cheated</i> , he will have to be punished.	Should he have cheated , he will...
12. <i>Away the thief ran!</i>	Away ran the thief!
13. "I've got a headache!" – " <i>So I have.</i> "	"So have I."
14. "I didn't pass my driving test." – " <i>So didn't I.</i> "	"Neither did I."
15. "I've never seen him," <i>Helen said.</i>	"I've never seen him," said Helen.

II. Underline the correct item.

1. Jim promised that *he would never / never would he* tell anyone else.
2. Not until it was too late *I remembered / did I remember* to call Susan.
3. Hardly had we settled down in our seats *than / when* the lights went out.

4. Only after checking three times *I was / was I* certain of the answer.
5. At no time *I was aware / was I aware* of anything out of the ordinary.
6. Only Catherine and Sally *passed / did they pass* the final examination.
7. Only when *Pete has arrived / has Pete arrived* can we begin the programme.
8. No sooner had it stopped raining *than / when* the sun came out.
9. *If should you leave early / Should you leave early* could you give me a lift?
10. *Scarcely / No sooner* had we arrived at the hotel, when there was a power cut.

III. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. Only when did he turned around was he able to see properly. (*did*)
1. It was only last week who that they got married.
2. Please, do you help yourself to another piece.
3. I can't drive and neither does can my mother.
4. So long was the journey that I did fell asleep.
5. Not once did she to regret having come.
6. Why is it that she does always looks unhappy?
7. What he needs it is a long holiday.
8. It was Claire who she left work early yesterday.
9. Whoever disagrees should they raise their hand.
10. So much hard was the exam that everyone failed.
11. Mark likes sailing and so too do I.
12. If you talk in class, you will to be punished.
13. Were I be you, I'd apologise.
14. No sooner had he left than that the bomb exploded.
15. What the school does needs is a new canteen.

IV. Correct whatever is wrong with the following sentences.

1. Hurry up! Here the train comes.
2. "I went to Cuba last summer." – "And I did so."
3. "I'm not going out tonight." – "So am I not."
4. No sooner had one missing child been found, when another three disappeared.
5. I supposed, as most people do, that I would be retiring at 60.
6. Not only did he fail to report the accident, and also later denied that he had been driving the car.
7. No sooner the team was back on the pitch when it started raining.
8. "I don't like meat." – "So I don't."
9. Never the doctors have seen a more difficult case.
10. If had I known, I would have protested strongly.

Questions

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. <i>Did you went</i> to school yesterday?	Did you go to school yesterday?
2. <i>Does the gardener waters</i> the flowers?	Does the gardener water the flowers?
3. <i>You understand</i> the problem?	Do you understand the problem?
4. <i>He speaks Chinese?</i>	Does he speak Chinese?
5. <i>You were</i> at the theater yesterday?	Were you at the theater yesterday?
6. <i>Who does want</i> something to drink?	Who wants something to drink?
7. <i>What did happen</i> to you last night?	What happened to you last night?
8. Let's go for a walk, <i>don't we?</i>	Let's go for a walk, shall we?
9. Give me a hand, <i>can you?</i>	Give me a hand, will you?
10. Don't be late, <i>do you?</i>	Don't be late, will you?
11. I'm late, <i>amn't I?</i>	I'm late, aren't I? (= am I not?)
12. The film wasn't very good, <i>was the film?</i>	The film wasn't very good, was it?
13. Do you know <i>what time does the film begin?</i>	Do you know what time the film begins?
14. "Haven't you locked the door?" – "Yes, <i>I haven't</i> ".	"Haven't you locked the door?" – " No, I haven't ".
15. Sally can speak French, <i>doesn't she?</i>	Sally can speak French, can't she?

II. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. John goes jogging every morning, doesn't he go? (*go*)
1. Would you mind to picking some things up at the supermarket?
2. That's your car, isn't it this?
3. How long have you be lived in London?
4. There is a problem with the photocopier again, isn't it there?
5. Don't forget to ring the dentist, will you not?
6. How long time does it take to get there?
7. Would you to like a cup of coffee?
8. Didn't you not see him yesterday?
9. Who did told you about the problem?
10. How long is it the film?

III. Put the words into the correct order. All the sentences are questions.

1. time / he / on / always / come / his / to / does / classes?
2. you / to / can / evening / airport / this / me / take / the?
3. long / studied / English / how / you / have?
4. English / well / father / as / does / mother / speak / as?
5. delivers / your / in / who / newspaper / morning / the?
6. Kate / for / waiting / is / who?
7. rich / did / want / he / to / and / be / famous?
8. when / was / built / this house?
9. afford / this / can / holiday / a / year / you?
10. an / did / last / accident / he / have / week?
11. married / last / they / get / did / month?
12. told / to / him / before / six o'clock / who / come?
13. the / any / were / in / photographs / there / bag?
14. sent / doctor / they / have / for / a?
15. listening / the / are / students / what / to?
16. advised / the / police / accident / who / you / tell / about / to / the?
17. to / ride / like / horse / would / a / you / learn / to?
18. you / if / mind / ask / questions / do / I / some?
19. this / before / seen / you / ever / have / painting?
20. posted / have / yet / letter / you / the?

IV. Correct whatever is wrong with the following questions.

1. You were at the cinema last night?
2. At what time did she came yesterday?
3. You will go home next week?
4. He has returned from leave?
5. Does she speaks French?
6. You have some good news for me?
7. He can drive a car?
8. You heard about the accident?
9. Why she comes here every day?
10. When the post will come?

Reported Speech

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. "Call me tomorrow." – She said to call her <i>tomorrow</i> .	She said to call her the following day .
2. "My feet are cold." – She said <i>my feet</i> were cold.	She said her feet were cold.
3. "Sign this form here." – She told him	She told him to sign that form

<p>to sign <i>this form here</i>.</p> <p>4. "What do you want to do now?" – He asked what I wanted to do <i>now</i>.</p> <p>5. "I'm not working today." – He said he wasn't working <i>today</i>.</p> <p>6. "Don't take a long nap." – He said <i>to take not</i> a long nap.</p> <p>7. "Does the job provide benefits?" – He asked <i>does the job provide</i> benefits.</p> <p>8. "Why did you leave your job?" – She asked me <i>why did I leave</i> my job.</p> <p>9. "Where is your office?" – I asked <i>where was his office</i>.</p> <p>10. At the interview they asked me <i>when can you start work</i>.</p> <p>11. I wonder <i>who is our</i> waiter.</p> <p>12. My mother is always telling me <i>don't leave my boots</i> in the hall.</p> <p>13. Ann <i>said me</i> good bye and left.</p> <p>14. She <i>told I</i> was late.</p> <p>15. I <i>said the police nothing</i>.</p>	<p>there. He asked what I wanted to do then / next.</p> <p>He said he wasn't working that day.</p> <p>He said not to take a long nap.</p> <p>He asked if the job provided benefits.</p> <p>She asked me why I had left my job.</p> <p>I asked where his office was.</p> <p>At the interview they asked me when you could start work.</p> <p>I wonder who our waiter is.</p> <p>My mother is always telling me not to leave my boots in the hall.</p> <p>told me / said to me She told me I was late. I said nothing to the police.</p>
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II. Underline the correct item.

- I *said / told* the driver I wanted to stop.
- My mother *said / told* there was a letter for me.
- Everybody *said / told* I looked beautiful.
- Why did you *say / tell* the lessons were expensive?
- Eric *said / told* the waiter he couldn't pay.
- I didn't *say / tell* Peter that I was going away.
- Nobody *said / told* me that the shop was closed.
- Ann *said / told* that she would wait at the bus stop.
- Why didn't you *say / tell* the truth?
- Ben *said / told* that the lift was out of order.

III. Match the parts in the columns.

- | | |
|--------------------|--|
| 1. She threatened, | a) "Careful! The water's deep!" |
| 2. He boasted, | b) "Could you bring me the wine list?" |
| 3. He begged, | c) "I'll pay you on Friday." |
| 4. She asked, | d) "If you do that again, I'll leave." |
| 5. She shouted, | e) "Our team will easily beat yours." |

- | | | | |
|-----|----------------|----|--|
| 6. | She agreed, | f) | “Please, please give me another chance.” |
| 7. | He offered, | g) | “Shhh! The baby is sleeping.” |
| 8. | She warned, | h) | “Would you like me to drive you home?” |
| 9. | He promised, | i) | “You may speak to the judge.” |
| 10. | She permitted, | j) | “Yes, I’ll do it again.” |

IV. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. He claimed that to have met the Queen of Spain. (*that*)
- Sophia wanted to know what time did they returned home the previous night.
 - The players complained of to the coach about having to play in the hail.
 - Margaret promised to will be careful with the money given to her.
 - The boy asked to his mother if he could play with his friends.
 - She said she was ready to go, but adding that the taxi was waiting.
 - The manager told us do not to misuse office equipment.
 - Did he tell to you what happened?
 - She demanded that to be given his name and address.
 - They suggested to buying her a nice wedding present.
 - He told me that I would not have had to leave early the next day.
 - She apologised for having keeping us waiting.
 - He asked me if he could use my computer and I said he could to.
 - Do you know what time do the children finish school?
 - My sister encouraged me how to try once more.
 - They accused him of having been falsified the documents.



“We get a lot of foreign visitors.”

V. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

- I said Peter where was he going.
- I said I’m really tired.
- John asked how did I feel.
- I asked somebody where was the station?
- I told Ann to not worry.
- Jake told that he wanted a holiday.
- Joe phoned me on Sunday and said he went to a great party yesterday.
- Shakespeare told his wife that you don’t understand my work.
- I don’t know what does this word mean.

10. He said he was going fishing this week.

Prepositions

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. The woman <i>asked me a cigarette</i> .	asked me for a cigarette
2. His daughter is <i>married with a doctor</i> .	married to a doctor
3. I <i>am sorry for</i> all the mistakes in this letter.	sorry about smth
4. Apples are <i>good to you</i> .	good for you
5. Derek is very <i>good with his mother</i> .	good to his mother
6. Helen is <i>good with languages</i> .	good at languages
7. How many of us clean our teeth <i>three times in a day</i> .	three times a day
8. The play <i>deals in the struggle</i> of a married couple to live their own lives.	deals with the struggle
9. In fact there is <i>enough of food</i> in the world to feed everyone.	enough food
10. As soon as he <i>entered into the room</i> , we all stood up.	entered the room
11. The old lady <i>explained us</i> that the bag was full of cheese.	explained to us
12. My dream is to buy a house which <i>faces at the sea</i> .	faces the sea
13. The best way to see the city is <i>by foot</i> .	on foot
14. It was very <i>kind for you</i> to invite me.	kind of you
15. On my <i>way to home</i> , I stopped at the supermarket.	On my way home

II. Choose the correct item.

- He's been ill *from / since* last Friday.
- You've sold your car *at / for* a good price.
- I sold my bicycle *at / for* forty pounds.
- I expect to return *after / in* a week.
- I can wait *to / till* next Tuesday.
- We draw lines *by / with* a ruler.
- She's been absent *since / for* a month.
- They spoke *for / about* the weather.
- He worked *with / by* candle light.
- You can send the parcel *with / by* post.

II. Fill in: about, at, in, into, for, from, of, on, to or with.

Part 1:

1. A witch had changed him ... a mouse.
2. Audiences roared ... laughter.
3. Be quiet – let me concentrate ... my homework.
4. Detectives are searching the yard ... clues.
5. Did you thank Uncle Ron ... the present?
6. Don't economize ... your health.
7. Don't shout ... your mother.
8. He had to borrow some money ... me.
9. He has been criticized ... incompetence.
10. He has thrown a stone ... the girl.

Part 2:

1. He ran ... the back of another car.
2. He rejoiced ... my visit.
3. He was sentenced ... death.
4. He's suspected ... murder.
5. I apologize ... losing my temper.
6. I think you should apologize ... your brother.
7. I wouldn't believe them if I didn't hear everything ... my ears!
8. It's high time you abstained ... alcohol.
9. I've never felt able to confide ... my sister.
10. Local authorities have to cope ... the problems of homelessness.
11. Many women have to depend financially ... their husbands.
12. Marie still blames herself ... Patrick's death.
13. More money should be spent ... education.
14. Most Americans still believe ... God.
15. My husband talked me ... going skiing.
16. No one benefits ... this decision.
17. Oliver made a fortune by investing ... antique furniture.
18. One in three marriages ends ... divorce.
19. People use more than words when they communicate ... each other.
20. Scientists traditionally divide the oceans ... zones.

Part 3:

1. She felt like crying ... frustration.
2. Sheila's interested ... starting her own business.
3. Smith accused her ... lying.
4. Smoking leads ... many problems.
5. Stick ... the point.
6. That is not a subject I want to dwell
7. That song always reminds me ... our first date.
8. The audience consisted mainly ... teenagers.

9. The house belonged ... my grandfather.
10. The Mayor praised the soldiers ... their courage.
11. The plane crashed ... a mountain.
12. The same thing happened ... me last year.
13. The woman succeeded ... politics.
14. They deserve to be punished ... putting passengers at risk.
15. This yoghurt tastes ... strawberries.
16. Tom was unfairly dismissed ... his post.
17. Translate the text ... Italian ... English.
18. What has he hinted ...?
19. Who is knocking ... the door?
20. You can rely ... me.

IV. Supply the prepositions omitted in the following.

1. Somebody is knocking the door.
2. I'm searching my lost book.
3. He said me, 'I won't come.'
4. She explained the difficult words him.
5. She never listens her mother.
6. I replied his letter at once.
7. Would you like me to send it you?
8. I'm too busy, I can't wait you.
9. I asked his phone number.
10. She pointed the ship in the distance.

V. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. I've seen nothing but of the first draft. (*of*)
1. I am make sure you will enjoy yourself.
2. She won from a radio in a competition.
3. Cooking it is something that I really enjoy.
4. Paul and Sally are getting married to next week.
5. I never thought of he would say that.
6. If you will want to go out, you must tell me first.
7. Tom hired a too luxurious yacht while on holiday.
8. I would like to learn about to speak Italian.
9. Michael has been sold his old car.
10. Their wedding took the place last Sunday.

VI. Rewrite the following sentences, using the correct prepositions.

1. He was accused for lying.
2. I'm surprised from the news.
3. I'm interested for football.
4. Water is composed from oxygen and hydrogen.
5. Are you sure for his honesty?
6. She's very good in English.
7. When is he leaving to England?
8. That depends entirely from you.
9. She was dressed with a yellow dress.
10. He did his best to comply to the requirements.



"I MISS THE GOOD OLD DAYS WHEN ALL WE HAD TO WORRY ABOUT WAS NOUNS AND VERBS."

Conjunctions

I. Comment on the error correction. Explain the rule.

1. <i>Eight thousand thirty-seven.</i>	Eight thousand and thirty-seven.
2. I asked Paul <i>if</i> he was going.	I asked Paul whether he...
3. I don't like <i>red and orange</i> . I want the blue one.	I don't like red or orange.
4. I'd reached the school <i>till</i> the rain started.	before (when) the rain started.
5. Joe <i>hasn't come too</i> .	Joe hasn't come either .
6. Sara speaks <i>neither English or French</i> .	neither English nor French
7. She <i>said that</i> , "I'm sure to pass."	She said , "I'm sure to pass."
8. <i>During waiting</i> for the bus, I try to learn a few words.	While waiting
9. The company has been operating <i>during four years</i> .	for four years
10. <i>Even so</i> , I knew the house was empty, I rang the door.	Even though...
11. <i>In spite of the driver didn't stop</i> , we managed to get the member of the car.	Although the driver didn't stop...
12. <i>Although</i> we worked very hard, <i>we enjoyed us</i> .	we enjoyed ourselves.
13. <i>Besides to like children</i> , a good teacher has to have a lot of patience.	Besides liking children ...

14. It was <i>the same man he had stolen</i> my wallet.	the same man who had stolen
15. I walked up the stairs cautiously. <i>Even though</i> I nearly fell twice.	Even so I nearly fell twice.

II. Fill in: *so, such or such a(n)*.

A few years ago, I spent my holiday on the Greek island of Santorini. I was 1) ...*so*... worried about travelling alone that I became quite nervous. However, about five minutes after the ferry had left I met 2) ... nice American couple that I stayed with them for the whole holiday. When we docked, we were pushed onto a bus that was filled with 3) ... a lot of people that we felt as if we couldn't breathe. At the bus station there were 4) ... many people waiting to offer us accommodation that we decided to ignore them, preferring to walk along the main road to find somewhere to stay ourselves. After an hour or so we started to think that not accepting any of the men's offers of accommodation had been 5) ... bad idea that we decided to ask someone for help. We asked an old man if he knew of anywhere we could stay. He led us to a lovely little apartment on the edge of a cliff. It was 6) ... gorgeous a flat, and the view was 7) ... good that we took it immediately. We had brought 8) ... few things with us, and it took us 9) ... short time to unpack that we were on the famous black sand beach in no time. We had 10) ... nice time together and we became 11) ... good friends that we still keep in touch, sending letters and Christmas cards. This year Scott and Arianne are coming to Scotland to spend Christmas with me. It will be great to see them again.

III. Underline the correct item.

0. *Yet / No matter what* he does to please her, she always finds something to complain about.
1. *Although / However* I set my alarm clock for 7.00 am, it didn't go off.
2. *Despite / Even though* the bad weather forecast, Susan and Jim went climbing.
3. She tries hard, *although / yet* she makes little progress.
4. Tom's wife drives better than he does, *whereas / although* he won't admit it.
5. Lots of people drive fast *although / in spite of* police warnings.
6. Bad mannered *though / yet* he is, he has got lots of friends.
7. She is a brilliant singer; *while / nevertheless*, she refuses to sing in public.
8. Rich *as / even though* they are, they never buy expensive things.
9. *However / While* much she denies it, she does dye her hair blonde.

10. She speaks Japanese fluently, *yet / despite* she has never visited the country.
11. *In spite of / However* all the bad publicity, the film became a box office success.
12. Janine turned up at the wedding *even though / despite* she wasn't invited.
13. *However / Though* hard he tries, he'll never outsmart Pat.
14. Much *as / yet* I admire her, I can't accept her point of view on this matter.
15. The northwest of the country gets a lot of rain *whereas / as* the east gets more snow.

IV. Find the word which should not be in the sentence.

0. He was promoted as because of his exceptional performance at work. (*as*)
 1. As a result of his being waking up late, he missed the meeting.
 2. The star hired a bodyguard for fear of she might be kidnapped.
 3. Despite of being pressed for time, he listened to her complaints.
 4. Those whose houses were damaged by the flood they will be compensated.
 5. I'll collect the tickets before I will go to the office.
 6. Nobody knows the reason for his being absence.
 7. She crossed the street to avoid from meeting him.
 8. The man that arrested for arson will appear in court today.
 9. When they will finish rehearsing, they are planning to give a press conference.
 10. They introduced new measures in order that to control the situation.
 11. She has got so little of information that she can't possibly help us.
 12. They're planning to record the match in case they will miss it.
 13. Theirs was such a nice furniture that we all admired it.
 14. What an awful weather!
 15. This is the fireman who he risked his life to save the girl.
 16. We were running out of time so that we had to make haste.
 17. He decided to visit the place where Monet spent his life there.
 18. The MP, whose his speech made such an impression, is leaving for Paris tonight.
 19. He left early so that as to be sure of getting to work on time.
 20. John acts as if he were been in charge of the whole department.

V. Correct the following sentences, giving reasons for your corrections.

1. The book is neither green or red.
2. He can't speak English and French.
3. It costs two, three pounds.
4. She not only spoke loudly, but also clear.
5. He ate and the three oranges.
6. I counted one hundred seven people.
7. She wants to learn and French.
8. He said that, "You'll be sorry for it."
9. I don't know if I'll be able to go.
10. From now and on I will work hard.

Test Yourself in Error Correction

I. Correct whatever is wrong in the following.

Part 1:

1. Why you are studying the English? (2 mistakes)
2. John reads good, isn't it? (2 mistakes)
3. Why you not say the truth? (2 mistakes)
4. Will I go at the post-office? (2 mistakes)
5. How to make this problem, sir? (2 mistakes)
6. Is she more better than me? (2 mistakes)
7. I've written him last week. (2 mistakes)
8. I past my time too well to the hotel. (3 mistakes)
9. Let me to try to do this and me. (2 mistakes)
10. I have never seen a so good film. (3 mistakes)

Part 2:

1. He's not ate nothing these two days. (2 mistakes)
2. When I sleep I take out my shoes. (2 mistakes)
3. He didn't obeyed to their advices. (3 mistakes)
4. She's going each morning to the school. (4 mistakes)
5. He works in the office since five years. (2 mistakes)
6. How you are going with your piano lessons? (2 mistakes)
7. Can you to come for dinner today evening? (2 mistakes)
8. My brother he's found in the first class. (2 mistakes)
9. It does not worth to say lies about it. (3 mistakes)
10. I made all which I could for helping him. (3 mistakes)
11. It's two years now since she left from England. (2 mistakes)
12. Please return back to shut the light. (2 mistakes)
13. Avoid to make these sort of mistakes. (2 mistakes)
14. Myself and my sister will not be present. (2 mistakes)
15. He got down from his bicycle and spoke me. (2 mistakes)
16. He travelled with the train from the Alexandria. (2 mistakes)

17. She wouldn't take fewer than hundred pounds. (2 mistakes)
18. The two first pages of my book has been lost. (2 mistakes)
19. The knife was laying on the table where I lay it. (2 mistakes)
20. That punishment will learn him to do not do it again. (2 mistakes)

Part 3:

1. You neither work at school or at your house. (3 mistakes)
2. I can't understand because he don't speak clear. (2 mistakes)
3. The man which you saw him yesterday is very rich. (2 mistakes)
4. She said that she's never not gone at London. (3 mistakes)
5. I think to go to home for to spend the holidays. (3 mistakes)
6. The office is open on the morning at Saturday. (2 mistakes)
7. It's two years since I began to study the English. (2 mistakes)
8. She told that she was at England before three years. (3 mistakes)
9. He was angry at me because I said him he has wrong. (4 mistakes)
10. When I went to home I found that the money was disappeared. (2 mistakes)
11. He said to me that he is not satisfied from his teacher. (3 mistakes)
12. She told that she can't remember nothing about it. (3 mistakes)
13. I and he intend to leave to England after two weeks. (3 mistakes)
14. I am knowing the answer but cannot say it in the English. (2 mistakes)
15. I rang two times, but I could not make no one to hear. (3 mistakes)
16. They bought a new house when the baby was born which it cost all their savings. (2 mistakes)
17. When he will return back, I shall say him everything. (3 mistakes)
18. I am much pleased to inform you that I have reached to this station yesterday. (3 mistakes)
19. The British Isles are consisted from England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland. (2 mistakes)
20. The English difficult to write it, it. (3 mistakes)



is not only
but also to speak

"So, then ... Would that be 'us the people' or
'we the people?'"

LEVEL II

Grammatical Combinability

Do you know why the given sentences are wrong? Comment on the error correction and explain the rule in each case. Try to classify each mistake in the parts of speech terms where possible, for example, № 1 – verbs (tenses), № 14 – preposition, № 17 – word order, etc.

A. Basic mistakes to avoid

don't say / write	say / write
1. Look – <i>it rains</i> .	Look – it's raining .
2. <i>It's often raining</i> here.	It often rains here.
3. When I was 20 I <i>was smoking</i> .	When I was 20 I smoked .
4. I <i>have seen</i> Louis yesterday.	I saw Louis yesterday.
5. We're <i>living</i> here since April.	We've been living here since April.
6. I'll phone you when I <i>will arrive</i> .	I'll phone you when I arrive .
7. I'm <i>not believing</i> him.	I don't believe him.
8. I <i>am born</i> in Chicago.	I was born in Chicago.
9. My sister <i>has 15 years</i> .	My sister is 15 (years old) .
10. I <i>have cold</i> in this house.	I am cold in this house.
11. I <i>can to swim</i> .	I can swim .
12. I <i>must see</i> the dentist yesterday.	I had to see the dentist yesterday.
13. I <i>want go</i> home.	I want to go home.
14. I came here <i>for</i> study English.	I came here to study English.
15. I drove there <i>without to stop</i> .	I drove there without stopping .
16. Where I <i>can buy</i> stamps?	Where can I buy stamps?
17. Is <i>ready my new office</i> ?	Is my new office ready ?
18. I'm <i>no</i> asleep.	I'm not asleep.
19. She looked, but she didn't see <i>nothing</i> she didn't see anything . / ... she saw nothing .
20. Where is <i>station</i> ?	Where is the station ?
21. My sister <i>is photographer</i> .	My sister is a photographer .
22. You speak <i>a very good English</i> .	You speak very good English .
23. <i>The life</i> is difficult.	Life is difficult.
24. I haven't got <i>some free time</i> today.	I haven't got any free time today.
25. <i>Everybody were</i> late.	Everybody was late.
26. It is <i>more cold</i> today.	It is colder today.
27. It's <i>too much hot</i> in this house.	It's too hot in this house.
28. She never <i>listens me</i> .	She never listens to me .

29. *The man which* lives here is from Greece.

30. The people in this town *is very friendly*.

31. *We went at the seaside* on Sunday.

32. I *like very much skiing*.

33. This soup *isn't enough hot*.

34. I *gave to her* my address.

35. I have *done a mistake*.

The man **who** lives here is from Greece.

The people in this town **are** very friendly.

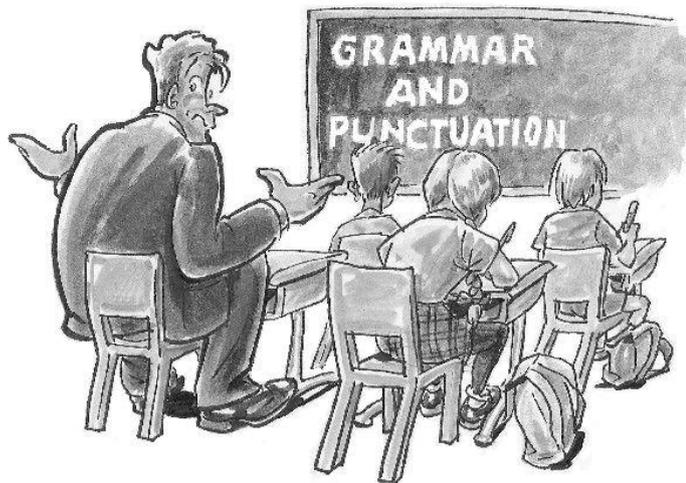
We **went to** the seaside on Sunday.

I **very much like skiing**. / I **like skiing very much**.

This soup **isn't hot enough**.

I **gave her** my address.

I have **made** a mistake.



B. Mistakes that intermediate students often make

Comment on the error correction in each case and explain the rule.

don't say / write

36. I promise *I pay you* tomorrow.

37. This is the first time *I'm here*.

38. I've been here *since three days*.

39. If *I'll have* time, I'll go home.

40. If I knew the price, I *will tell* you.

41. He *said me* that he was Chinese.

42. She told me she *has a headache*.

43. There's the man that I *work for him*.

44. I've told you all *what I know*.

45. Although it was late, *but she went out*.

46. You *have better to* see the doctor.

47. I *use to play* tennis at weekends.

say / write see section

I promise I'll **pay** you tomorrow.

... the first time I've **been** here.

... **for** three days.

If I **have** time ...

... I **would** tell you.

He **told me** that he was Chinese.

She told me she **had** a headache.

There's the man that I **work for**.

... all (**that**) I know.

Although it was **late**, **she went out**.

You **had better** see the doctor.

I **play** tennis at weekends.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>48. It <i>can</i> rain this evening.</p> <p>49. My parents <i>wanted that I study</i>.</p> <p>50. You must <i>stop to smoke</i>.</p> <p>51. I <i>look forward to see</i> you.</p> <p>52. I'm <i>boring</i> in the lessons.</p> <p>53. He has <i>much</i> money.</p> <p>54. <i>Most of people</i> agree with me.</p> <p>55. I <i>looked at me</i> in the mirror.</p> <p>56. We waited <i>during six hours</i>.</p> <p>57. I like eating <i>chocolate milk</i>.</p> <p>58. Come here and look <i>at that paper</i>.</p> <p>59. We go there <i>every Saturdays</i>.</p> <p>60. Which is the biggest <i>city of the world?</i></p> <p>61. I'm <i>thinking to change</i> my job.</p> <p>62. Can you give me <i>an information?</i></p> <p>63. He's married with a doctor.</p> <p>64. Can you mend this <i>until Tuesday?</i></p> <p>65. There's a hotel <i>in front of our house</i>.</p> <p>66. I like warm countries, <i>as Spain</i>.</p> <p>67. Please <i>explain me</i> what you want.</p> <p>68. When you come, <i>take your bike</i>.</p> <p>69. My brother has got <i>a new work</i>.</p> <p>70. He's Dutch, or <i>better</i> Belgian.</p> | <p>It may / might / could rain ...</p> <p>My parents wanted me to study.</p> <p>You must stop smoking.</p> <p>I look forward to seeing you.</p> <p>I'm bored in the lessons.</p> <p>He has a lot of / plenty of money.</p> <p>Most people agree with me.</p> <p>I looked at myself ...</p> <p>... for six hours.</p> <p>... milk chocolate.</p> <p>Come here and look at this paper.</p> <p>... every Saturday.</p> <p>... the biggest city in the world?</p> <p>I'm thinking of changing my job.</p> <p>... some information?</p> <p>He's married to a doctor.</p> <p>... by Tuesday?</p> <p>... opposite our house.</p> <p>... warm countries, like Spain.</p> <p>... explain to me ...</p> <p>... bring your bike.</p> <p>... a new job.</p> <p>He's Dutch, or rather Belgian.</p> |
|--|---|

C. Mistakes that advanced students make

Comment on the error correction in each case and explain the rule.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p style="text-align: center;">don't say / write</p> <p>71. I'll ask you <i>in case</i> I need help.</p> <p>72. I <i>object to tell</i> them my age.</p> <p>73. I like <i>the 60s music</i>.</p> <p>74. ten thousand, <i>a hundred and six</i></p> <p>75. 'Who's that?' – '<i>He's John.</i>'</p> <p>76. I don't like <i>to be shouted</i>.</p> <p>77. It's ages since <i>she's arrived</i>.</p> <p>78. <i>The police is</i> looking for him.</p> <p>79. Prices are <i>surely</i> rising fast.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">say / write see section</p> <p>I'll ask you if I need help.</p> <p>I object to telling them my age.</p> <p>I like 60s music. / the music of the 60s.</p> <p>ten thousand, one hundred ...</p> <p>... 'It's John.'</p> <p>I don't like to be shouted at.</p> <p>It's ages since she arrived.</p> <p>The police are looking ...</p> <p>Prices are certainly rising fast.</p> |
|---|--|

- | | |
|---|--|
| 80. I have <i>big respect</i> for her ideas. | ... great respect ... |
| 81. I don't like <i>nowadays fashions</i> . | ... today's / modern fashions. |
| 82. She passed her exam, <i>what surprised</i> everybody. | ... which surprised everybody. |
| 83. I've <i>good knowledge</i> of German. | ... a good knowledge of German. |
| 84. <i>Finally!</i> Where have you been? | At last! ... |
| 85. I'll be home <i>since 3 o'clock</i> . | ... from 3 o'clock. |
| 86. We waited one <i>and a half hour</i> . | ... one and a half hours . |
| 87. It's time they <i>go home</i> . | It's time they went home. |
| 88. I'll see you <i>a few days later</i> . | ... in a few days. |
| 89. <i>All along the centuries</i> , there have been wars. | All through the centuries ... |
| 90. I want <i>a completely other colour</i> . | ... a completely different colour. |
| 91. Let's go and have coffee <i>to Marcel's</i> . | ... at Marcel's. |
| 92. That's mine – I saw it <i>at first!</i> | ... I saw it first! |
| 93. Switzerland is <i>among</i> Germany, France, Austria and Italy. | ... between Germany, France, Austria and Italy. |
| 94. <i>According to me</i> , it's a bad film. | In my opinion / I think ... |
| 95. It was <i>a too good party</i> to miss. | ... too good a party ... |
| 96. <i>Whole Paris</i> was celebrating. | The whole of Paris ... |
| 97. <i>I nearly wish</i> I'd stayed at home. | I almost wish ... |
| 98. <i>One speaks</i> Italian in my town. | We / They speak ... |
| 99. The girl wants <i>an own room</i> . | ... her own room. |
| 100. <i>Couldn't you help me</i> , please? | Could you ... ? / You couldn't ... , could you? |
| 101. I'll <i>try to know</i> when it starts. | I'll try to find out when it starts. |
| 102. I love <i>this so beautiful country</i> . | ... this country - it's so beautiful . |
| 103. <i>It's getting</i> winter. | It's getting to be winter. |
| 104. Our flat <i>is decorated this week</i> . | ... is being decorated ... |
| 105. <i>The Mont Blanc</i> is 4808 m high. | Mont Blanc is ... |

D. Mistakes that even very advanced students can make

Comment on the error correction in each case and explain the rule.

- | don't say / write | say / write |
|---|--|
| 106. <i>No doubt</i> the world is getting warmer. | There is no doubt that the world is getting warmer. |
| 107. I can't think of <i>anybody whom to invite</i> . | I can't think of anybody to invite . |
| 108. <i>My father, whom we hope</i> will be out of hospital soon, ... | My father, who we hope ... |

109. Would you follow me *wherever I would go*? ... wherever I **went**?
110. We all have to live *in the society*. ...**in society**.
111. *The number of the unemployed* is going up. The number of **unemployed** ...
112. She was *showing tiredness signs*. ... **signs of tiredness**.
113. She works *the hardest* when she's working for her family. She works **hardest** ...
114. *I'm thankful* for your help. I'm **grateful** ...
115. We talked about *if it was* ready. ... about **whether** it was ready.
116. *What live* in those little holes? **What lives** ...
117. Some people are interested, but *the majority doesn't care*. ... **the majority don't care**.
118. *It mustn't be* the postman at the door. It's only 7 o'clock. It **can't** be the postman...
119. *A third of the students is* from abroad. ... **are** from abroad.
120. *Except Angie*, everybody was there. Except **for** Angie ...
121. I *wish you felt / would feel* better tomorrow. I **hope** you feel ...
122. The train may be late, *as it happened* yesterday. ... **as happened** yesterday.
123. *When I wrote my letters*, I did some gardening. When I **had written** ...
124. *When I had opened the door*, the children ran in. When I **opened** ...
125. Stefan can never *return back* to his country. ... **return** to his country. / ... **go back** to his country.
126. Will you *go and see me* when I'm in hospital? ... **come** and see me ...
127. *May you go camping* this summer? **Do you think you'll go** ...
128. My cousin works *for the NATO*. ... **for NATO**.
129. My wife will be angry *unless I'm home* by 7.00. ... **if I'm not home** ...
130. We *were poured water on*. We **had water poured on us**. / Water **was poured on us**.

Lexico-Grammatical Collocability

Multiple choice exercises on lexical and lexico-grammatical collocability.

Make up your choice and motivate it.

1. Professor White, who is _____ to be the best specialist in this field, will give a lecture on the subject.
a) told b) said c) spoken d) talked
2. The news _____ be true. That's why until we learn more about it we ought to behave as if we had never received it.
a) doesn't need b) needs not to c) mustn't d) may or may not
3. Over a hundred Embassy staff and their families _____ that there was no _____ danger.
a) were gathered to tell them c) gathered to tell
b) were gathered to be told d) were gathered for telling them
4. He _____ us on the last day of the congress so his presence at the opening ceremony was something of a surprise.
a) must have joined c) had to join
b) was to join d) should join
5. Last year's tournament was by far the best. We managed to gather _____ top players.
a) hardly all b) quite few c) quite a few d) rather much
6. We were lucky. A television documentary was just being made and we _____ the Chapel, which is not normally shown to the public.
a) could have seen b) did all but see c) were able to see d) could see
7. If I suggest _____ the report yet, it's because I am aware how complex the situation is.
a) to not publish b) not publishing c) do not publish d) not to publish
8. What an amazing coincidence? Bob and Jane are _____.
a) in exactly the same age c) exactly the same age
b) at the same age exactly d) exactly in the same age
9. We are not going to stop. The campaign should go on until every bike _____ marked with the new reflective paint. Just think how many lives it may save.
a) has been b) was c) will have been d) will be
10. Nobody looked for a better manager because Geoff _____ considered the only possible choice.
a) would have b) has already c) had d) was
11. Now I understand why she spoke English most of the time: this was a way of avoiding _____ for one of the natives.
a) to take her b) taking c) to be taken d) being taken
12. Why are you so sure Mr. Newmark will do anything to help you? In your place I _____ only on myself.

- a) counted b) will count c) would count d) count
13. Doctor Delors was very fluent in English and so I _____ an interpreter, which greatly reduced the cost of the lecture.
- a) needn't have hired c) needn't to have hired
b) didn't need to hire d) didn't need hire
14. Of course, all those who _____ can apply again.
- a) didn't list c) have not listed
b) have not been listed d) will not list
15. The work on the project has been going very well and I hope that if we get _____ financing from the Council, it may be completed very soon.
- a) a little b) hardly any c) only little d) just little
16. With so many different things we are _____ concerning what is good for our health, we should first of all keep calm.
- a) being said b) speaking c) being told d) talked to
17. She looks tired. She _____ quite hard last night.
- a) can have worked c) must have worked
b) had to work d) must has worked
18. Thinking over a decision can be a disadvantage: by the time our boss made up his mind about the price the contract _____ to Brown & Sons.
- a) has gone b) had gone c) did go d) would have gone
19. I'm rather surprised that Doris hasn't come. She _____ her mind at the last minute as only yesterday she promised she would be here.
- a) must have changed c) had to change
b) could change d) had had to change
20. In fact the criminals _____ in because the front door was wide open and so they just walked in.
- a) didn't need to break c) needn't have broken
b) didn't need break d) needn't to have broken
21. In my opinion there might be some problems on the very day the new system _____ introduced.
- a) was b) will be c) had been d) is
22. There are a few _____ for my leaving for Dublin.
- a) problems b) reasons c) questions d) purposes
23. By next year they _____ the new project.
- a) 'll prepare b) are preparing c) 'll prepared d) 'll have prepared
24. They _____ him of lying in court.
- a) denied b) charged c) accused d) sentenced
25. I prefer classical music _____ popular music.
- a) rather b) to c) than d) from
26. We haven't seen our grandfather for a long time; I suppose we _____ go and see him.

- a) needn't b) need c) ought d) ought to
27. Tom _____ down after he had returned.
a) laid b) was laying c) lied d) lay
28. Ladies and gentleman, the plane that you ___ by now is one of the safest ones.
a) fly b) are flying c) has flied d) flies
29. Susan _____ her mother at the station tonight.
a) has met b) is meeting c) shall meet d) meets
30. She has _____ hope of getting a well-paid job.
a) few b) both c) several d) little
31. We _____ \$100,000 to continue that project.
a) rised b) raisen c) raised d) rose
32. She went on a _____ in the Pacific.
a) cruise b) journey c) excursion d) pilgrimage
33. Tom takes _____ his father. He is really very similar to him.
a) down b) over c) up d) after
34. Sheila was so _____ on maths at school that she became the youngest student ever to be accepted by a university.
a) hopeful b) good c) brilliant d) keen
35. The sun has just _____. It will get warmer soon.
a) risen b) rose c) rise d) raised
36. Air Traffic Control monitor the sky as well as _____ number of delays at airports.
a) drop b) push c) reduce d) fall
37. He could not have known what was in the letter _____ he had written it himself.
a) if only b) if c) unless d) until
38. The headmaster does not allow us _____.
a) to smoke b) to smoking c) smoke d) smoking
39. Take a drink in case you _____ thirsty.
a) get b) got c) will get d) might get
40. A new study group has been _____ by the United Nations.
a) put on b) put up c) set on d) set up
41. Very _____ fans bought the group's latest album.
a) few b) little c) much d) lots of
42. _____ sure you use the right chemicals.
a) Stay b) Become c) Make d) Do
43. If I were you, I'd get a / an _____ to make these shelves.
a) plumper b) electrician c) builder d) carpenter
44. Can you really keep _____ in all the stressful situations?
a) calm b) even c) reasonable d) logical
45. This novel has a very _____ plot.

- a) imagination b) imagined c) imaginative d) imagining
46. Is 7 o'clock _____ for you, or shall we meet later?
a) pleased b) pleasant c) comfortable d) convenient
47. Although scientists have _____ tried to develop effective cure for many killer diseases, they never give up hope.
a) successfully b) unsuccessfully c) succeeded d) unsuccessful
48. Susan could _____ speak a word of German.
a) hardly b) mostly c) nearly d) mainly
49. After many hours of driving, we finally _____ our destination.
a) arrived b) reached c) got d) went
50. They were _____ because they didn't want to wake up the baby.
a) shouting b) whispering c) screaming d) crying
51. If Sandra is really interested in this job, she should write an _____ for it.
a) application b) applicant c) approval d) admission
52. This department store has got a special _____ where household goods are sold.
a) separation b) fraction c) section d) field
53. The local authorities had to _____ the problems of the area.
a) stand b) dissolve c) face d) attack
54. Wood and concrete are two _____ used in the building industry.
a) materials b) fabrics c) ingredients d) matters
55. Could you _____ me a favour and lend me your car?
a) give b) make c) do d) pass
56. We don't have much _____ in Paul, he's rather untrustworthy.
a) confidence b) confidential c) confidentially d) confident
57. Please, try and _____ attention, or you won't know how to do it.
a) draw b) have c) bring d) pay
58. It's very important for him to spend much time _____ his own.
a) for b) from c) with d) on
59. The teacher _____ them the answer to the question.
a) discussed b) said c) explained d) told
60. How are you getting _____ your work? Do you need much time to finish it?
a) at b) on c) with d) on with
61. They had to look for a car park as parking was _____ all along the main street.
a) prohibition b) forbid c) forgiven d) banned
62. Having _____ the table, Mrs Brown called the family for supper.
a) laid b) lain c) lied d) lay
63. You can find many useful _____ about banking in the Money and Finance weekly.
a) advice b) tips c) information d) news
64. I am late because my alarm clock never _____ this morning.

- a) turned on b) came on c) rang off d) went off
65. Take this road and you will _____ at the hotel in five minutes.
a) arrive b) reach c) find d) come
66. "Do I have to take that German course?" "No, you _____."
a) needn't b) mustn't c) haven't d) don't have
67. They ran so fast that I could not _____ them.
a) run up with b) keep up with c) run off d) keep off
68. The shops are always _____ of people at Christmas time.
a) full b) busy c) crowded d) stuffed
69. Please, would you pass _____ salt? It's beside your wine glass.
a) some b) a c) the d) any
70. My father isn't _____ run the business alone.
a) used to b) able to c) capable of d) good at
71. _____ we get to the conference hall, the lecture will have started.
a) As soon as b) Whenever c) Until d) By the time
72. We were born on the same day, what a / an _____!
a) accident b) incident c) coincidence d) incidence
73. A couch _____ is somebody who spends his free time doing very little.
a) carrot b) banana c) tomato d) potato
74. When he died, he was _____ in a village cemetery.
a) moved b) buried c) dug d) hidden
75. I stopped the car when I noticed I had a _____.
a) rubber b) whole c) puncture d) mismatch
76. Ed can't give you a _____, his car has broken down.
a) help b) petrol c) lift d) smile
77. People are only interested in the news which _____ them personally.
a) concerning b) conditioning c) concerns d) conditions
78. Many people say that Prague _____ them of Vienna or Budapest.
a) reminds b) remembers c) forgets d) resembles
79. We've been terribly busy recently, so life has been rather _____.
a) calm b) quiet c) nervously d) hectic
80. ___ of all, you aren't allowed to have long hair when you do military service.
a) bad b) evil c) worse d) worst
81. Can you keep calm in _____ situations?
a) stressed b) stressful c) stressing d) stress
82. Being _____, she must either wear glasses or contact lenses.
a) short-term b) short-tempered c) short-sighted d) short
83. Poachers are the criminals who hunt game ___-legally.
a) un b) il c) dis d) im
84. After the accident he was in a coma and special equipment had to keep him _____.

- a) alive b) lively c) lived d) apart
85. In ten _____ your village will just be a part of the city.
a) years' time b) years' times c) year's time d) years time
86. Put this tablecloth into a laundry basket, can't you see it's _____?
a) torn b) stained c) scratched d) broken
87. After the accident I'm _____ in hospital.
a) improving b) strengthening c) recovering d) increasing
88. They make very good jam with no _____.
a) preservatives b) complaints c) claims d) worms
89. To test if the egg is _____, put it into a bowl of water. If it floats, it's bad.
a) bitter b) sour c) fresh d) stale
90. We tried to _____ him on his mobile phone but it was switched off.
a) call to b) ring up c) phone to d) call
91. A traffic warden gave me a _____ for parking my car in the wrong place.
a) ticket b) receipt c) paper d) prescription
92. Air-hostess told me my ticket wasn't _____ for this flight.
a) real b) worthy c) valid d) valuable
93. A wedding is a wonderful opportunity for _____ off new clothes.
a) wearing b) carrying c) showing d) putting
94. This is the _____ church in the city.
a) elder b) elderly c) oldest d) older
95. Call in and see our _____ of spring fashions today.
a) reputation b) election c) selection d) production
96. The library is only open _____ weekday mornings now.
a) in b) at c) on d) for
97. "Thank goodness you have come _____", she exclaimed in relief.
a) finally b) at the end c) lastly d) at last
98. It was a magnificent car which must have belonged to a very _____ person.
a) plentiful b) wealthy c) expensive d) luxurious
99. Heavy snowfalls have _____ all trains.
a) cancelled b) postponed c) delayed d) omitted
100. We were disappointed when the hotel failed to _____ up to the promises in the brochure.
a) sum b) rise c) live d) climb
101. Donald has decided to complain to his M.P. _____: the state of the roads.
a) involving b) touching c) regarding d) befitting
102. The parents could not _____ on a name for their new baby.
a) assent b) conclude c) consent d) decide
103. After the accident the little girl was taken to the hospital and _____ for shock.
a) cured b) healed c) operated d) treated

104. What's the train _____ from London to Manchester?
 a) ticket b) fare c) fee d) charge
105. The hostages were kept on the plane for ten hours but _____ the hijackers let them go.
 a) eventually b) immediately c) definitely d) personally
106. I'm convinced they were _____ lies.
 a) saying b) speaking c) telling d) doing
107. I do not intend to _____ any tears over what has happened to him.
 a) shed b) drop c) fall d) release
108. He was so brave that he fought the wolf with his _____ hands.
 a) plain b) bare c) clean d) empty
109. When they could put _____ the noise no longer, they complained to the local council.
 a) away b) off c) up with d) down
110. The boy should have been working but instead he was just _____ into space.
 a) staring b) glancing c) peering d) glimpsing
111. You will have to learn to _____ up for yourself when people say things about you.
 a) look b) make c) pick d) stand
112. Some actors are very _____ to criticism from the audience.
 a) sensitive b) aware c) conscious d) liable
113. I must get a new watch soon – this one _____ ten minutes a day.
 a) slows b) misplaces c) fails d) loses
114. I can always rely on my mother to give me a good _____.
 a) information b) idea c) advice d) news
115. I know the new chairman _____ sight, but I have never actually spoken to him.
 a) by b) on c) in d) out of
116. He congratulated me _____ having passed the examination.
 a) by b) for c) on d) when
117. I think you smoke far too many cigarettes. Why don't you try to cut _____?
 a) up b) out c) down d) off
118. The effect of the anaesthetic wore _____ more quickly than the nurse had expected.
 a) off b) out c) over d) away
119. When the train failed to show up, all the ticket-holders were given a _____.
 a) return b) refund c) reward d) compensation
120. Although I do not earn very much as a teacher, I manage to _____ somehow.
 a) have on b) set to c) come off d) get by
121. You should _____ at least twenty minutes for this exercise.

- a) expect b) permit c) accept d) allow
 122. _____ for Emma, all the others have passed this way before.
 a) Except b) Apart c) Besides d) Other
 123. He eventually found a tie that _____ his shirt.
 a) passed b) fitted c) suited d) matched
 124. The arrested man's documents gave no _____ to his origin.
 a) sign b) signal c) clue d) hint
 125. I always get _____ in my stomach before an important examination.
 a) worms b) butterflies c) spiders d) snakes
 126. This ice-cream must be consumed _____ three days of purchase.
 a) by b) before c) after d) within
 127. If you go to the bank while you're shopping, you can kill two birds with one _____.
 a) shot b) stone c) bullet d) arrow
 128. This summer I'm going on a sight-seeing _____ around Switzerland.
 a) cruise b) trip c) outing d) travel
 129. When I was in the bookshop yesterday I bought three _____ of 'Hamlet'.
 a) copies b) examples c) sets d) exemplars
 130. The _____ said that there would be a short delay before the next TV programme.
 a) speaker b) announcer c) lectern d) reader



Sentence Structure

Make up your choice and specify the structure used in each case.

- The rain forest, _____ large trees that provide shade to the vegetation below, is home to unique flora and fauna.
 a) has b) with its c) and d) although has
- Despite the polar bear's tremendous weight and height, _____ of sprinting at tremendous speed.
 a) it is capable b) is capable c) it is able d) ability
- Patients on Interferon are advised _____, so that they can sleep through the night without noticing the flu-like symptoms that are characteristic of the drug.
 a) just before going to sleep to inject themselves
 b) to inject themselves just before going to sleep
 c) to inject just before going to sleep themselves
 d) injecting themselves just before going to sleep
- Her fever is _____ to ignore.

- a) too much high b) high too much c) too high d) so high
5. Hurricanes _____ during this time of year.
- a) almost occur never c) almost never occur
b) occur almost never d) never occur almost
6. This is _____ on Broadway.
- a) longest-running play c) the play longest-running
b) the longest-running play d) play longest-running
7. The leaders of the two countries _____ an agreement to avoid future conflicts.
- a) have recently reach c) have reached recently
b) recently reach d) have recently reached
8. Instructors who _____ teaching ability are prevalent at this university because publishing is one of the major criteria for tenure.
- a) lack b) without c) do not d) no have
9. Not all textbooks that have been written on this subject _____ as detailed as this one.
- a) with b) to c) be d) are
10. The oldest tree in this part of the world is the redwood, _____ thousands of years old.
- a) which may be b) its age c) and which d) it is
11. The oncologist studied the results of the biopsy and decided _____ additional tests.
- a) should order b) to order c) he should ordering d) ordering
12. That carcinogenic substances _____ in many common household items is well-known.
- a) are contained b) contained c) containing d) are containing
13. Porpoises, which _____ actually mammals because they breathe air through an orifice in their heads, are playful and intelligent.
- a) is b) be c) being d) are
14. Whereas Internet proponents say that someday all computer programs and data will reside on an Internet server instead of individual computers, many individuals _____ afraid to lose control over their own documents.
- a) are b) being c) also d) very much
15. After _____ suspended for misbehavior, the student requested reconsideration.
- a) having been b) having c) have d) was
16. Why so many people die from this illness _____ unknown, but researchers have learned much about the source of the problem.
- a) is b) are c) widely d) has
17. Loudly applauding the speech, _____ quickly left the stage.
- a) the speaker waved to the audience and
b) the audience watched as the speaker

c) the audience saw the speaker

d) the speaker waving to the audience

18. The doctors have not been able to determine when _____ to lose her mental capacity.

a) did the woman begin

c) began the woman

b) the woman began

d) the woman was begun

19. Ms. Henry insisted that the results of the research be presented to the panel before _____.

a) was held the vote

c) voted

b) was the vote

d) the vote was held

20. Knowing how to repair and install computer networks _____ Melissa a great advantage in her job, because she is the only person in the company with that knowledge.

a) have given

b) given

c) giving

d) has given

21. The professor has not written a book _____ to the masses to generate interest from a publisher.

a) enough appealing

c) appeal enough

b) appealing enough

d) enough appeal

22. Had the victim _____ able to find a telephone to contact authorities, she would have received assistance.

a) been

b) be

c) would have been

d) had been

23. An Alzheimer's victim, former president Ronald Reagan _____ in the spotlight even after the symptoms began to appear.

a) stayed

b) stay

c) staying

d) who stayed

24. Being on the whole very sceptical about the project, Mr Adams _____ to cooperate. But he made it clear that his support was only conditional and could be withdrawn at any moment.

a) didn't promise

b) did promise

c) has promised

d) wouldn't

promise

25. Never before _____ in an earnest attempt to resolve their differences.

a) have the leaders of these two countries met

b) the leaders of these two countries have met

c) have the leaders the two countries meet

d) met the leaders of the two countries

26. The professor was pleased with _____ of the students.

a) progress remarkable

c) the progress remarkable

b) remarkable progress

d) the remarkable progress

27. The _____ of this city are well secured.

a) high-crime areas

c) areas where is high crime

b) areas of crime high

d) highest criminal areas

39. The roofs of cottages in the valley below were _____ of Morocco oranges.
 a) the colour b) of the colour c) in the colour d) of colours
40. This is a documentary which recalls _____ The Lusitania in 1915.
 a) sinking of b) a sinking of c) the sinking of d) sinking
41. _____ their heads in his direction, he knew they were interested.
 a) When he saw them both to turn c) Seeing them both turn
 b) On seeing they both turn d) After seeing them both to have turned
42. They say that _____ you are the more friends you have.
 a) the richest b) the richer c) more richer d) the most rich
43. His decision to close the firm was _____ no one had ever taken seriously.
 a) something of what c) something what
 b) something that d) something whose
44. The high turnout was a pleasant surprise for me as I didn't think there would be nearly half _____ the first time.
 a) as many visitors like c) as much visitors like
 b) so many visitors than d) as many visitors as
45. Suddenly I realized I _____ see her again.
 a) will never b) shall never c) would never d) never
46. I was careful enough not to promise them _____ their daughter to France for the summer holiday.
 a) inviting b) invite c) to invite d) an invitation of
47. Without substantial foreign aid they won't be able to achieve even _____ they have planned.
 a) half which b) a half of that c) half of that what d) half of what
48. It is high time the government _____ to help the poor.
 a) try b) will try c) tries d) tried
49. The Staffs are having their washing-machine _____ now.
 a) repair b) repairing c) repaired d) repairs
50. I wish I _____ better in last week's test.
 a) did b) would do c) would have done d) had done
51. He has been travelling a lot since he _____ to work for us.
 a) began b) was beginning c) has begun d) begun
52. She insisted on _____ for everything.
 a) to pay b) paying c) to paying d) pay
53. Ally is used _____ hard so nothing tires her.
 a) working b) work c) to work d) to working
54. Tom suggested we _____ those mistakes.
 a) should correct b) should corrected c) correcting d) to correct
55. Seldom _____ such good books these days!
 a) do we read b) did we read c) will we read d) we read
56. I was _____ to get there by six.

6. I'm afraid I've broken your vase.
 a) Don't mention it. c) It's the same.
 b) Not at all. d) Don't worry about it.
7. Tell me what your cat likes.
 a) Milk and fish. c) Like a Siamese.
 b) Small, white and hairy. d) He can jump very well.
8. I haven't got anything for you.
 a) Never mind! c) Nothing!
 b) It isn't the matter! d) Not problem.
9. Is this your umbrella?
 a) Isn't it? b) Forgive me? c) My what? d) Please?
10. I've got a new flat.
 a) What kind flat it is? c) What for a flat is it?
 b) How is it like? d) What's it like?
11. How do you do?
 a) How do you do? c) My name is Smith.
 b) I'm doing well. d) Very well.
12. Thank you very much!
 a) Nothing. b) Indeed. c) Of course. d) Not at all.
13. Could you do something for me?
 a) Certain! b) Certainly! c) Right! d) Well!
14. Who's Brian Smith?
 a) He is a taxi driver. b) He's marvelous. c) He's Ruth's cousin.
15. This is our new manager, Mr. Cooper.
 a) I'm very happy! b) Pleasure. c) Your servant, sir. d) How do you do?
16. There's a car coming!
 a) Attention! b) Watch! c) Look out! d) Take guard!
17. Will you help me?
 a) Pleasure! b) Clear! c) Command! d) Of course!
18. Who are you?
 a) How do you do? c) Fine, thanks.
 b) Thank you, Ned Kelly. d) My name is Ned Kelly.
19. There's no sugar in the house.
 a) It doesn't case. b) It doesn't worry.
 c) It doesn't make anything. d) It doesn't matter.
20. I'm very tired.
 a) Me too. b) Also me. c) For me the same. d) I also.
21. Would you like another coffee?
 a) I'd love one. c) Very kind of your part.
 b) Ready. d) It's pleasure.

22. Please give my _____ to your wife.
 a) best regard b) kind regards c) best salute d) hearty wishes
23. When can I take holiday this year?
 a) It's for you. b) It's up to you. c) How you like. d) After your wish.
24. I'm going to copy your composition.
 a) You'd better not. c) You'd rather not.
 b) Rather not. d) You're better not.
25. Stop laughing I can't _____.
 a) help it! c) do anything against it!
 b) resist! d) hold myself!
26. When is it going to stop snowing? I wish _____.
 a) I know! b) I knew it! c) it stopped! d) to stop it!
27. It's going to rain.
 a) I need take my coat, then. c) I'd better take my coat, then.
 b) It's good if I take my coat, then. d) What about I take my coat, then.
28. What are you doing?
 a) It doesn't touch you. c) You don't enter at all.
 b) It's none of your business. d) Look after your own affairs.
29. Are you Ann Green?
 a) That's right. b) All right. c) Is right. d) Your right.
30. What time is it? It is _____.
 a) fifteen past one. c) one and a quarter.
 b) a quarter past one. d) one and fifteen.
31. The water here is very deep.
 a) Care! b) Take advice! c) Foresight! d) Be careful!
32. Meet my friend Alec.
 a) Thank you. c) You look wonderful.
 b) Glad to meet you. d) Hold on, please.
33. Have a nice holiday!
 a) You are welcome. c) Yes, I'd love to.
 b) Thank you. d) Nice to hear that.
34. How's is your dad?
 a) He's fine, thank you. c) Thanks, you too.
 b) No problem. d) And how are you?
35. Can I speak to Kate, please?
 a) No problem. c) Hold on, please.
 b) Do you really want to speak to her? d) Thank you.
36. Goodbye and thanks for everything.
 a) Nice to hear that. c) You're welcome.
 b) Oh! That's does not matter. d) Take my warmest greetings.

37. I've won in a lottery.
 a) My best wishes. c) Take my warmest greetings.
 b) Congratulations. d) The same to you.
38. Could you post this letter?
 a) Yes, I could. b) Certainly! c) Not at all. d) No, I couldn't.
39. Don't talk at once!
 a) One for one, please. c) Each at one time, please.
 b) At one time, please. d) One at a time, please.
40. I'm eighteen today.
 a) Best wish! b) Good day! c) Congratulate! d) Happy birthday!
41. Let me do that for you!
 a) Don't worry yourself. c) It's not for you.
 b) Please, don't bother. d) Make yourself at home.
42. May I take your pen?
 a) What suits you. c) Accommodate yourself.
 b) You are free. d) Go ahead.
43. I'm taking my writing test today!
 a) Luck! b) Best wishes! c) Good luck! d) Good chance!
44. I'm sorry I'm late. I've missed the tram.
 a) It's nothing. c) Please.
 b) That's all right. d) It does not matter.
45. Oh, look, these T-shirts are beautiful.
 a) Which one do you mean? c) What ones do you mean?
 b) Which ones do you mean?
46. Can I have a cheeseburger and an orange juice?
 a) Here there are. b) Here you are. c) Here you can.
47. I like Paul Mackartney.
 a) And I don't like him. I think he is too old.
 b) Yes, I do, very much. c) Are you?
48. What sort of person is Andy?
 a) He is lively and good-tempered. c) He is 12.
 b) He is a pupil.
49. Mona Liza is charming!
 a) I'm afraid so. c) I'm afraid yes.
 b) I'm afraid I didn't see the painting.
50. What was the test like?
 a) We liked it. b) It was alike. c) It was very easy.
51. Who is Kate?
 a) She is a computer programmer. c) She is a cousin of ours.
 b) She is a teenager.

52. What's the matter with you?
 a) I had a sore throat. c) I've got a cold.
 b) I was at home.
53. Did you enjoy the party?
 a) Yes, it was great fun. c) Yes, it was very funny.
 b) It was last Friday.
54. Would you like something to eat?
 a) No, I don't. c) Not at all, thank you.
 b) No, thank you. I've just had lunch.
55. Why are you leaving so early?
 a) I need to come home by ten. c) I need getting up early tomorrow.
 b) I needn't stay any longer.
56. How about making a picnic?
 a) That's a good idea. c) We are going there.
 b) I'll tell you how.
57. Did you enjoy the show?
 a) Yes, I enjoyed. c) Yes, it did.
 b) Yes, it was great fun.
58. What's the matter?
 a) Here you are. c) I've lost my lens.
 b) The matter is good.
59. Shall I fetch you a cup of tea?
 a) Thanks, don't fetch. c) Thanks, I don't want.
 b) Thanks, you needn't bother.
60. She can't stand washing up.
 a) Nor can I. b) Nor can I stand. c) Nor I can.
61. Where's the nearest shop here?
 a) In ten minutes' walk. c) It's mile and a half.
 b) Over there, opposite the bank.
62. Do you mind wearing glasses?
 a) I don't. b) I am not. c) I won't.
63. There are six people in my family.
 a) Wow! We're only 4. c) Not much.
 b) They are great.
64. Was Jack as fast as you?
 a) Much faster. b) Even more fast. c) Much more faster.
65. What does your dad do?
 a) He's cool. b) He is a chemist. c) He is playing golf.
66. Does your mom like cooking?
 a) It's awful. b) Not really. c) That's true.

B. Choose the sentence, which fits the response.

1. **It's ten minutes to nine.**

- a) Can you say me the time, please?
- b) Are you so kind to tell me the time?
- c) Please to tell me the time.
- d) Excuse me, can you tell me the time?

2. **Never mind.**

- a) Where does he come from?
- b) What's the matter?
- c) I do apologize.
- d) It's a difficult task.



3. **You are welcome.**

- a) Sorry to keep you waiting.
- b) Thanks for the lovely party.
- c) I like your new house.
- d) I am ready to go.

4. **Three hundred pounds.**

- a) What you want for that car?
- b) How much is it that car?
- c) How much costs that car?
- d) What's the price of that car?

5. **How do you do?**

- a) Hello, what are you doing here?
- b) Hi, how are you?
- c) How do you do?
- d) You are welcome.

6. **She is pretty and clever.**

- a) What is your new friend like?
- b) What does she like?
- c) Do you like her?
- d) Would you like her?

7. **Nice to meet you.**

- a) I am Mr. Brown.
- b) How are you?
- c) Did you meet him before?
- d) Would you love to have a meeting with Mr. Brown?

8. **Yes, I will.**

- a) Let's have lunch together.
- b) Give him my best regard.
- c) Give him my best regards next time you see him.
- d) My best wishes to her.

9. **Might be better.**

- a) How are you getting on?
- b) What is your business going?
- c) How do you do?
- d) Better late than never.

10. **I'd rather not.**

- a) Don't mention it.
- b) I quite agree with you.
- c) Do you agree?
- d) Shall we go for a walk?

11. **You too.**

- a) Have you got my letter?
- b) See you soon.
- c) Have a nice week end.
- d) I am so glad you enjoyed it.

12. **So long.**

- a) How long have you known him? c) How much longer are you staying?
 b) It is such a long way back home. d) Good-bye.

13. **Not at all.**

- a) All right. c) Congratulations!
 b) Will you all come? d) I am very grateful to you.

14. **Take care.**

- a) Thank you. b) Tom is not well. c) Excuse me. d) Good-bye.

15. **That won't do.**

- a) I've made tea instead of coffee. c) You do like coffee.
 b) You don't like coffee. d) Don't you like tea?

C. Match the stimulus utterances on the left with the responses on the right.

Task 1

1. Can you lend me a pencil?	a. Most willingly.
2. Excuse me. Could you tell me the way to the Metro station?	b. I'm afraid I haven't got one.
3. Have you got a license?	c. I'm afraid not.
4. Would you like to join me tonight?	d. That's awfully kind of you.
5. I'll give you a hand with cooking, shall I?	e. O.K. I won't be long.
6. I'll wait until you post the letter.	f. No, I haven't.

Task 2

1. My moped is broken.	a. I can give you a lift.
2. I'm afraid I'm going to be late.	b. You should be more careful.
3. It's really cold outdoors.	c. Let's go to the chemist's for some nasal spray.
4. My car is gone.	d. Why don't you take mine?
5. I've got a blocked nose.	e. What about putting on a jacket?
6. I've burnt my hand.	f. You must phone the police immediately.

Task 3

1. Are you coming with us?	a. Don't worry. We will.
2. Shall I tidy up the rooms?	b. What shall we do then?
3. I think it's your Dad.	c. If I were you I'd cheer her up.
4. I hope you'll enjoy yourselves.	d. You'd better look for them.
5. Bill might oversleep.	e. It can't be him. He usually comes home at 7.
6. Stella looks so sad and miserable.	f. No, you needn't. I'll do it myself.
7. I can't read anything without glasses.	g. I'm afraid I can't. I've got to do my homework.

Task 4

1. It's Aunt Emily's birthday tomorrow. I	a. Yes, that's very kind of you.
---	----------------------------------

suppose we'll have to go. 2. I don't believe it. 3. I wish you'd look where you are going. 4. I prefer to go away for the weekend. 5. I'm awfully sorry but I haven't enough money to pay for the taxi. 6. Do you speak Spanish? 7. Would you like me to open the window?	b. That's all right. It's nothing to worry about. c. So do I. d. I'm sorry I don't. e. I'm awfully sorry. f. I'm afraid I can't, but Brian wouldn't mind going. g. Neither do I.
---	---

Task 5

1. I'm sorry I broke the cup. 2. Can I use Mike's calculator? 3. Shall I put on a pullover? 4. I like eating junk food. 5. We could take the sleeping bags with us.	a. I wish you didn't. b. If I were you I wouldn't. c. That's a good idea. d. That's O.K. e. I am afraid not.
---	--

Task 6

Match the two halves of the well-known British sayings and then match each saying with the situation below.

1. A bird in the hand 2. Every cloud 3. One man's meat 4. Everything comes to him 5. A little learning	a. is a dangerous thing; b. is worth two in the bush; c. who waits; d. has a silver lining; e. is another man's poison.
--	---

A. The flight was delayed but at least I got a chance to write a few postcards.

B. He said he had once done a short course on home electrics but when he tried to fix my table lamp he nearly burnt my house.

C. I think you should take the job while you've got the chance. It may not be very exciting, of course, but it's already something.

D. I hear Paul has finally managed to persuade her to marry him!

E. My brother just loves adventurous holidays in exotic places. But I hate travelling.

D. Use the phrases from the box

Task 1: to respond to these peoples' news.

<i>That's great! Really? Oh, no! How wonderful! That's shocking!</i>
--

1. A: I just passed my driving test! B: 1)

2. A: We won the lottery! B: 2)

3. A: Andrew fell over and broke his ankle this morning. B: 3).....

4. A: I went for an interview yesterday and I got the job! B: 4).....

5. A: Somebody just stole my handbag with all my money in it. B: 5).....
 6. A: Call the fire brigade! The kitchen is on fire! B: 1)

Task 2: to complete the dialogue.

*What have you been up to? Why don't we go to...? That's a great idea!
 I haven't seen you for ages! Things have been pretty hectic!*

Bill: Sarah? Is that you?

1)

Sarah: Bill! It's been a long time! How are you?

Bill: I'm fine, thanks.

2)

Sarah: Well, now, let me see. I moved house and I've started a business course at college. Oh, and I now have a part-time job in a flower shop.

3)

Bill: Things are pretty much the same for me. Listen.

4) the coffee shop for a chat.

Sarah: 5)

Lexico-Grammatico-Structural Test

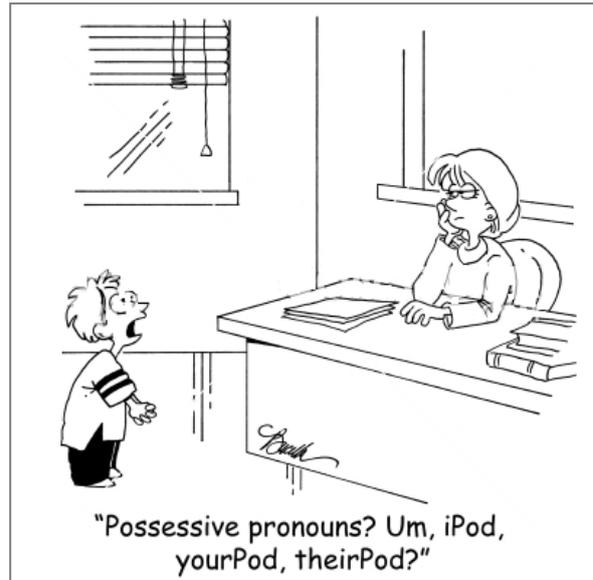
The sentences have four underlined words or phrases. Choose the one word or phrase that is incorrect in standard written English.

1. Everybody should consider pursuing ^A the hobby, whether it is a thought-intensive ^B one like collecting coins or a ^C physical exercise like working in ^D a garden.
2. The ^A huge increase in popularity of specialty coffees ^B contribution to the success ^C of Starbucks, Barney's and ^D other coffee purveyors.
3. After it had ^A conclude work on the budget, ^B the legislature ^C adjourned ^D until the next session.
4. Even when ^A awarded a scholarship, a student generally must still ^B paying for books, ^C living expenses, and ^D other costs.
5. The U.S. government, along with a number of states, is ^A fight a ^B protracted legal battle with tobacco companies in order to ^C obtain ^D relief for the huge medical costs caused by smoking.
6. The teachers are ^A expecting to call ^B tomorrow a meeting in order to ^C review the ^D disciplinary problems.
7. If the man ^A had transported to the hospital ^B sooner than he was, he ^C could have ^D survived the electrocution.
8. She was ^A convenience ^B hidden away ^C when the social worker ^D visited.
9. The results must have already ^A be received by the ^B examining committee because the members ^C seem to be ^D continuing their determinations.

10. She has ^A scored up to ^B five as much times as Robert ^C on ^D that exam previously.
11. Private couriers, ^A extremely popular in large cities, ^B traveling by bicycle ^C carrying packets containing documents and other items ^D from office to office.
12. The expenses were ^A too much high for the program ^B to continue, ^C so the administration decided ^D to terminate some positions.
13. ^A Because the high risk of fire ^B during the drought, the officials ^C ordered that no outside fire of any sort could be ^D set.
14. Hurricanes almost ^A veer always to the northeast at ^B some point after ^C traveling in a westerly direction ^D across the water.
15. The girl fell ^A into the ^B water cold, but was ^C rescued ^D immediately.
16. During the entire ^A hour three deposition, the witness ^B steadfastly denied ^C having known the defendant ^D previously.
17. The ^A people will likely ^B election Ellen the ^C winner of ^D the race.
18. Florida's timberlands ^A suffered ^B considerable damage from the wildfires of 1998, ^C resulted from ^D insufficient rainfall.
19. ^A Her ^B weigh has increased ^C remarkably ^D since she began receiving treatment.
20. ^A In spite ^B of her good ^C intentional, she is not ^D well liked.
21. In an ^A irony twist of ^B fate, it was Jim ^C who lived ^D through the fire.
22. She was ^A solicitation by the ^B group ^C for additional ^D services.
23. These flowers can ^A be ^B convenient grouped into types depending upon ^C how often they ^D bloom.
24. They ^A are ^B a lively and ^C interestingly group ^D of musicians.
25. The preacher's sermon ^A was ^B viewed as ^C moral reprehensible ^D by his detractors.
26. This movie ^A has been described as ^B a masterpiece in ^C subtle and ^D novels images.
27. The bears ^A have ^B become more active, ^C aggression, and angry ^D than before.
28. The astronauts ^A on this mission expect ^B to dock with the space station, ^C performance a space walk, and ^D repair the Hubbel telescope.
29. The Dean demanded ^A thorough research, complete ^B investigate, and a ^C well-written ^D report.
30. ^A The ^B disagreement is ^C between ^D we.
31. ^A She is ^B known for ^C herself contributions ^D to art.
32. After a ^A difficult ordeal, ^B her and Robert ^C felt great ^D relief.
33. ^A These principles of law, which ^B originally developed under English. Common Law, are still ^C widely followed today, although ^D it has not been followed by California courts.

34. Ten to twenty ^A year after ^B transferring files to new media, the files should ^C be checked ^D for compatibility.
35. Upon ^A reaching the destination, a number of personnel ^B is expected ^C to change their reservations and ^D proceed to Hawaii.
36. The students, ^A when confronted with evidence ^B of cheating ^C on the final exam, ^D was extremely defensive.
37. John Edwards, ^A the first of ^B many black students ^C to attend this law school, ^D have been elected a circuit judge.
38. The small town, ^A which was protected ^B by a cliff to the north, a river to the south, and a large ^C forest to the east, ^D were the best choice for the fort.
39. The truck driver, on the open road ^A in the middle of the night, ^B were trying to ^C find a station ^D on the radio to help her stay awake.
40. The University of Kentucky ^A has held this prestigious title until 1989, when ^B it was ^C granted ^D to the University of Georgia.
41. As soon as George had ^A entered the room, he ^B realizes that he had ^C made ^D a mistake.
42. The boy stopped ^A crying when ^B he realized ^C his parents ^D will arrive shortly.
43. George ^A was among the ^B few students who are going to be ^C chosen to lead the commencement ^D exercise.
44. It is ^A normal for students to ^B be nervous when ^C they ^D were preparing for a new school year.
45. The police officer attempted to ^A learning ^B the ^C suspect's ^D identity.
46. The children were eager ^A seeing their father ^B after his ^C long absence from the house because he ^D had been working in another country.
47. The young boy had spent hours ^A working on the airplane model, but ^B finally he gave up ^C to try and decided ^D to go outside and play.
48. Although ^A her friends tried ^B to convince her ^C to apply for the job at the factory, Christine resisted ^D to make an application.
49. ^A As the result of ^B regularly inspections, the restaurants in this county ^C have improved their sanitation ^D practices.
50. Erosion is a ^A seriousness problem ^B along the beaches ^C whenever ^D strong storms enter from the sea.
51. The owner of the sailboat ^A did not ^B accurately ^C calculate the ^D high of the bridge.
52. Although this car ^A appears ^B to be manufactured by a ^C different company, it has the same body style, size, and ^D perform as that one.
53. The engineer ^A drew the blueprints and ^B delivered ^C it ^D to the architect.
54. The researcher mixed the ^A two ingredients, poured the ^B mixture into a petri dish, ^C draw out a ^D measured amount, and carefully applied it to another dish.

55. The boat rose and fell ^A slow ^B as the huge sea ^C swells ^D moved towards shore.
56. This is the ^A first time Janet has ^B taken ^C so difficult class, but she plans to ^D complete it.
57. ^A Languages such ^B for French ^C are ^D known as romance languages.
58. She ^A was ^B unable to figure ^C on the ^D mathematical formula.
59. Professor Benton ^A has more experience ^B in this type ^C of procedure ^D from Professor Edwards.
60. Redwood ^A trees are ^B among ^C the tallest ^D in world.
61. ^A She ^B is ^C studying not only chemistry ^D and botany.
62. He ^A enjoyed ^B not only riding his bike ^C but also ^D the scenery.
63. This ^A building is ^B an oldest ^C building ^D in town.
64. One of ^A a most difficult problems we ^B confront is ^C determining how to ^D present a new topic to an unreceptive audience.
65. Although ^A not widely ^B sold, that book is considered to be ^C best book on ^D the subject.



Test your Skill in Error Correction

Some sentences have several mistakes, others – only one and there are some perfectly good sentences here as well. Do your best! Re-write the following sentences correcting all the mistakes:

- All present should put their signs in the bottom of a page.
- Anyone are welcomed to join to us.
- Are you still unhappy? I don't hope so.
- As usually the dog was lieing quiet on the Sun and his coats were feeling warmly and soft.
- At first think than to speak.
- At first, I would like to introduce myself.
- But you should know – they have many words in them – how are such books called?
- Don't say nothing unless you are not sure by yourself!
- Each dog looks for a mate and every people do same thing.
- He convinced me of her not being for blame.
- Firstly her story sound strangely for us but at the end it came truly which made us to feel very happily.
- Flour sells by pound.
- He could not make himself heard.

14. He is so nice man that you can't avoid liking him.
15. He must have got stuck in a traffic jam that night and hence was late.
16. He said he wouldn't leave before he wouldn't see it by his own eyes.
17. He was said to speak more slower and so he had done.
18. How do you think when will he come?
19. How is Christmas in France?
20. I am not greedy, am I not?
21. I don't like she tasting this salad with her fingers!
22. I don't think well of such behaviours too.
23. I don't recall to close my eyes on such facts!
24. I have always dreamed to visit the America.
25. I oppose to violence.
26. I regret to have mistreated you so badly the last times!
27. I think about you even time.
28. I was about leaving when the telephone was rang.
29. I'm afraid I speak English fairly bad.
30. In spite he didn't do any efforts his dreams realized them.
31. In the summer I cut hairs very shortly.
32. It was a twelve hours trip.
33. It were they who was late not I.
34. It's no good talking to him just now under the circumstances.
35. It's not allowed to talk in the library.
36. I've seen her with new blond hairs the other day.
37. My car was seriously injured in the accident.
38. Nobody understands all.
39. None of us had no interest of the subject.
40. On no account should kids play with matches!
41. One hundred dollars! I can't imagine where could she have spend all of them?!
42. Our teacher, Mrs. Andgy, is very alive.
43. She fell back on her own ingenuity when all else failed.
44. She had a difficulty in obtaining visa.
45. That phrase doesn't sound horrible in English with me, it's quiet OK!
46. The dog bit the postmen in the leg.
47. The fruits are ripe for picking.
48. The last exercise was fairly easier than I thought it would to be but this one is rather more difficult.
49. The man was obvious drunken.
50. The police is sure of asking you this questions.
51. Their dirty clothes and long hair put he back the first but I found myself that they had hearts with gold.
52. These machines make farming much more easier.
53. They did nothing but quarrelled with one another the whole time.
54. Weren't it many peoples on the concert yesterday?
55. Once it will stop raining, we can go out.

Language Awareness in Error Correction

Read, smile and explain what is wrong with each utterance.

1. *In a Tokyo bar: **Special cocktails for the ladies with nuts.***
(word order)
2. *In a Copenhagen airline ticket office: **We take your bags and send them in all directions.*** (semantics)
3. *In a Norwegian cocktail lounge: **Ladies are requested not to have children in the bar.*** (idiom)
4. *In a Budapest zoo: **Please do no feed the animals. If you have any suitable food, give it to the guard on duty.*** (semantics)
5. *In the office of a Roman doctor: **Specialist in women and other diseases.*** (word order)
6. *In an Acapulco hotel: **The manager has personally passed all the water served here.*** (idiom)
7. *In an Athens hotel: **Visitors are expected to complain at the office between the hours of 9 and 11 a.m. daily.*** (choice of construction)
8. *In a Yugoslav hotel: **The flattening of underwear with pleasure is the job of the chambermaid.***
9. *In the lobby of a Moscow hotel across from a Russian Orthodox monastery: **You are welcome to visit the cemetery where famous Russian and Soviet composers, artists, and writers are buried daily except Thursday.*** (tense + adverb)
10. *On the menu of a Swiss restaurant: **Our wines leave you nothing to hope for.*** (semantics)
11. *Sent in a message by a technical support specialist: **Feel free to contact me if you cause any problems.*** (It should be either "if you have any problems" or "in case of any problems".)
12. ***He makes breakfast from the hotel guests.*** (Ugh! Does he really use people as meat?!? Of course, he should make breakfast FOR the guests!)
13. ***On his wedding he was wearing a very expensive suitcase.*** (I am sure he was just wearing a suit, right?)
14. *A friend in a restaurant: **Waiter, could you bring me some kidnaps, please?***
15. *Said while talking about daily routines: **In the morning, I get up at seven o'clock; clean my tooth; have breakfast; and go to work.***
16. *On the grounds of a private school: **No trespassing without permission.***
17. *On a poster in New York: **Are you an adult that cannot read? If so, we can help.***
18. *In a City restaurant: **Open seven days a week, and weekends too.***

19. *A sign seen on an automatic restroom hand dryer:* **Do not activate with wet hands.**

20. *In an Indian maternity ward:* **No children allowed.**

21. *In a cemetery:* **Persons are prohibited from picking flowers from any but their own graves.**

22. *Hotel brochure, Italy:* **This hotel is renowned for its peace and solitude. In fact, crowds from all over the world flock here to enjoy its solitude.**

23. *Hotel lobby, Romania:* **The lift is being fixed for the next day. During that time we regret that you will be unbearable.**

24. *Hotel, Vienna:* **In case of fire, do your utmost to alarm the hotel porter.**

25. *Tourist agency, former Czechoslovakia:* **Take one of our horse-driven city tours. We guarantee no miscarriages.**

26. *Supermarket, Hong Kong:* **For your convenience, we recommend courteous, efficient self-service.**

27. *A sign posted in Germany's Black Forest:* **It is strictly forbidden on our black forest camping site that people of different sex, for instance, men and women, live together in one tent unless they are married with each other for this purpose.**

28. *An advertisement by a Hong Kong dentist:* **Teeth extracted by the latest methodists.**

29. *A laundry in Rome:* **Ladies, leave your clothes here and spend the afternoon having a good time.**

30. *The box of a clockwork toy made in Hong Kong:* **Guaranteed to work throughout its useful life.**



III АНГЛИЙСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА ДЛЯ ТУРКМЕНСКИХ СТУДЕНТОВ – THE ENGLISH GRAMMAR FOR TURKMEN STUDENTS – IŇLIS DILINIŇ GRAMMATIKASY TÜRKMEN TALYPLARY ÜÇIN

Why should you learn English? – Siz näme üçin iňlis dilini öwrenmeli?

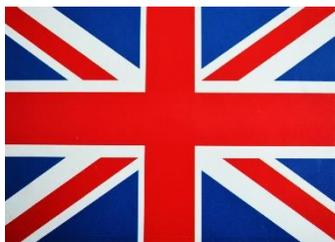
The English language is one of the most important languages in the world; 1.8 billion people speak English in the world, 380 million people speak English as their native language, and it is the official language of 53 countries. It is also the international language of business, science, computers, and diplomacy. If you have an international job, you will need to be able to speak English.

America has the largest number of English speakers with 214,809,000 people. The United Kingdom has the second largest number of English speakers with 58,200,000 people. After that, comes Canada with 17,694,830, Australia with 15,013,965, and Ireland with 4,200,000 (wikipedia.org).

Iňlis dili dünýäde iň bir zerur dilleriň biridir. Dünýäde 1.8 milliard adam iňlis dilinde gepleýär, 380 million adam iňlis dilini ene dili hökmünde gepleýär we iňlis dili 53 ýurduň resmi dilidir. Şeýle hem bu biznes, ylym, kompýuter we diplomatiýa üçin halkara dildir. Egerde siz daşary ýurt bilen iş salyşsaňyz iňlis dilinde geplemegi başarmaly bolarsyňyz.

Iňlis dilinde iň köp gepleýänler Amerikada bolup, olar 214.809.000 adamdan ybaratdyr. Ikinji orunda iňlisçe köp gepleýänleriň sany boýunça Beýik Britaniýa bolup, ol 58.200.000 adamdan ybaratdyr. Soňra Kanadada 17.694.830 adam, Awstraliýada 15.013.965 adam we Irlandiýada 4.200.000 adam iňlisçe gepleýär (wikipedia.org).

The History of the English Language – Iňlis Diliniň Taryhy



Modern English originated in England around the 1400s. An older form of English, called Old English, was spoken before that, but it had different grammar and spelling from modern English. Many words from Old English are still spoken today.

The English language is closely related to Germanic languages, and it has many words from Latin, French, Arabic, and other languages.

In the 1600s the English Empire (Great Britain) began to spread the English language across the world with colonization and trade. England colonized many countries, including America, Canada, Australia, India, and

others. Many English people moved to those countries and brought English culture and language with them.

In the 1770s English people in America revolted against England because of high taxes and unjust laws, and after a long and heroic war, America gained its independence in 1776. At that time America included only 13 states. Later, America would attract immigrants from all over the world becoming a “melting pot” of cultures, food, people, and languages. Since then America has grown to include 50 states.

Häzirki zaman iňlis dili 1400-nji ýyllarda Angliýada başyny başlapdyr. Gadymy iňlis diliniň görnüşi “Gadymy Iňlis dili” diýip atlandyrylypdyr we häzirki iňlis dilinden oň ulanylypdyr, emma ol häzirki zaman iňlis dilinden grammatik we orfografik taýdan tapawutlanypdyr. Şeýle-de bolsa gadymy iňlis diliniň köp sözleri häzirki zaman iňlis dilinde hem ulanylýar.

Iňlis dili German dilleri toparyna has golaý bolup, onuň düzüminde latyn, fransuz, arap we beýleki dillerden geçen alynma sözler hem bardyr.

1600-nji ýyllarda Iňlis Imperiýasy (Beýik Britaniýa) iňlis dilini bütin dünýä boýunça basyp alma we söwda ýollary bilen bilelikde ýaýratmaga başlady. Angliýa Amerikany, Kanadany, Awstraliýany, Hindistany we başgada birnäçe döwletleri basyp aldy we şeýlelikde köp iňlis adamlary ol döwletlere göçüp gtdiler we iňlis medeniýetini we dilini getirdiler.

1700-nji ýyllarda Amerikadaky iňlisler Angliýanyň ýokary salgytlaryna we adalatsyz kanunlaryna garşy çykdylar we uzak we gahrymançylykly söweşleriň netijesinde 1776-njy ýylda Amerika öz garaşsyzlygyny gazandy. Şol wagt Amerikanyň düzümünde diňe 13 sany ştat bardy. Wagtyň geçmegi bilen Amerika bütin dünýäden emigrantlary özüne çekmek bilen medeniýetiň, iýmitiň, adamlaryň we dilleriň “melting pot” ýagny “gaýnaýan gazanyna” öwrüldi. Häzirki döwürde Amerikanyň düzüminde 50 ştat bar.

Note: Look at the American flag. The 13 stripes represent the original 13 states, and the 50 stars represent the 50 states America has now.

Bellik: Amerikanyň baýdagyna serediň. Ondaky 13 sany çyzyk şol ilki başdaky 13 ştaty aňladýar. 50 ýyldyz bolsa Amerikanyň häzir 50 ştatynyň bardygyny aňladýar.



After World War II America continued to spread English across the world, because of its powerful economy and influence in science, entertainment, computers, and diplomacy. Today English is still one of the most commonly spoken languages in the world. And as the language of the world it is constantly changing with the world, too.

Ikinji Jahan urşundan soň Amerika özüniň güýçli ykdysadyýeti, ýlmy, kompýuterleri we diplomatiýasy netijesinde iňlis dilini dünýä ýaýratmagyny

dowam etdirýär. Şu günki günde hem iňlis dili dünýäde iň köp geplenýän dilleriň biridir. Şeýlelikde dünýä dili hökmünde, ol dünýä bilen bilelikde ösüp-özgermegini dowam etdirýär.

Parts of Speech – Söz Toparlary

The English language has 8 parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Many words can be more than one part of speech at a time. This chapter discusses all of the parts of speech.

- **Nouns** are persons, places, things, or concepts: *James, Ashgabat, carpet, beauty.*
- **Pronouns** are words that replace nouns in sentences: *I, he, that.*
- **Verbs** are actions of the body, actions of the mind, or states of being: *run, think, be.*
- **Adjectives** are words that modify nouns and pronouns: *red, big, fast.*
- **Adverbs** are words that modify verbs: *always, quickly.*
- **Prepositions** show relationships in space, time, and logic between nouns, pronouns, and other words in the sentence: *under, on, for.*
- **Conjunctions** are words that show logical relationships between other words: *and, but, after that.*
- **Interjections** express strong emotion: *Oh! Ouch! Hey!*

Iňlis dilinde 8 sany söz topary bar; olar: atlar, çalyşmalar, işlikler, sypatlar, hallar, predloglar, baglaýjylar we ümlükler. Köp sözler şol bir wagtyň özünde dürli söz topary bolup biler. Bu bölümde hemme söz toparlarynyň üstünde durlup geçilýär.

- **Atlara** adamlar, ýerler, zatlar ýa-da pikirler degişlidir: *James, Aşgabat, haly, owadanlyk.*
- **Çalyşma** diýip sözlemde atlaryň ýerini çalyşýan sözlere aýdylýar: *Men, sen, ol.*
- **Işlikler** bedeniň hereketini, aňnyň hereketini, ýa-da ýagdaýy aňladýar: *ylgamak, pikirlenmek, bolmak.*
- **Sypat** diýip atlary we çalyşmalary aýyklar gelýän sözlere aýdylýar: *gyzyl, uly, çalt.*
- **Hallar** işlikleri aýyklar gelýärler olar: *hemişe, çalt.*
- **Predloglar** diýip sözlemdäki atlaryň, çalyşmalaryň we beýleki sözleriň arasyndaky baglanyşygy görkezýän sözlere aýdylýar: *aşagynda, üstünde, üçin.*
- **Baglaýjylar** diýip başga sözleriň arasyndaky logiki baglanyşygy görkezýän sözlere aýdylýar: *we, ýöne, ondan soň.*
- **Ümlükler** güýçli duýguny aňladýarlar olar: *Wah! Wäk! Ey!*

Nouns – Atlar

Nouns are persons, places, things or concepts. **Nouns** can be **concrete**: you can see and touch them, such as objects and people. Or nouns can be **abstract**: you can't see or touch them, such as feelings and thoughts.

Adamlary, ýerleri, zatlary ýa-da düşüňjeleri aňladýan sözlere atlar diýilýär. **Atlar anyk** bolup bilerler: siz olary görüp hem-de elläp bilersiňiz, mysal üçin olara zatlaryň we adamlaryň atlary degişlidir. Ýa-da atlar **abstrakt** bolup bilerler: siz olary görüp we elläp bilmersiňiz, mysal üçin duýgular we pikirler.

Count nouns – Sanalýan atlar

Most words in the English language can be counted, for example, *1 apple, 2 apples, 3 apples*, etc. These words are called **count nouns**. They can be singular or plural. You usually add an -s to make them plural, and you can add a number (1, 2, 3), measurement (liter, meter, gram), or amount (many, several, few) to them.

Iňlis dilindäki köp sözler sanalýar, mysal üçin: *1 apple, 2 apples, 3 apples* we ş.m. Bulara **sanalýan atlar** diýilýär. Olar birlik we köplük sanda bolup bilerler. Olary köplük sana öwürmek üçin adatça soňuna -s goşulmasyny goşup bilersiňiz we olara sanlary (1, 2, 3), ölçeg sanlary (litr, metr, gram) ýa-da mukdar sanlary (köp, az, birnäçe) goşup bilersiňiz.

For example, “*apple*” is a count noun. So, you could say, “I have apples”, “I have 15 apples”, “I have a kilogram of apples”, or “I have several apples”.

Mysal üçin, “*apple*” (alma) sanalýan atdyr. Şeýlelikde, siz “I have apples”, “I have 15 apples”, “I have a kilogram of apples”, ýa-da “I have several apples” diýip bilersiňiz.

Singular	Plural	Number	Measurement	Amount
Birlik	Köplük	San	Ölçeg	Mukdar
Apple	Apples	2 apples	Kilogram of apples	several apples

Count nouns can have indefinite articles before them (“a” and “an”). For example, “*I have a dog*” and “*I have an apple*”. And count nouns can have “*many*”, “*few*” and “*some*” put before plural words: “*I have many apples*” and “*She has a few apples*”.

Sanalýan atlaryň önünden (“a” we “an”) nämälim artiklerini ulanyň bolar. Mysal üçin: “*I have a dog*” ýa-da “*I have an apple*”. Köplük görnüşde ulanylan sanalýan atlaryň önünden “*many*”, “*few*”, “*some*” ýaly sözleri ulanyň bilersiňiz. “*I have many apples*” we “*She has a few apples*”.

Singular nouns are preceded by “*this*”, “*that*”, “*every*”, “*each*”, “*either*”, and “*neither*”. Plural nouns are preceded by “*these*”, “*those*”, “*some*”, “*any*”, “*enough*”, and “*zero*”. For example:

Birlik sandaky atlar “*this*”, “*that*”, “*every*”, “*each*”, “*either*” we “*neither*” sözleriniň yzyndan gelyärler. Köplük sandaky atlar bolsa “*these*”, “*those*”, “*some*”, “*any*”, “*enough*” we “*zero*” sözleriniň yzyndan gelyärler. Mysal üçin:

- **This** apple is mine.
- **Every** apple is tasty.
- **These** apples are his.
- **Some** apples are rotten.

What words are countable? – Haýsy sözler sanalýan?

Sometimes it’s hard to know what a count noun is. But remember, count nouns are usually names of people, animals, plants, and insects.

Käwagtlar sözleriň haýsysynyň sanalýandygyny bilmek kyn. Emma ýatda saklaň, sanalýan atlar adatça adamlaryň, haýwanlaryň, ösümlikleriň we mör-möjekleriň atlarydyr.

- People (Adamlar): boy (oglan), girl (gyz), man (adam), teacher (mugallym), pupil (okuwçy).

- Animals (Haýwanlar): cat (pişik), dog (it), mouse (syçan), zebra (zebra).

- Plants (Ösümlikler): rose (bägül), potato (kartoşka), tree (agaç).

- Insects (Mör-möjekler): spider (möý), ant (garynja), butterfly (kebelek).

Common things that are man-made are usually count nouns.

Adatça adam tarapyndan ýasalan zatlar sanalýan atlara degişlidir:

- Building (jaý), car (ýeňil maşyn), door (gapy), pen (ruçka), computer (kompýuter).

Units of measure are usually count nouns.

Ölçeg birlikleri adatça sanalýan atlara degişlidir.

- Meter (metr), liter (litr), gram (gram).

And groups and political areas are count nouns.

Toparlar we syýasy ýerler sanalýan atlara degişlidir.

- Family (maşgala), tribe (tira), country (ýurt), language (dil).

Non count nouns – Sanalmaýan atlar

But some English nouns cannot be counted or made plural because they have many small pieces, they are already understood to be plural or it is difficult to count them. These are called **non count nouns**. “*Grass*”, “*milk*”, “*water*”, “*rice*”, and “*oxygen*” are a few examples of non count nouns.

Non count nouns cannot have a plural -s endings or a number. Non count nouns can only be in the singular form. They cannot have indefinite articles

before them. But they can have measurements and quantities before them (*liter, meter, gram, several, etc.*). And they can have “*much*” and “*some*” before them.

Emma iňlis dilindäki käbir atlar ne sanalýar ne-de köplük sana öwrülýär, sebäbi olaryň bimäçe maýda bölekleri bar, olaryň köplük sandygy şeýle-de düşnükli ýa-da olary sanamak kyn. Bulara **sanalmaýan atlar** diýilýär. “*Ot*”, “*süýt*”, “*suw*”, “*tüwi*” we “*kislorod*” sanalmaýan atlara degişli käbir mysallardyr.

Sanalmaýan atlaryň soňuna -s goşulmaýar ýa-da olar san bilen ulanylmaýar. Sanalmaýan atlar diňe birlik sanda bolýarlar. Olaryň öňünde nämälim artikler goýulmaýar. Emma olaryň öňünde ölçeg we mukdar aňladýan sözler (*litr, metr, gram, birnäçe, ş.m.*) goýlup bilner. Ondan başga-da, olaryň öňünde “*köp*” we “*käbir*” sözlere goýlup bilner.

“*Milk*” is also a non count noun. English speakers wouldn’t say “*I have milks*”, or “*I have a milk*”. Those are not correct. They would say “*I have milk*”, because “*milk*” is already understood to be plural. But you can add a measurement to “*milk*” to show how much you have. For example, “*I have a liter of milk.*”

Note: the measurement is countable, so you can make it plural and add a number. “*Milk*” is non count, but “*liter*” is count. So, you could say “*I have 5 liters of milk*”. Look at these examples of non count nouns:

“*Süýt*” hem sanalmaýan atdyr. Iňlis dilinde gepleýänler “*I have milks*” ýa-da “*I have a milk*” diýmezler. Olar dogry däl. Olar “*I have milk*” diýerler sebäbi “*milk*” sözünüň eýýäm köplük sandadygy düşnükli. Emma siz mukdaryny görkezmek üçin “*milk*” sözüne ölçeg aňladýan sözi goşup bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin: “*I have a liter of milk*”.

Bellik: ölçeg birligini aňladýan sözler sanalýar, şol sebäpli siz olaryň köplük sanyny ýasap bilersiňiz we san hem goşup bilersiňiz. “*Milk*” sanalmaýan at, emma *litr* sanalýar. Şeýlelikde, siz “*I have 5 liters of milk*” diýip bilersiňiz. Şu sanalmaýan atlaryň mysallaryna serediň:

- Food (lýmit): bread (çörek), cake (tort), chocolate (şokolat), meat (et), butter (ýag), cheese (peýnir), flour (un).
- Metals and materials (Metallar we çig mallar): copper (mis), gold (altyn), iron (demir), wood (agaç), plastic (plastmassa), furniture (mebel), steel (polat), aluminum (alýuminiý), cloth (mata).
- Liquids (Suwuklyklar): coffee (kofe), milk (süýt), oil (ýag), tea (çaý), beer (piwo), ice (buz), water (suw).
- Gas (Gaz): smoke (tüsse), oxygen (kislorod).
- Grains and things in small pieces (Däneler we ownuk zatlar): rice (tüwi), sugar (şeker), popcorn (patrak).
- Abstract nouns (Abstrakt atlar): beauty (owadanlyk), happiness (bagtlylyk), peace (parahatçylyk), love (söýgi).
- Languages (Diller): English (iňlis dili), Chinese (hytaý dili).

- Other words (Başga sözler): music (saz), poetry (poeziýa, şygyrlar), weather (howa), dirt (kirlilik), heat (yssylyk), soccer (futbol), mathematics (matematika), homework (öý işi), money (pul).

Forming plurals – Köplük sanlary ýasamak

To make words plural (more than one) you usually add an **-s** to the end of the word.

Sözleri köplük (birden köp) mana öwürmek üçin sözüň soňuna **-s** goşulýar.

- *Cat + s = Cats* (pişikler)
- *Dog + s = Dogs* (itler)

But depending on the spelling some words are made plural in different ways.

Ýöne ýazylyşyna baglylykda, käbir sözler köplük sanyny dürli ýollar bilen ýasaýarlar.

If the word ends in an **-s**, **-ch**, **-sh**, or **-x** you add **-es** to the end of the word.

Eger sözüň soňy **-s**, **-ch**, **-sh**, ýa-da **-x** harpy bilen gutarsa, sözüň ahyryna **-es** goşmaly.

- *kiss + es = kisses* (posalar)
- *dish + es = dishes* (gap-)
- *match + es = matches* (otluçöpler) çanaklar
- *box + es = boxes* (gutular)

If the word ends in an **-e** you only add an **-s**.

Eger sözüň soňy **-e** harpy bilen gutarsa, onda diňe **-s** goşmaly.

- *cake + s = cakes* (tortlar)

If the word ends in a **-y** you change the **-y** to an **-i** and add **-es**.

Eger sözüň soňy **-y** bilen gutarsa, **-es** goşulanda **-y** harpy **-i** harpyna öwürülýär.

- *butterfly – y + i + es = butterflies* (kebelekler)

If the word ends in **-f** or **-fe**, you remove the **-f** or **-fe** and add **-ves**.

Eger sözüň soňy **-f** ýa-da **-fe** bilen gutarsa, onda **-f** ýa-da **-fe** aýryp **-ves** goşulmasyny ýazmaly.

- *Knife – fe + ves = knives* (pyçaklar)
- *Wolf – f + ves = wolves* (möjekler)

But some nouns have irregular plurals, because they are written with Old English spelling. These words must be memorized, because they are commonly used.

Emma käbir atlaryň köplük sany nädogry görnüşde ýasalýarlar, sebäbi olar köne inlis ýazuwyndan alnandyr. Bu sözleri ýat tutmak zerurdyr, sebäbi olar köp ulanylýan sözlerdir.

- *Man => men* (adamlar)
- *Child => children* (çagalar)
- *Woman => women* (aýallar)
- *Tooth => teeth* (dişler)

- Mouse => mice (**syçanlar**)

Adding numbers, amounts, and measurements to nouns – Atlara sanlary, mukdar sanlary we ölçegleri goşmaklyk

When you add a number (1, 2, 3), measurement (liter, gram, meter), or amount (many, few, several) to a plural noun, the noun stays in plural form. But you cannot add numbers to uncountable nouns.

Haçan-da siz köplük sandaky atlara sanlary (1, 2, 3), ölçeg sanlary (litr, gram, metr), ýa-da mukdar sanlary (köp, az, birnäçe) goşanyňyzda, at köplük sanda galýar. Bellik: emma siz sanalmaýan atlara sanlary goşup bilmersiňiz.

- I have 5 apples.
- I have a *kilogram of* apples.
- I have 28 **teeth**.
- I have *several* **teeth**.

Note: “Tooth” has an irregular spelling. The plural form of “tooth” is “teeth”.

Bellik: “tooth” sözüniň nädogry ýazylyşy bar. “Tooth” sözüniň köplük görnüşi “teeth”.

This is different from Turkmen. In Turkmen, when you add a number or amount, the noun becomes singular.

Bu türkmen diline garaňda tapawutlydyr. Haçan-da siz türkmen dilinde sany we mukdar sany atlaryň soňuna goşanyňyzda-da, atlar birlik sanda galýarlar.

- Mende 5 alma bar (“almalar” däl).
- Mende köp diş bar (“dişler” däl).

Also, in English if you add number 1 to a singular noun, the noun should be singular.

Iňlis dilinde hem birlik adyň soňuna 1 goşsaň, at birlik sanda bolmaly.

- I have 1 apple (Mende 1 alma bar).

But if the noun is 0 (zero), then the noun should be plural.

Emma at 0 (nul) sanda bolsa, onda ol köplük sanda bolmaly.

- Zero apples. (Nol alma).
- We have zero eggs. (Bizde bir ýumurtgada ýok).

Collective nouns – Jemleýji atlar

Some special nouns refer to groups of people or animals: *team, herd, band*, etc. They are called **collective nouns**.

Käbir ýörite atlar adamlaryň ýa-da haýwanlaryň toparyna degişlidir: topar, süri, orkestr, ş.m. Olara **Jemleýji Atlar** diýilýär.

- army (goşun)
- class (synp)
- police (polisiýa)
- band (orkestr)
- group (topar)
- youth (ýaşlyk)
- team (topar)

For collective animal nouns, you use the group name + *of* + the type of animal. For example, *herd of cows*. Other collective animal names are:

Toparlaýyn haýwan atlary üçin, topar ady + “*of*” + haýwanyň görnüşini ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin: *herd + of + cows* (sygyr sürüsi). Beýleki jemleýji haýwan atlary:

pack of dogs (it sürüsi)	swarm of flies (siňek toplumy)
litter of cats (pişikler topary)	flock of birds (guş toplumy)
hive of bees (ary maşgalasy)	herd of cows (sygyr sürüsi)
swarm of ants (garynja toplumy)	

When you’re referring to 1 group, the noun is singular, but collective nouns can also have plural endings if there are many groups or if the members of the group act by themselves.

Haçan-da siz birinji topary aýdanyňyzda at birlik sanda bolýar, ýöne köp topar bolsa ýa-da toparyň agzalary özbaşdak hereket edýän bolsalar jemleýji atlaryň soňy hem köplük sanda bolup biler.

- My uncle owns 3 herds of cows (Meniň daýymyň 3 süri sygyr bar).
- The armies fought each other (Goşunlar biri-birleri bilen söweşdiler).

Proper nouns – Has atlar

Proper nouns name specific people, places, and things, and should usually be capitalized.

Has atlar belli bir adamlaryň, ýerleriň, ýeke-täk zatlaryň atlarydyr we adatça baş harp bilen ýazylmalydyr.

- “*Myrat*” is the name of a specific person. “*Myrat*” belli bir adamyň ady.
- “*Ashgabat*” is the name of a specific place. “*Aşgabat*” belli bir ýeriň ady.
- “*Islam*” is the name of a specific concept. “*Yslam*” belli bir düşüňjäniň ady.

Cases – Düşümler

When a noun has a different job (for example, shows possession or shows it was acted on), the noun will sometimes change **case**. Turkmen and Russian have several cases to show what the nouns are doing or what they have. For example, in Turkmen the possessive case has an *-yň*, *-iň*, *-uň* and *-uň* at the end of a noun: “*Serdaryň kakasy ýatyr*”. In that sentence, “*Serdar*” is in the possessive case.

Haçan-da at başga ýumuşy ýerine ýetirmeli bolanda (mysal üçin, eýeçiligi ýa-da hereketi aňladanda), at käwagt **düşümi** üýtgeder. Turkmen we rus dillerinde birnäçe düşüm bar we olar adyň näme edýändigini ýa-da onuň nãmesiniň bardygyny görkezýärler. Mysal üçin, türkmen diliniň eýelik

düşümünde adyň soňuna *-yň, -iň, -uň* we *-üň* goşulmasy goşulýar. “*Serdaryň kakasy ýatyr*”. Bu sözlemede “*Serdar*” eýelik düşümünde.

English cases are very simple, because nouns do not change depending on their case. But the nouns should be put in the correct place in the sentence. English uses only three cases – subjective, objective, and possessive – but there are 6 common cases used in Turkmen:

İňlis dilindäki düşümler örän ýönekeý sebäbi atlar düşüme görä üýtgemeyärler. Emma atlar sözlemiň içinde dogry ýerde goýulmaly. İňlis dilinde diňe üç düşüm ulanylýar ýöne türkmen dilinde bolsa alty düşüm ulanylýar.

- Subjective Case (Baş Düşüm)
- Possessive Case (Eýelik Düşüm)
- Dative Case (Ýöneliş Düşüm)
- Objective Case (Ýeňiş Düşüm)
- Locative Case (Wagt-Orun Düşüm)
- Instrumental Case (Çykyş Düşüm)

Subjective case – Baş düşüm

The **Subjective Case** answers the questions: who (kim), what (näme), and where (nire). In English like in Turkmen there are no endings for this case. The subject of the sentence is usually at the beginning of the sentence before the verb. Look at this sentence: *My cat chased the mouse under the table*. “*My cat*” is the subject of the sentence.

Baş düşüm “kim, name, nire” diýen soraglara jogap bolýar. İňlis dilinde, türkmen dilindäki ýaly, bu düşümiň soňunda goşulma ýok. Sözlemiň eýesi köplenç sözlemiň başynda işligiň önünden gelýär. Şu sözleme serediň: “*My cat chased the mouse under the table*”. “*My cat*” (Meniň pişigim) sözlemiň eýesidir.

Possessive case – Eýelik düşüm

The **possessive case** shows nouns that possess something. This case answers the questions: whose (kimiň), of what (nämäniň) or of where (niräniň). In Turkmen the endings *-yň, -iň, -uň, -üň, -nyň, -niň, -nuň, -nüň* are added to the noun. There are 2 kinds of possessives: active possessives and passive possessives.

Eýelik düşüm atlaryň bir zady eýelik edýändigini görkezýär. Bu düşüm “kimiň, nämäniň, niräniň” diýen soraglara jogap berýär. Türkmen dilinde *-yň, -iň, -uň, -üň, -nyň, -niň, -nuň, -nüň* goşulmalary atlaryň soňuna goşulýar. Eýelik düşümiň 2 sany gömüşi bar. Olar: aktiw atlar we passiw atlar (“Eýelik Düşüm” bölümüne serediň).

Active Possessives – Aktiw eýelik düşümi

One way to make nouns possessive is to add an apostrophe and “s” (’s) to the end of the word. For example, to make “father” possessive you add an apostrophe and “s”: father + ’ + s = father’s.

Atlardan eýelik düşümi ýasamagyň bir ýoluda sözüň soňuna apostrof we “s” harpynyň goşulmagydyr. Mysal üçin, “father” (kaka) sözünden eýelik

düşümi ýasamak üçin sözüň soňuna apostrof we “s” harpy goşulmaly: father + ’ + s = father’s (kakaň).

Look at these other examples. Başga mysallarda serediň.

- Mother + ’ + s = mother’s (ejeň)
- Dog + ’ + s = dog’s (itiň)

You can also add possessives to names.

Eýelik düşümi has atlarda hem ulanyp bilersiňiz.

- Ata + ’ + s = Ata’s (Atanyň)
- Gulnar + ’ + s = Gulnar’s (Gülnaryň)
- Bibi + ’ + s = Bibi’s (Bibiniň)
- Sarah + ’ + s = Sarah’s (Saranyň)

If the word ends in -s, you do not have to add another “s”; you only need to add an apostrophe.

Egerde sözüň soňy -s bilen gutaryan bolsa, ýene “s” harpyny goşmak zerur däl; size diňe sözüň soňuna apostrof goýmak ýeterlidir.

- Sisters + ’ = sisters’ (gyz doganlaryň)
- James + ’ = James’ (Jeýmsiň)

Usually words that end in -s are plural. For example, “sisters” is plural. Sometimes hearing the differences between possessive words, plural words, and even plural possessive words can be difficult. When an English speaker says a word with two “s” sounds, they will usually make the “s” sound long. So, “sisters’ ” would sound like “sisterssss”.

Adatça sözüň soňy -s bilen gutaryan sözler köplük sanda bolýarlar. Mysal üçin, “sisters” köplük san. Käwagtlar eýelik düşümindäki sözleri, köplük sandaky sözleri we hatda eýelik düşüminiň köplük sanyny tapawutlandyrmak örän kyn bolýar. Haçan-da iňlis dilinde gepleýän adam sözüň soňuny iki “s” bilen aýdanda, ol köplenç “s” sesini uzynrak edip aýdar. Şonuň üçin, “sisters’ ” “sisterssss” ýaly eşdiler.

Passive Possessives – Passiw Eýelik Düşümi

To form passive possessive nouns you use the word “of”. The possessed noun is before “of” and the noun or pronoun that possesses is after “of”. For example, you could translate “*Täçmyradyň dosty*” as “*The friend of Tachmurat*”. The active possessive, however, would use an apostrophe and the letter “s”: *Tachmurat’s friend*. Look at these other examples of passive possessives.

Passiw eýelik düşümini ýasamak üçin “of” ulanylýar. Eýeçilikde bolan at “of” -dan öň gelýär we eýeleýän at ýa-da at çalyşmasy bolsa “of”-dan soň gelýär. Mysal üçin, siz “*Täçmyradyň dosty*” sözüni “*The friend of Tachmurat*” diýip terjime edip bilersiňiz. Ýöne aktiw eýelik düşüminde apostrof we “s” ulanylýar: *Tachmurat’s friend*. Passiw eýelik düşüminde ulanylan aşakdaky beýleki mysallarda serediň.

- Şatlygyň häkimi => Mayor of Shatlyk.

- Türkmenistanyň Prezidenti => President of Turkmenistan.

In English there is no noun form for the dative (ýöneliş düşüm), locative (wagt-orun düşüm) or instrumental (çykyş düşüm) cases. The most accurate way to express the same meaning is with the appropriate preposition. But those cases are explained so you can compare the English sentence to the Turkmen sentence.

Iňlis dilinde Ýöneliş, Wagt-Orun we Çykyş düşümleriniň at görnüşleri ýokdur. Şol bir manyny bermeginiň iň dogry ýoly laýyk predlogy ulanmakydyr. Ýöne ol düşümler düşündirilýär, şonuň üçin iňlis dilindäki sözlemleri türkmen dilindäki sözlemler bilen deňeşdirilýär.

Dative case – Ýöneliş düşüm

The dative case describes an action to or towards another noun or pronoun. It answers the questions: to whom, for whom (kime), towards what, to what end (nämä), to where (nirä?). In Turkmen the endings **-a**, **-e**, **-na**, **-ne** are added to the noun. The closest translation uses the preposition “to” before the noun, which shows a direction towards this noun.

Ýöneliş düşüm başga ada ýa-da çalyşma tarap hereketi aňladýar. Ol “kime”, “nämä”, “nirä” diýen soraglara jogap berýär. Türkmen dilinde **-a**, **-e**, **-na**, **-ne** goşulmalar atlaryň soňuna goşulýar. Olaryň iň ýakyn terjimesi adyň önünden ulanylýan predlog bolup, ol ada bolan ugry görkezýär.

- Hemra went **to** Anew (Hemra Änewe gitdi).
 - My cat chased the mouse **under** the table (Meniň pişigim syçany stoluň **aşagynda** kowalady).
 - Merdan will give chocolate **to** his mother (Merdan şokolady ejesine berer).
 - Humay brought her books **to** class (Humay kitaplaryny synpa getirdi).
- In the dative case sometimes the best preposition is “for”.
- Ýöneliş düşümde “for” kawağt iň gowy predlogdyr.
- I have a letter **for** Nurjemal (Mende Nurjemala hat bar).
 - Kemal bought a present **for** his teacher (Kemal mugallymyna sowgat satyn aldy).
 - Akmaral will wait **for** us (Akmaral bize garaşar).

Objective case – Ýeňiş düşüm

The **objective case** answers the questions: whom (kimi), what (nämani), and where (niräni). In Turkmen the endings **-y**, **-i**, **-ny**, **-ni** are added to the noun to make it objective. In English there are no endings that make nouns in the objective case different from a noun in the subjective case. They look the same. The difference is the sentence order, where they are in the sentence. Objects are

usually placed at the end of the sentence. For example, *My cat chased **the mouse** under the table.* “*The mouse*” is the object of the sentence.

Ýeňiş düşüm kimi, nämäni we niräni diýen soraglara jogap berýär. Türkmen dilinde **-y, -i, -ny, -ni** goşulmalary atlaryň soňuna goşulanlarynda olary doldurgyja öwürýärler. Inlis dilinde baş düşümdäki atdan tapawutlykda, atlary ýeňiş düşümine öwürýän hiç-hili goşulma ýokdur. Olar biri-birine meňzeşdir. Tapawudy diňe sözlemleriň gurluşyndadyr, ýagny olaryň sözlemiň içinde nirede ýerleşýändigindedir. Doldurgyçlar adatça sözlemiň ahrynda goýulýarlar. Mysal üçin: *My cat chased the mouse under the table.* “*The mouse*” (syçan) sözlemiň doldurgyjydyr.

Locative case – Wagt-orun düşüm

The locative case shows the location of a noun. It answers the questions: on whom (kimde), at what (nämede), where, or at what place (niredede). In Turkmen

-da, -de is added to the end of the noun. The closest translation uses one of these three prepositions based on context: “in”, “at”, “on”.

Wagt-orun düşüm atlaryň ýerleşýän ýerini görkezýär. Ol kimde, nämede, niredede diýen soraglara jogap berýär. Türkmen dilinde **-da, -de** goşulmalary atlaryň soňuna goşulýarlar. Onuň in ýakyn terjimesi mana görä şu üç predlogyň biridir “in”, “at”, “on”.

- My mother is **in** the house (Meniň ejem öý**de**).
- Who is **in** the house? (Kim öý**de**?).
- Aynur is **at** the bazaar (Aýnur bazarda).
- Is your father **at** work? (Seniň kakaň iş**demi**?).
- She has a pen **on** her (Onda ruçka bar).
- Do you have an eraser **on** you? (Sende bozguç barmy?).

Instrumental case – Çykyş düşüm

The instrumental case answers the questions: from whom (kimden), from what (nämeden), and from where (nireden). In Turkmen **-dan, -den** is added to the end of the noun. The preposition “from” is the best to use in this situation.

Çykyş düşüm kimden, nämeden, nireden diýen soraglara jogap bolýar. Türkmen dilinde **-dan, -den** goşulmalary atlaryň soňuna goşulýarlar. Bu ýagdaýda “from” predlogyny ulanmak in laýyk sözdür.

- I bought this bag **from** the bazaar (Men bu sumkany bazardan satyn aldym).
- Serdar came **from** Halach (Serdar Halaçdan geldi).
- This is a present **from** my classmate (Bu meniň synpdaşymdan sowgat).

Articles – Artikler

Articles are a special type of adjective that helps show if a noun is definite or indefinite. They are very important.

The English language has two types of articles: the definite article “the” and the indefinite articles “a” and “an”. Articles are very hard for Russian and Turkmen speakers to learn because neither language has articles. But articles are the most commonly used words in English. Articles go before nouns, or if the noun has an adjective, the article will go before the adjective.

To understand when to use definite and indefinite articles, you need to know what you are talking about. If you’re talking about a specific person, place or thing, you usually use “the”. If you are talking about a nonspecific person, place, or thing, you usually use “a” or “an”. For example, there is a difference between “the White House” and “a white house”. “The White House” is the home of the American president (definite). “A white house” could be any home that is painted white (indefinite).

Artikler sypatlaryň özboluşly görnüşi bolup atlaryň belliligini ýa-da näbelliligini görkezýär. Olar örän möhümdir. Inlis dilinde iki hili artikler bar: belli artikl “the” we näbelli artikler “a” we “an”. Türkmen we rus okyjylary üçin artikleri öwrenmek örän kyn, sebäbi ol dillerde artikler ýok. Emma artikler inlis dilinde giňden ulanylýarlar. Artikler atlaryň önünde, ýa-da adyň sypaty bar bolan ýagdaýynda sypatyň önünde goýulýar.

Mälim we nämälim artikleriniň nirede ulanylýandygyny bilmek üçin, siz näme barada gürlýändigini bilmeli. Eger siz belli bir adam, ýer ýa-da zat barada gürlýän bolsaňyz, onda “the” ulanmaly. Eger siz nämälim adam, ýer ýa-da zat barada gürlýän bolsaňyz, onda “a” ýa-da “an” artiklini ulanmaly. Mysal üçin, “the White House” we “a white house” arasynda tapawut bar. “The White House” bu Amerikanyň prezidentiniň öýi (mälim). “A white house” islendik ak reňkdäki öý bolup biler (nämälim).

Definite articles – Mälim artikli

The definite article “the” is used to refer to a specific member of a group or something unique. The object can be singular or plural; for example, “Give me **the** book” or “Give me **the** books”. Sometimes, it is best to think of “the” as “that”. For example, “Give me **the** English book” and “Give me **that** English book” are almost the same. English articles are also similar to the Turkmen language’s accusative case: *Close **the** door – Gapyny ýap!*

Mälim “the” artikli toparyň belli bir agzasyny ýa-da örän seýrek zady görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Zat birlik ýa-da köplük sanda bolup biler; mysal üçin: “Give me **the** book” ýa-da “Give me **the** books”. Käwagtlar “the” ýerine “that” diýlip pikirlenilse has gowy bolar. Mysal üçin: “Give me **the** English book” we “Give me **that** English book” meňzeş diýen ýalydyr. Şeýle hem inlis

artiklleri türkmen dilindäki ýeňiş düşümine gabat gelýär: *Close **the** door – Gapyny ýap!*

When to use definite articles – Haçan mälim artiklleri ulanmaly

- Specific objects – Belli bir zatlar.
- Rivers, oceans, seas – Derýalar, ummanlar, deňizler.
- Points on the globe – Globusyň nokatlary.
- Geographical areas – Geografik meýdanlar.
- Deserts, forests – Çöller, tokaýlar.
- Ordinals numbers – Tertip sanlar.

When not to use definite articles – Haçan mälim artiklleri ulanmaly däl

- Non-count nouns (usually) – Sanalmaýan atlar (adatça).
- Names of countries, except the USA and the UK – Ýurt atlary, the USA (ABŞ) we the UK (BK) ýurtlaryndan başga atlar.
- Names of cities, towns, and states – Şäherler, şäherçeler we şatlaryň atlary.
- Names of lakes, continents, islands, and mountains – Kölleriň, kontinentleriň, adalaryň we daglaryň atlary.
- Languages – Diller.
- Sports – Sport.
- Academic subjects – Okuw dersleri.
- Seasons – Pasyllar.

Indefinite articles – Nämälim artikller

Indefinite articles “a” and “an” are only used for singular countable nouns, and any member of a group that isn’t specified. The first letter of the noun will determine if you should use “a” or “an”. If the first letter is a vowel, you should write “an” before the word. For example, *I have **an** apple*. If the first letter of the word is a consonant, you should write “a” before the word. For example, *I have **a** dog*. “Y” is a vowel, but you should usually write “a” before words that begin with “y”. All other letters are consonants.

If the noun is modified by an adjective (“red egg” or “orange cat”), the article will go before the adjective. Thus, the first letter of the adjective will determine if you should use “a” or “an”.

Nämälim artikller “a” we “an” sanalýan atlaryň birliginde ulanylýarlar we toparyň haýsyda bolsa bir näbelli agzasynda ulanylýarlar. Adyň birinji harpy size “a” ýa-da “an” ulanmalydygynyzy belli eder. Eger birinji harp çekimli bolsa, sözüň öňünde “an” artiklini ulanmalysyňyz. Mysal üçin: *I have **an** apple*. Eger sözüň birinji harpy çekimsiz bolsa, onda sözüň öňünde “a” artiklini ýazmalysyňyz. Mysal üçin: *I have **a** dog*.

“Y” k awagtlar  ekiml  me ze y r, y ne siz “y” harpy bilen ba la yan s zlerin  n nde “a” artiklini yazmalysy yz. Beyleki harplary n hemmesi  ekimsizlerdir.

Eger ady sypat ayyklap gelse (“red egg” ya-da “orange cat”), bu yagdaýda artikl sypaty n  n nden goýulýar.  ol seb pli, sypaty n birinji harpy size “a” ya-da “an” ulanmalydygy yzy belli eder.

*Give me **an** English book!* but *Give me **a** Turkmen book!*

You also use articles to mention membership in organizations:

Siz guramalarda agzalygy g rkezmek u in hem artiklleri ulanyrsy yz:

- I am a teacher (Men mugallym).
- I am an American (Men Amerikan).

Pronouns –  alysmalar

Pronouns replace nouns in a sentence, including the names of people, animals and special objects. Look at the sentence and observe how the nouns changed into pronouns:

 alysmalar s zlemde di e bir atlary n deregine ulanylmak bilen  aklenm n, eýsem adam atlary, haýwanlar we y rite predmetleri n hem ýerine ulanylýarlar. A akdaky s zlemlerde atlary n  alysmalara  wr li ine seredi :

Ata is eating a cake	Ata => he Cake => it	He is eating it
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English pronouns are much easier than Russian or Turkmen pronouns, because English pronouns have fewer cases. There are several types of pronouns: personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, relative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, and others.

İnlis dilind ki  alysmalar t rkmen ya-da rus dilind ki  alysmalardan has ye ildir seb bi inlis dilind ki  alysmalary n azrak d   mleri bar.  alysmalary n birn e g rn leri bar: at  alysmalary, g rkezme  alysmalary, degi lilik  alysmalary, n m lim  alysmalar we ba galar.

Personal pronouns – At  alysmalary

Personal pronouns are used to represent people, animals and other specific things in a sentence. Notice that English has a few different pronouns from Turkmen. There is no pronoun for “siz” in English. Also English has three pronouns for the third person singular (olluk): “he”, “she”, “it”. Turkmen only has one: “Ol”. “He” represents a man who is not present; “she” represents a woman who is not present; and “it” represents an animal or thing that is not present.

There are five types of personal pronouns. They show if the pronoun is the subject of the sentence, if it is possessive, if it is the object of the sentence, or if it is acting on itself.

At çalyşmalary sözlemde adamlary, haýwanlary we beýleki predmetleri aňlatmak üçin ulanylýar. Iňlis dilinde türkmen dilindäkä garaňda käbir tapawutly çalyşmalar bar. Iňlis dilinde “siz” sözi üçin çalyşma ýok. Iňlis dilinde üçünji ýöňkeme üçin üç çalyşma bar: (olluk) “he”, “she”, “it”. Türkmen dilinde diňe bir çalyşma bar, ol hem “ol”. “He” ýok erkek adamy aňladýar, “she” ýok aýal maşgalany aňladýar, “it” bolsa ýok haýwany ýa-da zady aňladýar.

At çalyşmalarynyň baş sany gömüşi bar. Olar çalyşmanyň sözlemiň eýesi bolup gelyändigini, eýelik düşümedigini, doldurgyçdygyny ýa-da özbaşyna sözlemde gelyändigini görkezýärler.

Personal pronouns are the subject of the sentence, they do the action and they are usually placed at the beginning of the sentence.

At çalyşmalary sözlemiň eýesidir: olar hereketi ýerine ýetirýärler we olar adatça sözlemiň başynda goýulýarlar.

I	You	We	They	He	She	It
Men	Sen	Biz	Olar	Ol (Oglan)	Ol (gyz)	Ol (haýwan)

For example: Mysal üçin:

- **I** walk to Ashgabat every day (**Men** her gün Aşgabada ýöräp gidýärim).

Possessive pronouns – Değişlilik çalyşmalary

My	Your	Our	Their	His	Her	Its
Meniň	Seniň	Biziň	Olaryň	Onuň	Onuň	Onuň

For example: Mysal üçin:

- **Your** mother cooked soup (**Seniň** ejeň çorba bişirdi).

Absolute possessive pronouns – Özbaşdak değişlilik çalyşmalary

Absolute possessive pronouns show strong ownership; they are usually placed at the end of a sentence (“*That pen is mine*”).

Özbaşdak değişlilik çalyşmalary güýçli eýeçiligi görkezýär; olar adatça sözlemiň soňunda goýulýarlar (“*That pen is mine*”).

Mine	Yours	Ours	Theirs	His	Hers	Its
Meniňki	Seniňki	Biziňki	Olaryňky	Onuňky	Onuňky	Onuňky

For example: Mysal üçin: That pen is **ours** (Ol ruçka **biziňki**).

Objective pronouns – Doldurgyçly çalyşmalar

Objective pronouns are the objects of a sentence; they are acted on; and they are usually placed at after the predicate.

Doldurgyçly çalyşmalar sözlemiň doldurgyjy bolup gelýärler. Olar täsir edilýärler we adatyň habaryň soňunda gelýärler.

Me	You	Us	Them	Him	Her	It
Meni	Seni	Bizi	Olary	Ony	Ony	Ony

For example: Mysal üçin:

- I speak English with **them** (Men **olar** bilen iňlisçe gepleşýärim).

Reflexive pronouns – Gaýdym / özlük çalyşmalary

Reflexive pronouns are used to show that the subject acted on itself “*She hurt herself*” (Она поранилась). You can also use the reflexive pronouns to show that someone acted alone or without any help. To show that someone acted by himself, you use “by” and a reflexive pronoun. “By” is similar to “ýekeje”. For example, “*The child drew the picture all by himself.*”

Also note that -self is for singular pronouns (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself), and -selves is used for plural pronouns (yourselves, ourselves, themselves). For “yourselves”, English does use “siz” (özüňiz).

Gaýdym çalyşmalary eýäniň hereketi özüniň ýerine ýetirýändigini görkezmek üçin ulanylýarlar. Gaýdym çalyşmalaryny biriniň ýeke özüniň ýa-da hiç hili kömeksiz hereket edendigini görkezmek üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Biriniň özüniň hereket edendigini görkezmek üçin “by” sözüni we gaýdym çalyşmasyny ulanyp bilersiňiz. “By” “ýekeje” diýen sözede meňzeşdir. Mysal üçin: *The child drew the picture all by himself* (“Çagajyk hemme suratlary ýekeje özi çekdi”).

Ondan başga-da birlik çalyşmalar üçin -self ulanylýandygyny (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself) we köplük çalyşmalar üçin bolsa -selves ulanylýandygyny ýatda saklaň (yourselves, ourselves, themselves). “Yourselves” (özüňiz) sözi üçin iňlis dilinde “siz” ulanylýar.

Myself	Yourself / Yourselves	Ourselves	Themselves	Himself	Herself	Itself
Özüm	Özüň / Özüňiz	Özümiz	Ozleri	Özi	Özi	Özi

For example: Mysal üçin:

- *He taught himself English* (Ol **öz-özüne** iňlis dilini öwrettdi).

Special rules – Ýörite kadalar

Using “I” – “I” sözüniň ulanylyşy

When you say that you and someone else do something, you always mention the other person first then yourself. For example, “*Ata and I went to the store*”. You should never say “*I and Ata went to the store*”.

Haçan-da siz özüñiziň we başga biriniň bir zat edýändigini aýdanyňyzda, siz hemişe beýleki adamy birinji, soňra bolsa özüñizi aýtmaly. Mysal üçin: “*Ata and I went to the store*”. Siz hiç wagt “*I and Ata went to the store*” diýmeli däl.

Using “It” – “It” sözüniň ulanylyşy

In the English language “it” is used frequently to refer to weather and time.

Inlis dilinde “it” sözi köplenç howany ýa-da wagty görkezmek üçin ulanylýar.

- The weather is hot today. => It is hot today (Bu gün yssy).

- The time is 3:00. => It is 3:00 (Sagat 3).

You can also use “it” to refer to animals, buildings, and other things.

Siz “it” sözüni haýwanlar, ymaratlar we beýleki zatlary görkezmek üçin hem ulanyp bilersiňiz.

- The building is tall => It is tall (Jaý beýik).

Also English speakers frequently use “it is” and “that is”. “It is” and “That is” are used when the subject of the sentence is not at the beginning of the sentence or is understood.

Inlis dilinde gepleýänler köplenç “it is” we “that is” sözlerini ulanýarlar. Haçan-da sözlemiň eýesi sözlemiň başynda gelmedik ýagdaýynda ýa-da düşnükli bolanda “it is” we “that is” sözleri ulanylýar.

- **The weather** is hot today => **It** is hot today.

Demonstrative pronouns – Görkezme çalyşmlary

The demonstrative pronouns are:

Görkezme çalyşmalary aşakdakylardan ybarat:

- **This** – used with a singular noun or pronoun, which is near in distance.

This (Bu, Şu) – golaýda ýerleşýän birlik sandaky at ýa-da çalyşma bilen ulanylýar.

- **That** – used with a singular noun or pronoun, which is far in distance.

That (Şol, Hol) – daşda ýerleşýän birlik sandaky at ýa-da çalyşma bilen ulanylýar.

- **These** – used with a plural noun or pronoun, which is near in distance.

These (Bu, Bular, Şu, Şular) – golaýda ýerleşýän köplük sandaky at ýa-da çalyşma bilen ulanylýar.

- **Those** – used with a plural noun or pronoun, which is far in distance.

Those (Şol, Şolar, Hol, Holar) – daşda ýerleşýän köplük sandaky at ýa-da çalyşma bilen ulanylýar.

Demonstrative pronouns give extra attention to nouns.

Görkezme çalyşmalary atlara goşmaça üns berýärler.

- **This** is my pen. (**Bu** meniň ruçkam.)
- Don't eat **that** apple; it's rotten. (**Ol** almany iýme; ol çüýrük.)

Demonstrative pronouns show distance between the speaker and the object. Look at the sentences and think if the speaker is far from the object or near the object.

Görkezme çalyşmalary gepleýän adam bilen predmetiň arasyndaky daşlygy görkezýärler. Aşakdaky sözlemlere serediň we gepleýän adamyň predmetden daşdadygy ýa-da ýakyndadygy barada pikirleniň.

- Are **these** flowers for your mother? (**Şu** güller ejeň üçünmi?)
- **Those** people are my grandparents. (**Şol** adamlar meniň enem we atam.)
- **Those** notebooks on the table are mine. (**Şol** stoluň üstündäki depderler meniňki.)

Demonstrative pronouns are also used to show contrast.

Görkezme çalyşmalary gapma-garşylygy görkezmek üçin hem ulanylýarlar.

- **This** bread is fresher than **that** bread. (**Bu** çörek **ol** çörege görä täzeräk.)
- **These** melons are better than **those** melons. (**Bu** gawunlar **ol** gawunlara görä gowurak.)
- Do you like **this** shirt or **that** one? (Siz **şu** köýnegi halaýaňyzmy ýa-da **ony**?)

Singular and plural indefinite pronouns – Birlik we köplük sandaky nämälim çalyşmalar

These indefinite pronouns are more like articles and they are often used with non count nouns.

Bu Nämälim çalyşmalar artiklere meňzeşdir we köplenç sanalmaýan atlar bilen ulanylýarlar.

- Chynar doesn't have **any** bread. (Çynarda **hiç hili** çörek *ýok*.)
- Do you have **any** cheese? (Sende **biraz** syr barmy?)
- I bought **some** new music *videos* today. (Men **şu** gün **birnäçe** täze şekilli aýdymlary satyn aldym.)
- I need **some** *minutes* for my cell phone. (Meniň öýjüklü telefonyma **birnäçe minut** gerek.)
- Mahriban drank **all** of the *water*. (Mähriban *suwuň* **hemmesini** içdi.) (Bellik: "All" birlik sandyr sebäbi "water" (suw) sanalmaýan ada degişli.)
- **All** *students* can attend any school they want. (*Okuwçylaryň* **hemmesi** islän mekdebine gatnap bilerler.)

• **All students** must wear *tahya*. (*Okuwçylaryň hemmesi* *tahýa* geýmeli.) (Bellik: “All” köplük sandyr sebäbi “students” (okuwçylar) köplük sanda ulanylan.)

- She left without **any money**. (Ol gyz **hiç hili** *pulsuz* gitdi.)
- Is there **any water**? (Ol ýerde **biraz** *suw* barmy?)
- Do you have **any sugar**? (Sende **biraz** *şeker* barmy?)
- I’ll eat **any kind of fruit**. (Men **islendik** *miwäni iýerin*.)

Compound indefinite pronouns – Birnäçe sözden ybarat nämälim çalyşmalar

Compound indefinite pronouns are used with singular verbs.

Birnäçe sözden ybarat nämälim çalyşmalar işlikleriň birlik sanlary bilen ulanylýarlar.

• **For people: Adamlar üçin:** anyone (kimdir biri), somebody (biri), no one (hiç kim), everyone (her kim we hemme kişi), anybody (kimde bolsa biri), nobody (hiç kim), everybody (her kim we hemme kişi).

• **For things and animals: Zatlar we haýwanlar üçin:** anything (nämede bolsa bir zat), something (bir zat), nothing (hiç zat), everything (hemme zat).

Any- (hiç hili, biraz, haýsydyr bir, islendik)

“Anyone”, “anybody” and “anything” indicate a non-specific person or thing that hasn’t been specified yet. “Anyone” and “anybody” are used for people, and “anything” is used for things, animals and concepts. “Any” is usually used in negative sentences and questions. If the sentence is negative “any” becomes “hiç hili” in Turkmen.

“Anyone”, “anybody” we “anything” sözleri näbelli adamy ýa-da heniz belli edilmedik zady aňladýarlar. “Anyone” we “anybody” adamlar üçin ulanylýar we “anything” zatlar, haýwanlar we düşüňjeler üçin ulanylýar. Adatça “any” ýokluk we sorag sözlemlerinde ulanylýar. Eger sözlem iňkär ediji bolsa, onda “any” Turkmen dilinde “hiç hili” diýlip terjime edilýär.

- **Anybody** can learn English. (**Islendik** adam iňlis dilini öwrenip biler.)
- There wasn’t **anyone** who was able to help me. (Ol ýerde maňa kömek edip bilen **adam** bolmady.)
- Did Maral get **anything** in the mail? (Maral poçtadan **nämedir bir** zat aldymy?)

Some- (biraz, birnäçe, biri)

Words that begin with “some” indicate a specific singular person or thing. “Some” is usually used in positive sentences and less commonly in questions. “Someone” and “somebody” are used for people and “something” is used for things, animals, and concepts.

“Some” bilen başlanýan sözler belli adamy ýa-da zady aňladýar. “Some” adatça barlyk (položitel) sözlemlerde we seýrek sorag sözlemlerinde ulanylýar.

“Someone” we “somebody” adamlar üçin ulanylýar, we “something” zatlar, haýwanlar we düşüňjeler üçin ulanylýar.

- Will **someone** go to the city with us? (Biz bilen şähere **biri** gidermi?)
- **Somebody** will help you carry the melons. (Saňa gawunlary göterişmäge **biri** kömek eder.)
- Kemal will bring **something** to eat. (Kemal ýýmäge **bir** zat getirer.)

“No” and “not” – “No” we “not” (hiç, hiç zat) iňkarlik çalyşmalary

Words or phrases that begin with “no” indicate that a person or thing is not there. “No” is only used with positive verbs to make negative sentences. Negative sentences with “not” and “any” have the same meaning as negative sentences with “no”.

“No” bilen başlanýan sözler ýa-da sözlemler adamyň ýa-da zadyň ol ýerde ýokdugyny aňladýarlar. “no” diňe položitel işlikler bilen ulanylyp ýokluk sözlemleri döretmek üçin ulanylýar. Yokluk sözlemlerindäki “not” we “any” “no” bilen ulanylýan ýokluk sözlemindeki ýaly manyny aňladýar.

- I have **no** money (Mende hiç hili pul **ýok**).
- I do **not** have any money (Mende hiç hili pul **ýok**).
- There is **no** electricity (Hiç hili elektrik togy **ýok**).
- There is **not** any electricity (Hiç hili elektrik togy **ýok**).
- There were **no** grapes at the bazaar (Bazarda hiç hili üzüm **ýokdy**).
- There were **not** any grapes at the bazaar (Bazarda hiç hili üzüm **ýokdy**).

Notice in sentences with “no” the verb remains positive. In English, negative sentences should only have one negative indicator. If there are two negatives in a sentence, they cancel each other out and the sentence becomes positive. Look at the example sentence:

“No” bolan sözlemlerde işligiň barlyk görnüşde galýandygyna üns beriň. Iňlis dilindäki ýokluk sözlemlerinde diňe bir ýokluk görkezijisi bolmalydyr. Eger sözlemde iki ýokluk sözi bar bolsa, onda olar biri-birlerini iňkär edýärler we sözlem barlyk görnüşe öwrülýär. Mysala serediň:

- There were **not no** waffle cookies (Ol ýerde **hiç** wafli **ýokdy**).

This is incorrect. The verb “were not” is negative and there is the word “no”, which is also negative. They cancel each other out. The sentence means “there are waffle cookies”.

Bu nädogry. “Were not” işligi ýokluk manyny berýär we “no” sözünde ýokluk görnüşde. Olar biri-birini ýok edýärler. Sözlem bolsa “Wafli bar” diýen manyny berýär.

Every (Her, hemme) jemleýji çalyşmalar

Words that begin with “every” indicate a group of people or things, but it refers to each individual in the group. It is singular in structure, like “he”, “she”, or “it”. “Every” is also used in positive sentences and questions. “Everyone” and

“Everybody” are used for people and “everything” is used with things, animals and concepts.

“Every” sözi bilen başlanýan sözler adamlaryň ýa-da zatlaryň toparyny aňladýarlar ýöne ol topardaky her adama degişlidir. Ol “he”, “she” ýa-da “it” ýaly gurluşy boýunça birlik sandadyr. “Every” položitel we sorag sözlemlerinde hem ulanylýar. “Everyone” we “Everybody” adamlar üçin ulanylýarlar, we “everything” zatlar, haýwanlar we düşüňjeler üçin ulanylýar.

- **Everything** will be all right in the end. (Soňunda **hemme** zat gowy bolar.)

- **Everybody** should bring 2 manat for taxis. (Taksi üçin **her** kim 2 manat getirmeli.)

- Is **everyone** ready to leave? (**Her** kim gitmäge taýýarmy?)

- I go to Ashgabat **every** week. (Men **her** hepde Aşgabada gidýärim.)

Each (her, hersi) jemleýji çalyşmalar

“Each” is used to mean every individual noun.

“Each” her özbaşdak ady aňlatmak üçin ulanylýar.

- I will take one kilo of **each** kind of cookie. (Men kökeleriň **her** görnüşinden bir kilogram aljak.)

- **Each** person can carry their own bags. (**Her** kim öz sumkasyny göterip biler.)

Interrogative pronouns – Sorag çalyşmalary

Interrogative pronouns introduce questions about nouns. They are: who (kim), whom (kimi), whose (kimiň we kimiňki), which (haýsy), what (näme). Interrogative pronouns are used at the beginning of the sentence and the sentence is ended with a question mark (?).

Sorag çalyşmalary atlar barada sorag sözlerini ulanýarlar. Olar: who (kim), whom (kimi), whose (kimiň we kimiňki), which (haýsy), what (näme). Sorag çalyşmalary sözlemiň başynda ulanylýarlar we sözlemiň soňy sorag belgisi (?) bilen gutarýar.

“Who” and “Whom” are used to ask questions about people. “Who” is used to ask about a person who is the subject. “Whom” is used to ask about a person who is the object.

“Who” we “Whom” adamlar barada soralarda ulanylýar. Sözlemleriň eýesi bolup gelyän adam barada sorag bermek üçin “Who” ulanylýar. “Whom” bolsa sözlemiň doldurgyjy bolup gelyän adam barada sorag bermek üçin ulanylýar.

- **Who** is that teacher? (Ol mugallym kim?)

- **Whom** are you talking to? (Sen kim bilen gepleşýäň?)

- **Who** is that? (Ol kim?)

- **Whose** calendar is that? (Ol kalendar kimiňki?)

- To **whom** should I give my homework? (Öý işimi kime bermeli?)
- **Who** should I give my homework to? (Öý işimi kime bermeli?)

“What” and “Which” are used to talk about things, animals, and events that are the subject or the object of the sentence.

“What” we “Which” sözlemiň eýesi ýa-da doldurgyjy bolup gelýän zatlary, haýwanlary we hadysalary aňladýan sözler bilen ulanylýar.

- **What** is that thing? (Ol zat name?)
- **What** are you eating? (Siz name iýýärsiňiz?)

If there is a helping verb, it goes after the interrogative pronoun, followed by the main verb and then the subject. If there is no helping verb, then the main verb goes after the interrogative pronoun followed by the subject.

Eger kömekçi işlik bar bolsa, ol sorag çalyşmasynyň yzyndan gelýär, onuň yzyndan esasy işlik we soňra bolsa eýe gelýär. Eger kömekçi işlik bolmasa, onda sorag çalyşmasyndan soň esasy işlik gelýär we onuň yzyndan bolsa sözlemiň eýesi gelýär.

Relative pronouns and relative clauses – Otnositel çalyşmalar we ortak işlikler

Relative pronouns introduce dependent clauses and extra information. To make relative clauses you use relative pronouns. Relative pronouns are “who”, “whom”, “whose”, “which”, and “that”.

Otnositel çalyşmalar garaşly sözlemleri we goşmaça maglumatlary aňladýarlar. Ortak işlikleri döretmek üçin otnositel çalyşmalary ulanmaly. Otnositel çalyşmalar: “who” (kim), “whom” (kimi), “whose” (kimiň we kimiňki), “which” (haýsy) we “that” (ol).

You use pronouns to make relative clauses in English, but to form a relative clause in Turkmen you use verb suffixes based on the tense and vowel harmony of the verb.

İňlis dilinde siz ortak işliklerini döretmek üçin çalyşmalary ulanýarsyňyz, emma türkmen dilinde ortak işligini döretmek üçin siz zamana görä we haýsy çekimliniň önde gelişine baglylykda işlik suffiksini ulanýarsyňyz.

- The woman **who** is cooking is my mom. => Nahar bişirýän aýal meniň ejem.

“Who” “whom”, “whose”, and “which” can also be used to ask questions (Who are you? Which is mine?), and they can also be used as pronouns. But “that” cannot be used to ask questions. “Who”, “whom”, and “whose” are used for clauses about people. “Which” and “that” are used for things.

“Who”, “whom”, “whose” we “which” sözlerini sorag bermek üçin hem ulanyyp bolýar. (Who are you? Which is mine?) we olar çalyşma hökmünde-de ulanylyp bilner. Emma “that” sözünü sorag bermek üçin ulanyyp bolmaýar.

“Who”, “whom” we “whose” adamlar bilen bagly işliklerde ulanylýarlar. “Which” we “that” zatlar bilen bagly ulanylýarlar.

Relative pronouns give extra information about the subject or object in the sentence. You can remove the relative clause and you can still understand the sentence.

Otnositel çalyşmalar sözlemiň eýesi ýa-da doldurgyjy barada goşmaça maglumat berýärler. Siz ortak işligi aýyryp bilersiňiz we şonda-da siz sözlemiň manysyna düşünersiňiz.

• The man **who** is reading the newspaper is a teacher. => The man is a teacher. (Gazet okap oturan adam mugallym. => Ol adam mugallym.)

More examples: Beýleki mysallar:

• My friends **who** are studying English are from Turkmenistan. (Meniň iňlis dilini öwrenýän dostlarym Türkmenistandan.)

• The book **that** you gave me was really interesting. (Seniň beren kitabyň örän gyzykly eken.)

• The pen, **which** is on your desk, is mine. (Seniň partaň üstündäki ruçka meniňki.)

Other question words can be used to make relative clauses.

Beýleki sorag sözleride ortak işliklerini ýasamak üçin ulanyp bilner.

• She will tell you **what** you need to know. (Ol saňa seniň bilmeli zadyňy aýdar.)

• I already told the police **what** I know. (Men eýýäm polisiýa öz bilýän zadymy aýtdym.)

• He showed me **where** he went. (Ol maňa giden ýerini görkezdi.)

• I am going to leave **when** you are ready. (Siz taýar bolanyňyzda men gitmekçi.)

Expressing group actions – Toparlaýyn hereketi aňlatmak

When expressing that a number of people did an action, you can say how many people did the action by adding the number of people + “of” + the 3^d person plural objective pronoun (“us” or “them”): number + “of” + objective pronoun. For example:

Haçan-da siz hereketi birnäçe adamyň ýerine ýetirendigini görkezmek isleseňiz, siz ol hereketi näçe adamyň ýerine ýetirendigini adamlary goşmak bilen + “of” + doldurgyçly çalyşmanyň üçünji ýöňkemesiniň köplük görnüşinde (“us” ýa-da “them”) sözleri bilen aýdyp bilersiňiz: number + “of” + objective pronoun. Mysal üçin:

• One of us – Biziň birimiz • Two of them – Olaryň ikisi

Look at the example sentence: Mysallara serediň:

• The **5 of us** went to the store. (**Biziň başimiz** dükana gitdik.)

The phrase can be the subject or object of a sentence.

Şu aňlatma sözlemiň eýesi ýa-da doldurgyjy bolup biler.

- **The eight of us** played soccer. (**Biziň sekizimiz** futbol oýnadyk.)
- They played soccer with the eight of us. (Olar **biziň sekizimiz** bilen futbol oýnadylar.)

You can also make group action phrases using quantifiers: *several of them*, *a lot of us*, *many of them*, etc.

Siz toparlaýyn hereket aňlatmalaryny mukdar sanlary bilen (“several of them” (olaryň käbiri), “a lot of us” (biziň köpümüz), “many of them” (olaryň köpüsi) we ş.m.) ýasap bilersiňiz.

- **Several of them** played football together. (**Olaryň käbiri** bile futbol oýnadylar.)
- They gave presents to **a lot of us**. (Olar **biziň köpimize** sowgat berdiler.)

Quantifiers – Mukdar sanlar

Quantifiers are like articles. They tell how many or how much. You use different quantifiers for count nouns and non count nouns. Some quantifiers can modify both count and non count nouns.

Mukdar sanlar hem artiklere meňzeşdir. Olar näçe diýen soraga jogap bolýarlar. Siz sanalýan we sanalmaýan atlar üçin dürli mukdar sanlary ulanýarsyňyz. Käbir mukdar sanlar hem sanalýan, hem-de sanalmaýan atlary üýtgedip bilýärler.

The following quantifiers are always in the plural form: *several* (birnäçe), *few* (az), *many* or *a lot* (köp), and *both* (ikisi hem). They are never used with singular nouns.

Şu aşakdaky mukdar sanlar hemişe köplük sanda ýazylyarlar: *several* (birnäçe), *few* (az), *many* or *a lot* (köp) and *both* (ikisi hem). Olar hiç wagt birlik sandaky atlar bilen ulanylmaýarlar.

- I ate **several** *peaches* at lunch. (Men günortanlyk naharda **birnäçe** *şetdaly* iýdim.)
- You took **several** *pieces* of paper. (Sen **birnäçe** *kagyz* aldyň.)
- We have **few** *books* left to read. (Bizde **azajyk** *okamaly kitap* galdy.)
- **Few** *students* did their homework. (**Azajyk** *okuwçy* öý işini etdi.)
- There are **many** new *students* this year. (Şu ýyl täze *okuwçy* **köp**.)
- Aysoltan has **a lot of** *sisters*. (Aýsoltanyň *gyz doganlary* **köp**.)
- **Both** *Bekmurat and Wepa* are going to Balkanabat. (**Bekmyradam Wepada** Balkanabada gidýärler.)
- I bought **both** green and red *grapes*. (Men *üzümiň* **gögünem**, **gyzylnam** satyn aldym.)

For count nouns – Sanalýan atlar üçin

- Many – Ata has **many** *friends*. (Atanyň **köp** *dosty* bar.)
- A few – I have **a few** *dollars*. (Mende **biraz** *dollar* bar.)

- Few – **Few** of *us* know how to do our homework. (*Biziň käbirimiz öý işini nähili ýerine ýetirmelidigini bilýäris.*)
- Several – I bought **several** *beans* at the market today. (Men bu gün bazarda **köp** *noýba* satyn aldym.)
- A couple of – My friend bought **a couple of** *dogs*. (Meniň dostum **iki sany** *it* satyn aldy.)
- None of the – I have **none of the** *music* you gave me. (Mende siziň beren *sazlaryňyzdan* **hiç hilisi** ýok.)
For non count – Sanalmaýan atlar üçin
- Not much – **Not much** was given. (**Köp** berilmedi.)
- A little – I ate **a little** *bread* with my soup. (Men çorba bilen **birazajyk** *çörek* iýdim.)
- Little – He has **little** *time* to do my homework. (Meniň öý işimi etmäge onuň *wagty* **az**.)
- A bit of – Give me **a bit of** *honey*, please. (Maňa **biraz** *ary* bal beräýiň.)
For both (count and non count) – (Sanalýan we sanalmaýan atlaryň) ikisi üçin hem
- All of the – I answered **all of the** *questions*. (Men *soraglaryň* **hemmesine** jogap berdim.)
- Some – I ate **some of the** *cake*. (Men *tortuň* **biraz bölegini** iýdim.)
- Most of the – He ate **most of the** *apples*. (Ol *almalaryň* **köpüsini** iýdi.)
- Enough – I don't have **enough** *money* to buy a movie. (Mende kino satyn almaga **ýeterlik** *pul* ýok.)
- A lot of – I don't have **a lot of** *money*. (Mende **köp** *pul* ýok.)
- Lots of – My mother gave me **lots of** *love*. (Meniň ejem maňa **köp söýgüsini** siňdirdi.)

Special Quantifiers – Ýörite mukdar sanlary

There are a few special rules for “little”, “few”, “many”, and “much”.

“Little”, “few”, “many” we “much” üçin biraz ýörite düzgünler bar.

“Little” and “Few” – “Little” we “Few”

When you want to express that you only have a small amount of something, you use “a little” for non count nouns and “a few” for count nouns. For example:

Haçan-da siz az mukdarda bir zadyňyzyň bardygyny aňlatjak bolsaňyz, “a little” sözüni sanalmaýan atlarda, “a few” sözüni bolsa sanalýan atlarda ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin:

- Non count (Sanalmaýan): I have **a little** rice. (Mende **biraz** tüwi bar.)
- Count (Sanalýan): I have **a few** beans. (Mende **azajyk** noýba bar.)

However, when you don't use an indefinite article ("a"), you change the meaning of "a little" and "a few". "A little" expresses that you have a small amount of something, but when you say "little" without the article, you say you have a lack of something or need more. For example, *I have **little** time to help*. That sentence shows that you have a little time and need more.

The same is true for "a few" and "few". "A few" expresses a small amount for count nouns. For example, *I have **a few** strawberries*". But "few" expresses that there is a lack of something. For example, *I have **few** strawberries remaining*".

Şeýle-de bolsa, haçan-da siz nämälim artikli ("a") ulanmasaňyz, siz "a little" we "a few" sözleriniň manylaryny üýtgedýärsiňiz. "A little" bir zadyň sizde az mukdarda bardygyny aňladýar, ýöne siz nämälim artikli ulanman "little" diýseňiz, onda bir zadyň ýetmeýändigini ýa-da köpräk gerekdigini aňladýar. Mysal üçin: *I have **little** time to help*". Bu sözlemde siziň wagtyňyzyň azdygyny we köpräk gerekdigini aňladýar.

Şol bir kada "a few" we "few" sözlerine-de degişlidir. "A few" sanalýan atlarda az mukdardadygyny aňladýar. Mysal üçin: *I have **a few** strawberries*" (Mende **biraz** ýertudana bar). Emma "few" bir zadyň ýetmeýändigini aňladýar. Mysal üçin: *I have **few** strawberries remaining*" (Mende **azajyk** ýertudana galdy).

"Many" and "Much" – "Many" we "Much"

"Many" and "much" show that you have a large amount of something. Usually you use "many" to modify plural count nouns, and you use "much" to modify non count nouns. For example:

"Many" we "much" sizde bir zadyň köp mukdarda bardygyny görkezýär. Adatça "many" sözi köplük sanalýan atlary aýyklar gelýär, "much" bolsa sanalmaýan atlary aýyklar gelýär. Mysal üçin:

- Count noun: Sanalýan at: *I have **many** apples*. (Mende **köp** alma bar.)
- Non count: Sanalmaýan at: *I don't have **much** milk*. (Mende **köp** süýt ýok.)

Adjectives – Sypatlar

Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns. For example: *big, small, red, black, old, new, several, few*, etc. They describe which, they show what kind, and they count how many.

Sypatlar atlary we çalyşmalary aýyklar gelýärler. Mysal üçin: "*big*" (*uly*), "*small*" (*kiçi*), "*red*" (*gyzyl*), "*black*" (*gara*), "*old*" (*köne*), "*new*" (*täze*), "*several*" (*käbir*), "*few*" (*biraz*), we ş.m. Olar haýsy, nähili we näçe diýen soraglara jogap berýärler.

- Describe (Nähilidigini suratlandyrýar): The **red** car stopped. (**Gyzyl** maşyn durdy.)
- Show (Haýsydygyny görkezýär): **Old** cars need to be repaired. (**Köne** maşynlar bejergä mätäç.)
- Count (Näçedigini sanaýar): We saw **several** cars. (Biz **birnäçe** maşyn gördük.)

Adjectives in the English language do not change in number or gender like Russian adjectives.

Iňlis dilinde sypatlar rus diliniň sypatlary ýaly sana we jynsa görä üýtgemeyärler.

- Russian (rusça): У него маленькие дети.
- English (iňlisçe): His children are small (not “smalls” – “smalls” däl).
Adjectives can be made stronger with “very”, “so” and “too”.
Sypatlary “very”, “so” we “too” sözleriniň kömegi bilen güýçlendirip bolar.

- She is **very** beautiful. (Ol **örän** owadan.)
- I am **very** tired. (Men **ýaman** ýadaw.)
- He is **too** tall. (Ol **has** uzyn.)
- I am **so** happy. (Men **örän** bagtly.)

Comparatives and superlatives – Deňeşdirme we artyklyk derejeleri

Adjectives can be compared showing differences between nouns, such as “*My dog is **bigger** than your dog*” or “*English is **the most interesting** subject*”. **Comparatives** compare two things or groups, and **superlatives** compare three or more things or groups. You only use “than” with comparatives (two things). Also, superlative things are always definite objects and are usually preceded by “the”.

Sypatlar atlaryň arasyndaky tapawudy görkezmek üçin deňeşdirilýärler, mysal üçin; “*My dog is **bigger** than your dog*” ýa-da “*English is **the most interesting** subject*”. **Deňeşdirme derejesi** iki zady ýa-da toparly deňeşdirýär, **artyklyk derejesi** bolsa üç ýa-da ondan köp zatlary we toparlary deňeşdirýär. Siz deňeşdirme derejesini iki zady deňeşdireňizde diňe “than” sözüni ulanmalysyňyz, Şeýle hem, artyklyk derejesinde ulanylýan sözler hemişe mälim zatlardyr we olaryň öňünden “the” artikli ulanylýar.

One syllable adjectives – Bir bogunly sypatlar

To compare words with one syllable (big, small), you add **-er** to comparatives and **-est** for superlatives.

(Bi, small) ýaly bir bogunly sypatlary deňeşdirmek üçin deňeşdirme derejesinde **-er** goşulmasy we artyklyk derejesinde bolsa **-est** goşulmasy goşulýar.

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
Sypat	Deňşdirme derejesi	Artyklyk derejesi
short	shorter	shortest
tall	taller	tallest
large	larger	largest
small	smaller	smallest

Look at these examples: Mysallara serediň:

- Ata is **short**. (Ata **gysga**.)
- Ata is **shorter than** Serdar. (Ata Serdardan **kelteräk**.)
- Ata is **the shortest** student at school? (Ata mekdepde **iň kelte okuwçy?**)

When you compare things in Turkmen you use -dan / -den to show what is being compared: *Ata Serdardan gysgarak*. But in English you use the word “than” to show what is being compared: *Ata is shorter than Serdar*.

Haçan-da siz türkmen dilinde bir zatlary deňşdireniňizde, deňşdirilýän zady görkezmek üçin -dan / -den goşulmasy goşulýar: *Ata Serdardan kelteräk*. Emma iňlis dilinde deňşdirilýän zady görkezmek üçin “than” sözi ulanylýar: *Ata is shorter than Serdar*.

Spelling – Dürs ýazuw

If the adjective ends in -y you should remove the letter -y, put an -i, and add **-er** or **-est**.

Eger sypat -y harpy bilen gutarsa, siz -y harpyny aýyryp -i harpyny goýmaly we **-er** ýa-da **-est** goşulmalaryny goşmaly.

- Happy – y => i + er = happier
- Silly – y => i + est = silliest

Multiple syllable adjective – Köp bogunly sypatlar

To compare words with more than one syllable, you should not use -er or -est. For example, “beautiful” has three syllables (beau + ti + ful). You use “more” for comparatives and “the most” for superlatives.

Birden köp bogunly sypatlary deňşdirmek üçin -er ýa-da -est goşulmalaryny ulanmaly däl. Mysal üçin “beautiful” sözünüň üç boguny bar (beau + ti + ful). Deňşdirme derejesi üçin “more” we artyklyk derejesi üçin bolsa “the most” ulanmaly.

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
Sypat	Deňşdirme derejesi	Artyklyk derejesi
Beautiful	More beautiful	The most beautiful
Dangerous	More dangerous	The most dangerous
Useful	More useful	The most useful

Look at these examples: Şu mysallara serediň:

- Sarah is **beautiful**. (Sarah **owadan**.)
- Sarah is **more beautiful** than Pamela. (Sarah Pameladan **owadanrak**.)
- Sarah is **the most beautiful** girl in Gypjak. (Sarah Gypjakda **iň owadan** gyz.)

Note: never use “more” or “most” with words that end in -er or -est.

Bellik: hiç wagt -er we -est bilen gutarýan sypatlar bilen “more” ýa-da “most” sözlerini ulanmaň.

Irregular adjectives – Nädogry sypatlar

Some adjectives have irregular comparatives and superlatives.

Käbir sypatlaryň nädogry deňeşdirme we artyklyk derejeleri bar.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Barlyk	Deňeşdirme derejesi	Artyklyk derejesi
good (gowy)	better	the best
bad (erbet)	worse	the worst
little (az)	less	the least
many, much (köp)	more	the most

Look at these example sentences: Şu mysallara serediň:

- Ata is a **bad** football player. (Ata **erbet** futbol oýunçysy.)
- Ata is a **worse** football player than Serdar. (Ata Serdardan **erbedräk** futbol oýunçy.)
- Ata is **the worst** football player (Ata **iň erbet** futbol oýunçysy.)

Opposite comparatives and superlatives – Garşydaş deňeşdirme we artyklyk derejeleri

If you want to make a negative comparative, you can put “less” and “least” before the adjectives. You use “less” for comparatives, and you use “least” for superlatives.

Eger siz deňeşdirme derejesiniň ýoklugyny ýasajak bolsaňyz, onda sypatlaryň öňünden “less” we “least” goşulmalaryny ulanyp bilersiňiz. Siz “less” goşulmasyny deňeşdirme derejesi üçin, “least” goşulmasyny bolsa artyklyk derejesi üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz.

- Rabbits are **less** dangerous than snakes. (Towşanlar ýylanlara garaňda howpsuz**rak**.)

- Rabbits are **the least** dangerous animal. (Towşanlar **iň** howpsuz haýwanlardyr.)

Adverbs – Hallar

Adverbs modify verbs and verb phrases. For example: *quickly, terribly, fluently, beautifully, always, daily, monthly, never, sometimes*, etc. Many adverbs have an **-ly** ending (*quickly, recently, happily*), but some do not (*fast, high, far, always, never, very, well*). But pay attention; some words with the **-ly** ending are not adverbs (*friendly, lovely*); they are adjectives or other parts of speech. Adverbs answer the questions: how, how often, when, where, and to what extent.

Hallar işlikleri we işlik jümlelerini aýyklarap gelýärler. Mysal üçin: “*quickly*”, “*terribly*”, “*fluently*”, “*beautifully*”, “*always*”, “*daily*”, “*monthly*”, “*never*”, “*sometimes*” we ş.m. Köp hallaryň soňuna **-ly** goşulmasy goşulýar: “*quickly, recently, happily*”, ýöne käbirine goşulmaýarlar “*fast*”, “*high*”, “*far*”, “*always*”, “*never*”, “*very*”, “*well*”. Emma käbir sözleriň soňy **-ly** goşulmasy bilen gutarsada hal dældigine üns beriň (*friendly, lovely*); olar sypatlardyr ýa-da başga söz toparlaryna degişlidir. Hallar nähili, neneňsi, näçe gezek, haçan, nirede, näçe esse we nähiliräk diýen soraglara jogap bolyarlar.

- How (Nähili): My dog ate **quickly**. (Meniň itim **çalt** ýydi.)
- How often (Näçe gezek): I **rarely** go to Ashgabat. (Men Aşgabada **seýrek** gidýärim.)
- When (Haçan): I **just** finished my homework. (Men öý işimi **ýaňyja** gutardym.)
- Where (Nirede): I walked **near** the forest. (Men tokaýyň **ýanynda** gezelenç etdim.)

Adverbs can be made stronger with “very”, “so”, and “too”:

Hallar “very” (örän), “so” (şeýle) we “too” (has) sözleri bilen güýçlendirilýärler.

- He runs **very quickly**. (Ol **örän çalt** ylgaýar.)
- She reads **too slowly**. (Ol **has haýal** okaýar.)

Spelling – Dürs ýazuw

If the word ends in a **-y**, you usually remove the **-y** and add **-i** and **-ly**.

Eger söz **-y** harpyna gutarsa, siz adatça **-y** harpyny aýyrmaly we **-i** we **-ly** harplaryny goýmaly.

- Happy – y => i + ly = **happily** (bagtly).

If the word being changed ends in **-e**, you usually remove **-e** and add **-ly**.

Eger üýtgedilýän sözüň soňy **-e** harpyna gutarsa, siz adatça **-e** harpyny aýyrmaly we **-ly** goşmaly.

- Terrible – e + ly = **terribly** (elhenç).

If the word ends in an **-l**, you add **-ly**.

Eger söz **-l** harpyna gutarsa, **-ly** goşmaly.

- Careful + ly = **carefully** (üns bilen, seresaplyk bilen).

If the word’s base ends with **-ic** (economic, historic, etc.) add **-ally**.

Eger düýp söz -ic harplaryna gutarsa (“economic”, “historic” we ş.m.), onda -ally goşulmasyny goşuň.

- Economic + ally = **economically** (ykdysady taýdan).

Changing adjectives into adverbs – Sypatlaryň hallara öwrülişi

You can change many adjectives into adverbs by adding -ly.

Siz köp sypatlary hallara -ly goşulmasyny goşup üýtgedip bilersiňiz.

For example: Mysal üçin: Fluent + ly = fluently

• Adjective (Sypat): I am **fluent** in English. (Men iňlis dilini **suwara** bilýärim.)

• Adverb (Hal): I speak English **fluently**. (Men iňlis dilinde suw içen ýaly gepleýärim.)

Changing Nouns into Adverbs – Atlaryň Hallara Öwrülişi

You can change some nouns into adverbs by adding -ly.

Siz käbir atlary hallara -ly goşulmasyny goşup üýtgedip bilersiňiz.

• Day – y => i + ly = **daily**.

• Noun (At): Today is a beautiful **day**. (Bu **gün** owadan gün.)

• Adverb (Hal): I go to the market **daily**. (Men **her gün** bazara gidýärim.)

Brother + ly = **brotherly**.

• Noun (At): My friend, Ata, has two **brothers**. (Meniň dostum Atanyň iki **oglan dogany** bar.)

• Adverb (Hal): My friend, Ata, is very **brotherly**. (Meniň dostum Ata maňa edil **dogan ýaly**.)

Comparatives and superlatives – Deňeşdirme we artyklyk derejeleri

Adverbs can also be compared showing differences between verbs. For example:

Hallar hem işlikleriň arasyndaky tapawutlyklary görkezmek üçin deňeşdirilip bilýärler. Mysal üçin:

• Gülnar is working **more quickly** than Jennet. (Gülnar Jennetden **çaltrak** işleýär.)

• They are **the most happily** married couple. (Olar **iň bagtly** durmuş guran maşgaladyr.)

You do not add -er and -est to the end of -ly adverbs, because none of them are one syllable. Before the adverb you add “more” for comparatives or “the most” for superlatives, and you keep the adverb’s -ly ending (“**more quickly**” and “**the most quickly**”).

Siz -ly goşulmaly hallaryň yzyna -er ýa-da -est goşmaly däl sebäbi olaryň hiç biri hem bir bogunly däldir. Köplenç siz deňeşdirme derejesinde halyň öňüne

“more”, artyklyk derejesinde bolsa “the most” ulanýarsyňyz we -ly goşulmasyny saklap galýarsyňyz (“**more quickly**” and “**the most quickly**”).

Adverb	Comparative	Superlative
Hal	Deňeşdirme derejesi	Artyklyk derejesi
Quickly	More quickly	The most quickly
Terribly	More terribly	The most terribly
Fluently	More fluently	The most fluently
Carefully	More carefully	The most carefully

Also, if you want to make a negative comparative, you can put “less” and “least” before the adverbs and keep the -ly ending. You use “less” for comparatives, and you use “least” for superlatives.

Şeýle hem, eger siz deňeşdirme derejesiniň ýokluk görnüşini ýasamak isleseňiz, onda hallaryň öňünden “less” ýa-da “least” sözlerini goýup bilersiňiz we -ly goşulmasyny saklap bilersiňiz. Siz deňeşdirme derejesi üçin “less”, artyklyk derejesi üçin bolsa “the least” ulanýarsyňyz.

- Comparative: Deňeşdirme: Ata speaks English **less** fluently than Serdar. (Ata iňlis dilinde Serdaryň arkaýyn gepleýşinden **pesräk** gepleýär.)

- Superlative: Artyklyk: Ata speaks English the **least** fluently. (Iňlis dilinde **iň pes** gepleýän Atadyr.)

Types of adverbs – Hal derejeleri

Adverbs of action / manner – Hereketi ýa-da hereketiň alamatyny bildirýän hallar

These adverbs describe the action and answer the questions “how” or “how well”. These adverbs are placed at the beginning or end of the sentence.

Bu hallar hereketi suratlandyryp “how” (nähili) ýa-da “how well” (nähili gowy) diýen soraglara jogap berýärler. Bu hallar sözlemiň başynda ýa-da ahyrynda goýulýarlar.

- My father walks **slowly**. (Meniň kakam **ýuwaş** ýöreyär.)

- They are working **carefully**. (Olar **seresaplyk bilen** işleýärler.)

- The students are sitting **quietly**. (Talyplar **ýuwaş** otyrlar.)

Adverbs of location / place – Orun bildirýän hallar

These show where the action happened.

Bular hereketiň nirede bolup geçendigini görkezýärler.

- Let’s sit right **here**. (Geliň edil **şu ýerde** oturalyň.)

- There is a store **nearby**. (**Golaýda** dükan bar.)

- The baby is **outdoors**. (Çaga **daşarda**.)

Adverbs of time – Wagt bildirýän hallar

These show when the action happened. They answer the question “when” or “what time”. Adverbs time can be a single word, a phrase, or a clause. They are used with any verb tense and are usually put in the middle position. The most common adverbs of time are: *hourly, early, weekly, daily, monthly, yearly*.

Bular gymyldy-herketiň haçan bolup geçendigini görkezýärler. Olar “when” (haçan) ýa-da “what time” (näçede) diýen soraglara jogap berýärler. Wagt aňladýan hallar ýeketäk sözden, jümleden ýa-da sözlemeden ybarat bolup bilerler. Olar islendik işlik zamany bilen ulanyp bilerler we olar köp halatlarda sözlemiň ortasynda goýulýarlar. Iň köp ulanylýan wagt aňladýan hallar şulardan ybarat: *hourly (her sagat), early (irden), weekly (her hepde), daily (her gün), monthly (her aý), yearly (her ýyl)*.

- My father goes to Ashgabat **weekly** to buy food for his store. (Meniň kakam **her hepde** öz dükanyna azyk harytlaryny almak üçin Aşgabada gidýär.)

- I receive my paycheck **monthly**. (Men **her aýda** töleg kagyzy my alýaryn.)

- The bank is open **daily** from 9:00 to 5:00. (Bank **her gün** sagat 9:00-dan 5:00-a çenli açyk.)

Adverbs of relative time – Değişli wagty bildirýän hallar

These show indefinite time. They are placed in different places.

Bular näbelli wagty görkezýärler we dürli ýerlerde goýulýarlar.

- Just – Gozel is **just** about to leave (**edil şu wagt**.) (Gözel gitjek bolup dur.)

- Still – Anna **still** needs to buy eggs. (Anna **heniz hem** ýumurtga satyn almany.)

- Already – I have **already** done my homework. (Men **eýýäm** öý işimi etdim.)

- Yet – Chary hasn’t come home **yet**. (Çary **heniz** öýe gelmedi.)

- Lately – Shahymerdan hasn’t visited us **lately**. (Şahymerdan **soňky wagtlar** bize oturmaga gelmedi.)

- Recently – I **recently** saw your mother. (Men **arada** seniň ejeňi gördüm).

- Soon – They are coming **soon**. (Olar **basym** gelýärler).

Adverbs of frequency – Ýyglygy aňladýan hallar

These show how often an action happens. They answer the question “how often”. One-word adverbs of frequency are usually placed in the middle position of the sentence, while multi-word adverbs of frequency are placed at the end of the sentence.

Bular gymyldy-herketiň nähili ýygy-ýygydan bolup geçýändigini görkezýärler. Olar “how often” (nähili ýygy-ýygydan) diýen soraga jogap berýärler. Ýyglygy aňladýan bir sözden ybarat hallar köplenç sözlemiň

ortasynda goýulýarlar, köp sözden ybarat hallar bolsa sözlemiň ahrynda goýulýarlar.

Negative	Yokluk
Never	Hiç wagt / hiç haçan
Rarely	Seýrek
Seldom	Seýrek

Positive	Barlyk
Always	Hemişe
Usually	Adatça / köplenç
Often	Ýygy-ýygydan / köplenç
Sometimes / Many times	Käwagt / Köp gezek
Every day / week / month	Her gün / hepde / aý
Twice / three times a day / week / month	Günde / hepdede / aýda iki gezek / üç gezek

Note: do not use “no”, “not”, or “never” with a negative adverb of frequency. For example, you shouldn’t say, “I **never did not** eat”. This mistake is called a double negative.

Bellik: Ýygylygy aňladýan ýokluk hal bilen “no”, “not” ýa-da “never” sözlerini ulanmaň. Mysal üçin: “I **never did not** eat” diýmeli däl. Bu ýalňyşa “double negative” (ýokluk goşa sözler) diýilýär.

Sentence word order – Sözlemde sözleriň tertibi

You can only put adverbs in specific places. You usually put the adverb at the beginning of the sentence, in the middle of the sentence (between the subject and main verb) or at the end of the sentence. Look at these examples:

Siz hallary dine belli ýerlerde goýup bilersiňiz. Adatça siz hallary sözlemiň başynda, ortasynda (eýe bilen esasy işligiň arasynda) ýa-da ahrynda goýup bilersiňiz. Şu mysallara serediň:

- Beginning (Başynda): **Yesterday** my mother went to Tolkuchka. (**Düýn** meniň ejem jygylygy gitdi.)

- Middle (Ortasynda): My mother **usually** goes to Tolkuchka on Sunday. (Meniň ejem **köplenç** jygylygy ýekşenbe güni gidýär.)

- End (Ahrynda): My mother will go to Tolkuchka **on Sunday** tomorrow. (Meniň ejem jygylygy ertir **ýekşenbe** güni gider.)

Time words (*now, today, everyday, yesterday, at 5 o’clock, after that,* etc.) are usually fit the beginning or end of the sentence:

Wagt bildirýän hallar (*now, today, everyday, yesterday, at 5 o’clock, after that we ş.m.*) adatça sözlemiň başynda ýa-da ahrynda ulanylýarlar. Mysal üçin:

- I went to school **today**. (Men **şu gün** mekdebe gitdim.)

- **At five o'clock** I will eat dinner. (**Sagat 5-de** men agşamlyk naharymy iýerin.)

Frequency words (*always, sometimes, usually, seldom, and often*) are usually put in the middle of the sentence after the subject.

Ýgylygy aňladýan sözler (*always, sometimes, usually, seldom we often*) adatça sözlemi ortasynda eýeden soň ulanylýar.

- I **usually** go to Ashgabat. (Men **köplenç** Aşgabada gidýärim.)

If the sentence has a helping verb (*is, are, were, should, etc.*), you usually put the adverb after the helping verb.

Eger sözlemde kömekçi işlik bar bolsa, onda köplenç siz haly kömekçi işliginiň soňundan goýýarsyňyz.

- My mother should **usually** go to Tolkuchka on Sunday. (Meniň ejem jygyllyga **köplenç** ýekşenbe güni gidýär.)

You put “still”, “just”, “ever”, “never”, “almost”, “hardly”, and “quite” in the middle positions.

“Still”, “just”, “ever”, “never”, “almost”, “hardly” we “quite” sözlerini sözlemiň ortasynda goýýarsyňyz.

- He **just** finished work, and he'll be coming home soon. (Ol **ýaňyja** işinden dyndy we basym öýe geler.)

- My friend is **still** in school. (Meniň dostum **heniz hem** mekdepe.)

- He **never** went to Ashgabat. (Ol Aşgabada **hiç wagt** gidip görmedi.)

Never put the adverb between the main verb and direct object.

Şeýle hem, hiç wagt haly esasy işlik bilen ýeňiş doldurgyjynyň arasynda goýmaň.

- Incorrect (Nädogry): I am eating **quickly** an apple. (Men **çalt** almany iýýän.)

- Correct (Dogry): I am **quickly** eating an apple. (Men almany **çalt** iýýän.)

Verbs – İşlikler

Verbs describe natural states (“*The sky is blue*”), actions of the body (“*Ata runs everyday*”), or actions of the mind (“*They feel happy*”). English has regular verbs and irregular verbs. Also, there are two important types of verbs: action verbs and helping verbs.

İşlikler tebigy ýagdaýlary (“*The sky is blue*” – *Asman gök*), beden hereketlerini (“*Ata runs every day*” – *Ata her gün ylgayar*) ýa-da aň hereketlerini (“*They feel happy*” – *Olar özlerini bagtly duýýarlar*) suratlandyrýarlar. Inlis dilinde dogry we nädogry işlikler bar. Şeýle hem, işlikleriň iki sany möhüm gömüşleri bar: gymyldy-hereketi aňladýan işlikler we kömekçi işlikler.

Regular Verbs – Dogry İşlikler

Regular verbs are all conjugated the same way: to make the past tense -ed is added to the end of the verb, and the past tense and perfect tense forms are similar. “Walk” is a regular verb.

Dogry işlikleriň hemmesi şol bir görnüşde üýtgeýärler: öten zamany ýasamak üçin sözüň soňuna -ed goşulmasy goşulýar hem-de öten we gutarnykly zamanlaryň gömüşleri hem meňzeşdir. “Walk” dogry işlik.

Look at the forms of the verbs: İşlikleriň görnüşlerine serediň:

Turkmen verb	Infinitive	Past participle	Perfect participle
İşlik	Nämälim	Öten zaman	Gutarnykly zaman
<i>Soramak</i>	<i>ask</i>	<i>asked</i>	<i>asked</i>
<i>Arassalamak</i>	<i>clean</i>	<i>cleaned</i>	<i>cleaned</i>
<i>Tans etmek</i>	<i>dance</i>	<i>danced</i>	<i>danced</i>
<i>Görmek</i>	<i>watch</i>	<i>watched</i>	<i>watched</i>

Irregular Verbs – Nädogry İşlikler

The English language also has several **irregular verbs**. They have different conjugations for present tense, past tense, and perfect tense. Many irregular verbs are from old English. These verbs must be memorized, because they are used frequently. For an irregular verb you change some of the letters in the word, change the word entirely, or don't change it at all. Some of the irregular verbs are different for each verb tense, some are only slightly different, that is the past and perfect tenses are similar. Below is a list of commonly used irregular verbs:

İňlis diliniň hem birnäçe **nädogry işlikleri** bar. Olar häzirki, öten we gutarnykly zamanlarda her hili üýtgeýärler. Nädogry işlikleriň köpüsi gadymy iňlis dilinden geçipdir. Ol sözləriň ýygy-ýygydan ulanylýandygy üçin olary ýat tutmaly. Nädogry işlikler üçin, sözüň käbir harplaryny üýtgedýärsiňiz, tutuş sözi üýtgedýärsiňiz ýa-da ony hiç-hili üýtgetmeýärsiňiz. Käbir nädogry işlikler her zaman üçin dürli-dürli bolýarlar, käbiri bolsa biraz tapawutly bolýar sebäbi öten zaman bilen gutarnykly zaman meňzeşdir. Aşakda köp ulanylýan nädogry işlikleriň sanawy görkezilýär:

Turkmen verb	Infinitive	Past participle	Perfect participle
İşlik	Nämälim	Öten zaman	Gutarnykly zaman
Bolmak	Be	Was / Were	Been
Bolmak	Become	Became	Become
Başlamak	Begin	Began	Begun
Döwmek, bozmak	Break	Broke	Broken
Getirmek	Bring	Brought	Brought
Gurmak	Build	Built	Built
Satyn almak	Buy	Bought	Bought
Gelmek	Come	Came	Come

Kesmek / gyrkmak	Cut	Cut	Cut
Ýasamak, Etmek	Do	Did	Done
Surat çekmek	Draw	Drew	Drawn
İçmek	Drink	Drank	Drunk
Sürmek	Drive	Drove	Driven
İymek	Eat	Ate	Eaten
Ýykylmak, gopmak, pese düşmek	Fall	Fell	Fallen
Tapmak	Find	Found	Found
Uçmak	Fly	Flew	Flown
Ýatdan çykarmak	Forget	Forgot	Forgotten
Almak	Get	Got	Got
Bermek	Give	Gave	Given
Gitmek	Go	Went	Gone
Bar bolmak	Have / Has	Had	Had
Eşitmek	Hear	Heard	Heard
Agyrmak	Hurt	Hurt	Hurt
Bilmek	Know	Knew	Known
Gitmek, ugramak	Leave	Left	Left
Ýitirmek	Lose	Lost	Lost
Ýasamak, döretmek	Make	Made	Made
Aňlatmak, pikir etmek	Mean	Meant	Meant
Tölemek	Pay	Paid	Paid
Goýmak	Put	Put	Put
Okamak	Read [ri:d]	Read [red]	Read [red]
Ylgamak	Run	Ran	Run
Diýmek	Say	Said	Said
Görmek	See	Saw	Seen
Satmak	Sell	Sold	Sold
Ibermek	Send	Sent	Sent
Ýapmak	Shut	Shut	Shut
Aýdym aýtmak	Sing	Sang	Sung
Oturmak	Sit	Sat	Sat
Ýatmak	Sleep	Slept	Slept
Geplemek, gürlleşmek	Speak	Spoke	Spoken
Sowmak, geçirmek	Spend	Spent	Spent
Turmak	'Stand	Stood	Stood
Suwa düşmek	Swim	Swam	Swum
Almak	Take	Took	Taken
Okatmak	Teach	Taught	Taught
Aýtmak	Tell	Told	Told
Pikir etmek	Think	Thought	Thought
Düşünmek	Understand	Understood	Understood
Oýanmak	Wake	Woke	Woken
Geýinmek	Wear	Wore	Worn
Ýeňmek	Win	Won	Won
Ýazmak	Write	Wrote	Written

Action Verbs – Hereket İşlikleri

Action verbs (or **main verbs**) are the most common. They show actions of the body or mind. For example: “run”, “jump”, “eat”, “think”, “know”.

Hereket işlikleri (ýa-da esasy işlikler) örän köp duş gelyärler. Hereket işlikleri hereketde bolýarlar. Olar beden we aň hereketlerini görkezýärler. Mysal üçin: “run” (ylgamak), “jump” (bökmek), “eat” (iýmek), “think” (pikirlenmek), “know” (bilmek).

Helping Verbs – Kömekçi İşlikler

Helping verbs create many different verb tenses, verb forms, and sentence structures. These helping verbs, which make sentences, have many names: “linking verbs”, “helping verbs”, and “auxiliary verbs”. They include the forms of “be”, “do”, “have”; they are the most common helping verbs; they can be action verbs or helping verbs, and their forms are irregular.

Kömekçi işlikler bimäçe dürli işlik zamanlaryny, işlik görnüşlerini we sözlem düzümlerini döredýärler. Bu sözlemleri döredýän kömekçi işlikleriň birnäçe atlaryda bar: “baglaýjy işlikler”, “kömekçi işlikler”. Olaryň “be”, “do”, “have” görnüşleri bar we olar örän köp ulanylýan kömekçi işlikler hasaplanylýar; olar hereket aňladýan işlikler ýa-da kömekçi işlikler bolup hem bilýärler we olar nädogry işlikleriň toparyna degişlidir.

Every verb tense has one or more helping verbs.

Her işlik zamanynyň bir ýa-da birden köp kömekçi işligi bolýar.

- Simple present tense: “do” and “does” – Ýönekeý häzirki zaman: “do” we “does”.
- Simple past tense: “did” – Ýönekeý öten zaman: “did”.
- Simple future tense: “will” – Ýönekeý geljek zaman: “will”.
- Present progressive tense: “am”, “is”, “are” – Dowamly häzirki zaman: “am”, “is”, “are”.
- Past progressive tense: “was”, “were” – Dowamly öten zaman: “was”, “were”.
- Future progressive tense: “will be” – Dowamly geljek zaman: “will be”.
- Present perfect tenses: “have” and “has” – Gutarnykly häzirki zaman: “have” we “has”.
- Past perfect tense: “had” – Gutarnykly öten zaman: “had”.
- Future perfect tense: “will have” – Gutarnykly geljek zaman: “will have”.
- Present perfect progressive tense: “have been” and “has been” – Gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman: “have been” we “has been”.
- Past perfect progressive tense: “had been” – Gutarnykly dowamly öten zaman: “had been”.

- Future perfect progressive tense: “will have been” – Gutarnykly dowamly geljek zaman: “will have been”.

Another type of helping verb is the modal verbs. Modal verbs are like helping verbs. They help sentences give special information, such as asking for permission, showing ability, giving advice, or expressing necessity. The common modal verbs are: “can”, “could”, “may”, “might”, “should”, “must”, “will”, “shall”, and “would”.

Kömekçi işlikleriň ýene bir görnüşi – modal işliklerdir. Modal işlikleri kömekçi işliklere meňzeşdir. Modal işlikleri sözlemlere rugsat soramaklyk, başarnygy görkezmeklik, maslahat bermeklik ýa-da zerurlygy görkezmeklik ýaly ýörite maglumatlary bermäge kömek edýärler. Iň köp duş gelýän modal işliklere “can”, “could”, “may”, “might”, “must”, “shall”, “should”, “will”, we “would” degişlidir.

The most common helping verbs – Iň köp ulanylýan kömekçi işlikler

“Be”

“Be” is an irregular verb. It is also one of the most commonly used words in English. It can be a main verb or a helping verb. “Be” has eight forms: *am, are, is, was, were, be, been, and being*. “Be” expresses a natural state, such as “the sky is blue”. It helps to make different verb tenses. And it makes passive sentences.

“Be” iň nädogry işlikdir. Şeýle-de ol iňlis dilinde iň köp ulanylýan sözleriň biridir. Bu işlik hem esasy, hem kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýar. “Be” işliginiň sekiz sany görnüşi bar: *am, is, are, was, were, be, been we being*. “Be” işligi tebigy ýagdaýy aňladýar, mysal üçin: “*The sky is blue.*” (Asman gök.) Ol dürli işlik zamanlaryny ýasamaga kömek edýär we gaýdym derejeli sözlemleri hem ýasaýar.

- Main verb (esasy işlik): Today **is** hot. (Bu gün yssy.)
- Helping verb (kömekçi işlik): I **am** running now. (Men häzir ylgayaryn.)
- Passive voice (gaýdym derejesi): The cake **was** eaten. (Tort iyildi.)

In the English language every sentence must have a verb, but if the sentence doesn’t have an action verb like *run, jump, think*, etc., it must have a helping verb “to be”. In Turkmen, every sentence doesn’t need a verb. For example, in Turkmen you would write “Asman gök”, but in English you should say “*The sky is blue*”.

Iňlis dilinde her sözlemiň işligi bolmalydyr, ýöne eger sözlemde *run, jump, “eat”, think, know*, we ş.m. ýaly hereketi aňladýan işlik bolmasa, onda bu sözlemde “to be” kömekçi işligi bolaýmalydyr. Türkmen dilinde her bir sözlemde işlik hökman däl. Mysal üçin, türkmen dilinde siz şeýle ýazarsyňyz “Asman gök”, emma iňlis dilinde bu sözlem şeýle bolar, “*The sky is blue*”.

The forms of “to be”: “To be” işliginiň görnüşleri:

	Infinitive	Present Simple	Past participle	Perfect participle	Progressive
	Nämälim	Häzirki zaman	Öten zaman	Gutarnykly zaman	Dowamly zaman
I	to be	am	was	been	being
You, we, they		are	were		
He, she, it		is	was		

“Do”

“Do” is used as an action verb and as a helping verb. When “do” is used as an action verb, it means “etmek” or “ýasamak”. When “do” is used as a helping verb, it helps to ask questions, give a positive answer, and give a negative answer in the present simple tense and in the past simple tense. “Do” has five forms: *do, does, did, doing, done*. Only the present and past tense forms are used as helping verbs.

“Do” işligi hem hereket işlik, hem-de kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýar. Haçan-da “do” hereket işlik hökmünde ulanylanda, ol etmek ýa-da ýasamak diýen manylary Haçan-da “do” kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylanda, ol ýönekeý häzirki we öten zamanlarda sorag bermäge, barlyk we ýokluk görnüşlerde jogap bermäge kömek edýär, “Do” işliginiň baş görnüşi bar: *do, does, did, doing* we *done*. Diňe öten we häzirki zamanlardaky görnüşleri kömekçi işlikler hökmünde ulanylýarlar.

- Main verb (esasy işlik): I **did** my homework. (Men öý işimi etdim.)
- Helping verb (kömekçi işlik): **Did** you eat your supper? (Sen agşamky naharyňy iýdiňmi?)

The forms of “do”: “Do” işliginiň gömüşleri:

	Infinitive	Present Simple	Past participle	Perfect participle	Progressive
	Nämälim	Häzirki zaman	Öten zaman	Gutarnykly zaman	Dowamly zaman
I, you, we, they	to do	do	did	done	doing
He, she, it		does			

“Have”

When used as an action verb, “have” shows a possession or lack of a possession (bar / ýok). But when it is used as a helping verb, “have” helps make obligatory sentences, and helps make the perfect sentences. “Have” has 4 forms:

have, has, had and *having*. “Have”, “has” and “had” are used as action verbs and helping verbs; “having” is only used as an action verb.

Haçan-da “have” hereket işlik hökmünde ulanylanda, ol sözlemde barlygy ýa-da yoklugy aňladýar. Haçan-da “have” kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylanda, ol mejbur ediji sözlemleri ýasamaga we gutarnykly zamany aňlatmaga kömek edýär, “Have” işliginiň dört görnüşi bar: *have, has, had* we *having*. “Have”, “has” we “had” hem hereket aňladýan işlik hem-de kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýarlar: “having” bolsa diňe hereket aňladýan işlik hökmünde ulanylýar.

- Action verb (hereket işligi): I **have** a dog. (Mende it bar.)
- Obligatory sentence (hökmanlyk sözlemi): I **have** to take my medicine. (Men dermanymy içmeli.)
- Perfect tense (gutarnykly zaman): I **have** eaten my supper already. (Men eýýäm agşamlyk naharymy iýdim.)

The forms of “have”: “Have” işliginiň gömüşleri:

	Infinitive	Present Simple	Past participle	Perfect participle	Progressive
	Nämälim	Häzirki zaman	Öten zaman	Gutarnykly zaman	Dowamly zaman
I, you, we, they	to have	have	had	had	having
He, she, it		has			

When you say you don’t have something, you must use the helping verb “do”. For example:

Haçan-da siz bir zadym ýok diýip aýtjak bolsaňyz, onda siz hökman kömekçi işligi “do” + “not” + “have” ulanmaly. Mysal üçin:

- I **do not** have a dog. (Mende it ýok.)
- I **did not** have a dog. (Mende it ýokdy.)
- He **does not** have a dog. (Onda it ýok.)

You only use “have not” with the perfect tenses, and the perfect tenses do not refer to possession.

Siz “have not” sözlerini diňe gutarnykly zamanda ulanýarsyňyz we gutarnykly zamanlar bolsa barlyk mana degişli däldir.

You might see the helping verb “have” and the action verb “have” in the same sentence. When the action verb form of “have” is in perfect tense, it is “had”. So you might see a sentence like: “He has had a cold for five days.” In that sentence “has” is the helping verb making the sentence perfect and “had” is an action verb showing possession.

Siz kömekçi “have” işligini we hereketi aňladýan “have” işligini bilelikde bir sözlemde görmegiňiz mümkin. Haçan-da hereket aňladýan “have” işligi gutarnykly zamanda bolsa ol “had” görnüşinde bolýar. Şeýlelikde, siz şuňa

meñzeş sözleme duşup bilersiňiz: “He has had a cold for five days”. Bu sözlemde “has” kömekçi işlik bolmak bilen sözlemi gutarnykly zamana öwürýär we “had” bolsa hereket işliginde ulanylmak bilen barlygy görkezýär.

Modal Verbs – Modal İşlikler

Modal verbs are like helping verbs. They help sentences give special information, such as asking for permission, showing ability, giving advice, or expressing necessity. The common modal verbs are: “can”, “could”, “may”, “might”, “should”, “must”, “will”, “shall”, and “would”. Every modal verb has a slightly different job. Look at these example sentences:

Modal işlikler hem kömekçi işlikler ýalydyr. Olar sözlemlere rugsat soramaklyk, başarnygy görkezmeklik, maslahat bermeklik ýa-da zerurlygy görkezmeklik ýaly ýörite maglumatlary bermäge kömek edýärler. Iň köp duş gelýän modal işliklere: “can”, “could”, “may”, “might”, “should”, “must”, “will”, “shall” we “would” degişlidir. Her bir modal işliginiň özüne mahsus dürli wezipesi bardyr. Mysallara serediň:

- Asking permission (rugsat soramaklyk): **May** I go outside?
- Showing ability (başarnygy görkezmeklik): She **can** drive a car.
- Giving advice (maslahat bermeklik): You **should** study English every day.
- Expressing necessity (zerurlygy görkezmeklik): He **must** clean his room.

Special rules for modal verbs – Modal işlikler üçin ýörite kadalar

Modal verbs must be followed by a present tense verb (form I); for example, “*I must sleep*”, or “*I can eat*”. That is, if the sentence is in past tense or future tense, the verb will still be in present tense (form I). However, if the sentence is in perfect tense, the following verb must be in perfect tense also (form III); for example, “*I should have slept*”, or “*I could have eaten*”.

Modal işlikleriň yzyndan häzirki zaman işliginiň 1-nji görnüşi gelmeli. Mysal üçin: “*I must sleep*”, ýa- da “*I can eat*”. Başga söz bilen aýdylanda, eger sözlem öten ýa-da geljek zamanda bolsa, işlik heniz hem häzirki zamanyň 1-nji görnüşinde bolar. Şeýle-de bolsa, eger sözlem gutarnykly zamanda bolsa, onda yzyndan gelýän işlik hem gutarnykly zamanyň 3-nji görnüşinde bolmaly; Mysal üçin: “*I should have slept*”, ýa-da “*I could have eaten*”.

When giving answers to a question, you can give short answers without the main verb. Look at the example dialogue:

Soraga jogap bereniňizde, esasy işligi ulanman gysga jogap berip bilersiňiz. Aşakdaky dialoga serediň:

A: “*Can you drive a car?*” B: “*Yes, I can.*”

In the response “drive a car” is understood. You could give the long answer, “*Yes, I can drive a car*”, but “*Yes, I can*”, is the short answer.

Bu jogapda “drive a car” maşyny sürüp bilýändigini düşnüklidir. Siz “*Yes, I can drive a car*” diýip doly jogap hem berip bilerdiňiz, ýöne “*Yes, I can*” onuň gysga jogabydyr.

Most modal verbs can be contracted with “not” in negative sentences; for example:

Modal işlikleriň köpüsi ýokluk görnüşde “not” sözi bilen gysgaldylyp bilner, mysal üçin:

- can not => can't
- should not => shouldn't
- will not => won't
- must not => mustn't
- could not => couldn't
- would not => wouldn't

When conjugating modal verbs in the present simple tense with a third person singular pronoun (he, she, it), you do not need to add an -s to the end of the modal verb or action verb (*drive, jump, eat, etc.*). For example, a normal sentence in simple present tense would be “*He drives a car*”. The verb “drive” has an -s at the end to show that the pronoun is third person singular. But when you add a modal verb, you do not need to add an -s to the end of the modal verb or main verb: “*He can drive a car*”.

This rule is also true when you use a modal verb and the helping verb, “have”. In sentences with third person singular pronouns (he, she, it), “have” usually becomes “has”. For example, “*He has been working*”. But when you add a modal verb, you do not need to change “have” to “has”. For example, “*He might have been working*”.

Haçan-da modal işliklerini ýönekeý häzirkä zamanda üçünji ýöňkemedäki birlik çalyşmaly (he, she, it) sözlemlerde ulananyňyzda, siz modal işlikleriniň ýa-da hereket aňladýan işlikleriň (*drive, jump, eat, we ş.m.*) soňuna -s goşulmasyny goşmaly däl. Mysal üçin, ýönekeý häzirkä zamandaky ýönekeý sözlem “*He drives a car*” bolardy. Çalyşmanyň üçünji ýöňkemedäki birlikdedigini görkezmek üçin “drive” işliginiň soňuna -s goşulmasy goşulýar. Emma haçan-da siz modal işligini goşanyňyzda, siz modal işlikleriniň ýa-da hereket aňladýan işlikleriň soňuna -s goşulmasyny goşmaly däl: “*He can drive a car*”.

Haçan-da siz modal işligini we kömekçi “have” işligini ulananyňyzda, bu kada şeýledir. Üçünji ýöňkemedäki birlik çalyşmaly (he, she, it) sözlemlerde “have” adaçça “has” sözüne öwrülýär. Mysal üçin: “*He has been working*”. Haçan-da modal işligini goşanyňyzda “have” kömekçi işligini “has” sözüne öwürmegiň geregi ýok. Mysal üçin: “*He might have been working*”.

Sentences with a modal verb don't have “to be” helping verbs. If the sentence uses “to be” as an action verb, it will be written as “be”. For example,

She can be charming. Or if the sentence is perfect tense, “to be” is written as “been”: *It must have been a bad thunderstorm to make so much damage.*

Modal işlikli sözlemleriň “to be” kömekçi işlikleri ýokdur. Eger sözlem “to be” işligini gymyldy-heraket aňladýan işlik hökmünde ulanýan bolsa, onda ol “be” diýlip ýazylar. Mysal üçin: *She can be charming.* Ýa-da eger sözlem gutarnykly zamanda bolsa, onda “to be” “been” hökmünde ýazylar: *It must have been a bad thunderstorm to make so much damage.*

Most modal sentences are only in past tense or present tense.

Modal işlikli sözlemleriň köpüsi öten ýa-da häzirki zamanda bolýarlar.

Can – Edip bilmek / başarmak

“Can” is similar to Turkmen’s “edip bilmek”. It has three uses: show ability, ask permission, and show possibilities. Look at these example sentences:

“Can” modal işligi türkmen dilindäki edip bilmek sözüne meňzeşdir. Onuň üç sany ulanyşy bar: başarnygy görkezmek, rugsat soramaklyk we mümkinçilikleri görkezmek. Bu sözlemlere serediň:

- Show ability (başarnygy görkezmek): “I **can** drive a car”.
- Ask permission (rugsat soramaklyk): “**Can** I play outside?” “Yes, you **can**”.
- Show possibilities (mümkinçilikleri görkezmek): “We **can** learn English”.

“Can” is not used in perfect sentences; “could” is used instead.

“Can” gutarnykly sözlemlerde ulanylmaýar, onuň ýerine “could ulanmaly
Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk		
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	can	drive.

Negative – Ýokluk		
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	cannot	drive.

Question – Sorag		
Can	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	drive?

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

A: Can you drive a motorcycle?

B: No, I can’t drive a motorcycle, but I can drive a car.

Could – Edip bilerdi / başarardy

“Could” is similar to “can”. You make sentences the same way, but it has a few differences in meaning:

“Could hem “can” ýalydyr. Siz sözlemleri şolar ýaly düzüp bilersiňiz, emma manysy boýunça onuň biraz tapawudy bar.

It is used to show ability in the past tense. Look at the example sentence: “*My mother **could** play the piano when she was a child*”.

Bu öten zamanda başarnygy görkezýär. Mysala serediň: “*My mother **could** play the piano when she was a child*”.

It is used to ask permission, but “could” is more polite than “can”. Look at the example dialogue:

Bu rugsat soramak üçin ulanylýar, emma “could” “can” işligine görä sypaýyrakdyr. Şu mysal dialoga serediň:

A: “**Could** you help me plant trees tomorrow?” B: “Yes, I **can**.”

Note: when giving a response to a question, you should use “can”.

Bellik: haçan-da soraga jogap bereňizde siz “can” sözüni ulanmaly.

It shows possibility in the present and future tenses, but “could” is more unlikely to happen than “can”. Look at the two sentences showing possibility with “can” and “could”:

Bu häzirki we geljek zamanlarda mümkinçiligi görkezýär, emma “could” sözüniň “can” söze garaňda boljagy-bolmajagy şubheliräk. “can” we “could” sözleri bilen ulanylyp mümkinçiligi görkezýän iki sany mysala serediň:

- “Can”: “*We **can** win the game*”. Bu sözlem ýeňişň bolmagy mümkindigini görkezýär.

- “Could”: “*We **could** win the game*”. Bu sözlem ýeňişň bolmazlygy mümkindigini görkezýär.

“Could” is used to create conditional sentences. For example, “*If I study English every day, I **could** go to America*”.

“Could” şertli sözlemlerini düzmek üçin ulanylýar. Mysal üçin, “*If I study English every day, I **could** go to America*”.

“Could” can also be used in the perfect tense with “could” and “have”. “Could have” shows that an action could have happened but didn’t, or it shows something contrary to the truth.

To make a sentence in perfect tense, you should add a pronoun + “could” + the perfect tense helping verb “have” + a main verb in the perfect tense (pronoun + “could” + “have” + perfect verb). For example, “*I **could have** gone to Turkey, if I had had a plane ticket*”. The sentence shows that if you had a plane ticket, the ability to go to Turkey may have come. Look at another example: “*It **could have** rained today*”. The sentence shows that rain had the ability to come, but it didn’t for whatever reason. Look at these example sentences showing the positive, negative, and questions forms of “could have”:

“Could” gutarnykly zamanda hem “could” we “have” sözleri bilen ulanylyp bilner. “Could have” öten zamanda hereketiň ýerine ýetirilen bolsa bolup biljekdigini aňladýar, emma ol bolmandyr ýa-da ol hakykata garşy zady görkezýär.

Gutarnykly zamanda sözlem düzmek üçin siz çalyşma + “could” + gutarnykly zamanyň “have” kömekçi işligini + gutarnykly zamanyň esasy işligini ulanmaly (çalyşma + “could” + “have” | gutarnykly işlik). Mysal üçin: “*I could have gone to Turkey, if I had had a plane ticket*”. Sözlemde eger uçar bileňiz bolan bolsady, Türkiýä gitmek mümkinçiligiňiz amala aşardy. Başga mysala serediň: “*It could have rained today*”. Bu sözlem ýagyşyň ýagyp biljekdigini, emma käbir sebäplere görä ýagmandygyny görkezýär. “Could have” sözünüň barlyk, ýokluk we sorag görnüşlerde sözlemlerde ulanylyşyna serediň:

- Positive (Barlyk): “I **could have** *seen* the movie, but I had to work”.
- Negative (Ýokluk): “I **couldn’t have** *finished* my homework, because I was ill”.

- Question (Sorag): “**Could** you **have** *come* sooner?”

The perfect form of “could” shows actions that began in the past and come up to the present. These sentences are sometimes conditional.

“Could” sözünüň gutarnykly zamanda ulanylmagy hereketiň öten zamanda başlap häzirki zamana çenli dowam edendigini görkezýär. Bu sözlemler käwagtlar şert sözlemleri hökmünde hem gelýärler.

Be able to – Başarmak

“Be able to” is similar to “can”. It shows ability. To make sentences with “be able to” you must conjugate “be” according to the pronoun and verb tense, then add “able”, and an infinitive verb, such as “to go”, “to see”, etc. (pronoun + correct tense of “be” + able + infinitive verb).

But “be able to” is used when a definite verb tense must be used, or when you show learned ability in the future (“can” has no future tense). An example sentence of a future learned ability is “*I will be able to speak English well after I study at the university*”. Also, unlike “can”, “be able to” can be used with every verb tense. Look at the example sentences in the different verb tenses:

“Be able” “can” modal işligine meňzeşdir. Bu başarnygy görkezýär. “Be able to” bilen sözlem düzmek üçin siz dogry çalyşma we işlik zamanyna görä “be” işligini üýtgedýärsiňiz, soňra “able” sözünü we “to go”, “to see” ýaly nämälim işligini goşmaly: (çalyşma + “be” işliginiň dogry zamany + able + nämälim işlik).

Emma “be able to” haçan-da belli bir işlik zamany ulanylmaly bolanda ulanylýar ýa-da geljekde öwrenilen başarnygyňyzy görkezmek üçin ulanylýar (“can” işliginiň geljek zamany ýokdur). Geljekde öwrenilen başarnygy görkezýän sözleme serediň “*I will be able to speak English well after study at the university*”. “Can” sözünden tapawutlykda, “be able to” hemme işlik zamanlary bilen ulanyp bilner. Dürli işlik zamanlarynda ulanylýan mysallara serediň:

Past tense – Öten Zaman

- They **were** able to go to the movie.
- They **were not** able to go to the movie.
- **Were** they able to go to the movie?

Future Tense – Geljek Zaman

- They **will be** able to go to the movie.
- They **will not be** able to go to the movie.
- **Will** they **be** able to go to the movie?

Present Tense – Häzirki Zaman

- He **is** able to go to the movie.
- He **is not** able to go to the movie.
- **Is** he able to go to the movie?

Perfect Tense – Gutarnykly Zaman

- She **has been** able to go to the movies.
- She **has not been** able to go the movies.
- **Has** she **been** able to go to the movies?

Conditional forms – Şertli sözlemler bilen ulanylýan görnüşi

“Be able to” is used in conditional sentences. Look at these example sentences:

“Be able to” şertli sözlemde ulanylýar. Şu mysallara serediň:

- If you study at the university, you **will be able to** learn English well.
- If I **was able to** sing well, I would be an opera singer.
- If I had a million dollars, I **would be able to** travel around the world.

May – Mümkin

“May” is similar to Turkmen’s “mümkin”. It is used to ask permission and show possibility. Look at the example sentences:

“May” türkmen diliniň “mümkin” diýen sözüne gabat gelýär. Bu rugsat soramak we mümkinçiligi aňlatmak üçin ulanylýar. Mysallara serediň:

- Permissions (rugsat): “**May** I go outside?”
- Possibility (mümkinçilik): “It **may** rain today”.

When talking about possibilities, “may” is not used to ask questions. Instead “can” and “could” are used. “May” is only used to ask permission. For example, “**May** I come in?”.

You can use “may” to make sentences that show a past possibility that is not yet certain. The sentence would be in perfect tense. To make the sentence, you add a pronoun + “may” + “have” + a perfect verb (form III). Look at the following dialogue:

Haçan-da mümkinçilik barada gürrüň edilende, “may” sorag soramak üçin ulanylmaýar. Oňa derek “can” we “could” ulanylýar. “May” dine rugsat soramak üçin ulanylýar. Mysal üçin: “**May** I come in?”.

Siz “may” sözüni heniz anyk bolmadyk öten zamanky mümkinçiligi görkezmek üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Sözlem gutarnykly zamanda bolar. Sözlem düzmek üçin, siz çalyşma + “may” + “have” + gutarnykly işligiň 3-nji görnuşini ulanmaly. Aşakdaky dialoga serediň:

A: *I have lost my keys. Have you seen them?*

B: *I may have seen them, but I don't remember.*

Notice that “B” person might have seen the keys in the past, but now he doesn’t know. – Bellik: Dialogdaky “B” adam açarlary öten zamanda gören bolmagy mümkin, ýöne häzir ol bilenok.

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk			
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	may	go.	

Negative – Ýokluk			
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	may	not	go.

Question – Sorag		
May	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	go?

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

A: **May** I go to Disney Land by myself?

B: No, you **may not**, but you **may** go to school with your sister.

Might – Mümkin

“Might” and “may” are similar. They both mean “mümkin”. But when “might” is used to show possibility, it is less likely to happen than “may”. Also, you usually do not use “might” to ask permission in the past tense; however, “could” is used more frequently.

“Might” we “may” meňzeşdir. Olaryň ikisi hem “mümkin” diýen manyny aňladýar. Emma haçan-da “might” mümkinçiligi görkezmek üçin ulanylanda, onuň “may” sözüne garaňda amala aşmak mümkinçiligi pesräkdir. Ondan başga-da, siz “might” sözünü öten zamanda rugsat soramak üçin ulanmaýarsyňyz, onuň ýerine köplenç “could” ulanylýar.

Look at the dialogue: Dialoga serediň:

A: *Will you go to Ashgabat today?*

B: *I **might not** go today, because the weather is bad. I **might** go tomorrow.*

“May” and “might” are frequently used to make conditional sentences. Look at the example sentences:

“May” we “might” şertli sözlemler düzmek üçin ýygy-ýygydan ulanylýarlar. Mysallara serediň:

- If the weather is nice tomorrow, I **may** go to Serdar Yoly.
- I **might** make a salad tomorrow for lunch, if I can find tomatoes at the bazar.

Should – Maly / -Meli

“Should” is an obligatory modal verb. It helps give advice or shows that something should be done. It is not as strong of advice as “must” or “have to”. Look at these example sentences:

Example Dialogue – Mysal DialogA: **Must** he eat his dessert?B: No, he **must** not eat his dessert; he must eat his vegetables first.

You can make perfect sentences using “must”. Those sentences show that an action was obligatory, but the outcome of the action is unknown. For example, *I **must** have seen her, but I don’t remember*. Notice, the helping verb “have” is put after the modal verb “must”. This form is never used to ask questions. Look at these other examples:

Siz “must” işligini ulanyp gutarnykly zaman sözlemlerini düzüp bilersiňiz. Ol sözlemler gymyldy-hereketiň hökmany bolandygyny görkezýär, ýöne gymyldy-hereketiň netijesi näbelli. Mysal üçin: *I **must** have seen her, but I don’t remember*. “Have” kömekçi işligi modal işliginden soň gelyändigine üns berin. Bu görnüş hiç wagt sorag bermek üçin ulanylmaýar. Şu beýleki mysallara serediň:

- It **must** have rained last night, but I was asleep.
- You **must** not have eaten if you’re so hungry.

Have to – İşligiň hökmanlyk görnüşi

“Have to” is used to show necessity. It is the same as “must”, but it is not a modal verb. To form sentences with “have to” you add “have” and an infinitive verb (“have” + infinitive verb). Also, since “have to” is not a modal verb, it can be easily used to show necessity in all of the verb tenses.

“Have to” zerurlygy görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Ol “must” modal işligine meňzeş bolsa-da, ol modal işlik däldir. “Have to” bilen sözlem düzmek üçin siz “have” we nämälim işligini ulanmaly (“have” + nämälim işlik). Ondan başga-da, “have to” modal işligi bolmanlygy üçin ol işlik zamanlarynyň hemmesinde zerurlygy görkezmek üçin ulanylyp bilner.

- Past tense (öten zaman): I **had to** work yesterday.
- Present tense (häzirki zaman): He **has to** work today.
- Future tense (geljek zaman): They **will have to** work tomorrow.
- Perfect tense (gutarnykly zaman): Ata **has had to** go to the doctor every day this week but not tomorrow.

In the above sentence “has” is the perfect tense helping verb, and “had” is the action verb showing possession.

Ýokardaky sözlemede “has” gutarnykly zamanyň kömekçi işligidir, “had” bolsa eýeçiligi görkezýän hereket işligidir.

If you make a conditional sentence with “have to”, you need to use the past tense form “had to”. For example, “*If I **had to** learn a language, I would learn English*”.

Eger siz “have to” bilen şertli sözlem düzseňiz, onda öten zamandaky görnüşi “had to” ulanmalysyňyz. Mysal üçin, “*If I **had to** learn a language, I would learn English*”.

Making sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk		
I, you, we, they	have	to study.
He, she, it	has	

Negative – Ýokluk				
I, you, we, they	do	not	have	to study.
He, she, it	does			

Question – Sorag			
Do	I, you, we, they	have	to study?
Does	he, she, it		

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog
A: Father, do I have to clean the yard?
B: No, you don't have to clean the yard, but you do have to study.

Don't forget! “Have” has many jobs. It can be used to show possession, it can show necessity, and it can be used as a helping verb for perfect tenses.

Ýatdan çykarmaň! “Have” işliginiň birnäçe wezipeleri bar. Ol eýeçiligi we zerurlygy görkezmek üçin hem-de gutarnykly zamanlarda kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylyp bilner.

- Possession (eýelik): I **have** homework.
- Necessity (zerurlyk): I **have to** do my homework.
- Perfect tense (gutarnykly zaman): I **have done** my homework.

When “have” is used to show necessity, it is conjugated as if it were a regular verb, not a helping verb. Look at the positive, negative, and question forms:

Haçan-da “have” zerurlyk manyny aňladanda, ol kömekçi işlik ýaly däl-de, dogry işlik ýaly üýtgeýär. Barlyk, ýokluk we sorag görnüşindäki sözlemlere serediň:

- Positive (barlyk): I **have to** clean my house.
- Negative (ýokluk): I don't **have to** clean my house.
- Question (sorag): Do I **have to** clean my house?

In those sentences “do” is used as the helping verb. In perfect sentences “have” is used as the helping verb, and so the sentences are conjugated differently. Look at the positive, negative, and question forms. Compare the structure of the necessity sentences and the perfect sentences. Look at where “have” is put:

Ýokardaky sözlemlerde “do” kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýar. Gutarnykly sözlemlerde “have” kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýar, şeýlelikde sözlemler her hili üýtgeýärler. Barlyk, ýokluk we sorag görnüşindäki sözlemlere

serediň. Zerurlyk we gutarnykly sözlemleriň düzülişini deňeşdiriň. “Have” sözüniň nirede goýulýandygyna serediň:

- Positive (barlyk): I **have** cleaned my house.
- Negative (ýokluk): I **have** not cleaned my house.
- Question (sorag): **Have** I cleaned my house?

Will

“Will” is commonly used to make sentences in the future tense, but it can also be used to give polite commands or offers, and it is used to mention natural laws.

“Will” geljek zaman sözlemlerini düzmek üçin giňden ulanylýar, emma ol hoşamaý buýruk ýa-da hödür etmek üçin we tebigy kadalary aýtmak üçin hem ulanylýar.

- Future tense – Geljek zaman: I **will** go to Ashgabat tomorrow.
- Polite commands – Hoşamaý buýruk: **Will** you help me?

Would

“Would” is often used to make conditional sentences and to show repetition in the past. But “would” is also used to ask permission and give polite requests.

“Would” köplenç şertli sözlemleri düzmek we gymyldy-hereketiň öten zamanda gaýtalanýandygyny görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Ondan başga-da, “would” rugsat soramak we hoşamaý görmüşde haýyş etmek üçin ulanylýar.

- Conditional sentence – Şertli sözlem: If I had a million dollars, I **would** visit many countries.
- Repetition in the past – Gymyldy-hereketiň öten zamanda gaýtalanmagy: Last summer, I **would** exercise every day.
- Request – Rugsat soramak: **Would** you help me?

Voice – İşlik Derejesi

Voice expresses whether the subject is active or passive; that is, whether the subject does the action or if the action is done to the subject. In English there are 2 voices: active and passive.

Işlik derejesi sözlemiň eýesiniň düýp ýa-da gaýdym derejededigini görkezýär, başga söz bilen aýdylanda gymyldy-hereketiň eýäniň ýerine ýetirýändigini ýa-da onuň sözleýjä (eýä) gaýdyp gelýändigini görkezýär. Inlis dilinde iki sany işlik derejesi bar: işligiň düýp derejesi we işligiň gaýdym derejesi.

Active Voice – İşligiň Düýp Derejesi

The active voice shows that the subject does the action. The usual sentence structure for an active sentence is: subject + predicate + object. Look at this example sentence.

Düýp dereje eýäniň gymyldy-herketi ýerine ýetirýändigini görkezýär. Düýp derejeli sözlemiň adaty gurluşy şundan ybarat: eýe, habar we doldurgyç. Şu sözleme serediň:

Eýe	<i>Habar</i>	<u>Doldurgyç</u>
Serdar	<i>ate</i>	<u>the palaw</u>

Passive Voice – İşligiň Gaýdym Derejesi

Passive voice is a sentence where the subject is unknown, unimportant, or is acted on by the object. Look at the example sentence: The palaw was eaten (Palowy iýildi). You don't know who ate the palow, because it's not important or not known.

Turkmen passive voice is constructed by adding the suffix -yl, -il, -ul, -ül after the verb stem: ýazdy + **yl** => ýazyldy

To make a passive sentence in English the object is put at the beginning of the sentence, a correct helping verb is added and the verb should be in the perfect tense (form III): object + helping verb + perfect verb (form III).

İşligiň gaýdym derejeli sözleminde sözlemiň eýesi näbelli, möhüm däl ýa-da gymyldy-herket diňe doldurgyç tarapyndan ýerine ýetirilýär. Şu sözleme serediň: The palow was eaten (Palow iýildi). Siz palowy kimiň iýendigini bilmeýärsiňiz sebäbi ol möhüm däl ýa-da näbellidir.

Türkmen dilinde gaýdym derejesi düýp işliginiň soňuna -yl, -il, -ul, -ül goşulmalarynyň goşulmagy bilen ýasalýar: ýazdy + **yl** => ýazyldy.

İnlis dilinde gaýdym derejeli sözlemi düzmek üçin doldurgyç sözlemiň başynda goýulýar, zyndan dogry kömekçi işligi gelýär, soňra bolsa işlik goýulýar ol bolsa gutarnykly zamanyň 3-nji görnüşinde bolmaly: doldurgyç + kömekçi işlik + gutarnykly işligi (3-nji görnüşi).

<u>Doldurgyç</u>	Kömekçi işlik	<i>Habar</i>
<u>The palaw</u>	was	<i>eaten</i>

Sometimes the subject is not known but if the subject is known, it is placed at the end of the sentence after the predicate. Also the preposition “by” is sometimes used to show who the action was done by. Look at this sentence:

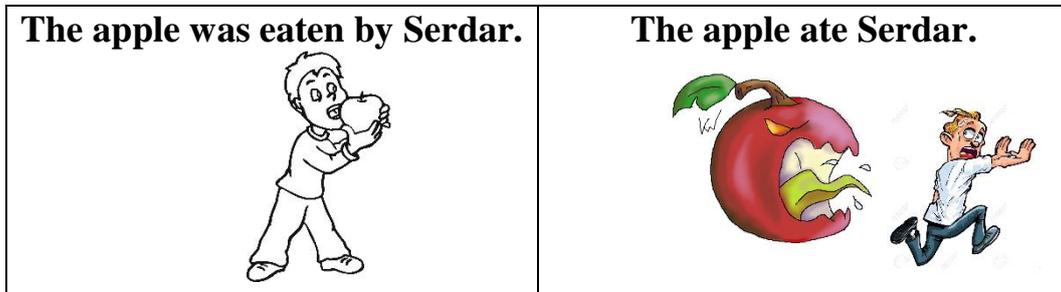
Käwagt sözlemiň eýesi näbellidir, emma sözlemiň eýesi belli bolsa onda ol sözlemiň ahyrynda habaryň zyndan goýulýar. “By” predlogy hem käwagtlar gymyldy-herketiň kim tarapyndan ýerine ýetirilendigini görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Şu sozleme serediň:

<u>Doldurgyç</u>	Kömekçi işlik	<i>Habar</i>	Eýe
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The palaw	was	eaten	by Serdar
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But be careful. You must add a helping verb and use the correct verb tense, or the meaning of the sentence may be very different. Look at these example sentences. One is correct and one is not:

Emma seresap boluň. Siz kömekçi işligi goşup dogry işligi ulanmaly, ýogsa sözlemiň manysy üýtgär. Su mysallara srediň. Biri dogry, biri ýalňyş.



Mood – İşlik Şekili

In the English language there are 3 moods: indicative (mälim şekili), subjunctive (zerulyk şekili), and imperative (buýurk şekili formasy).

İňlis dilinde 3 sany şekil aňladýan işlik bar: indicative (işligiň mälim şekili), subjunctive (işligiň zerulyk şekili), and imperative (işligiň buýruk şekili).

Imperative Mood (Commands) – İşligiň Buýruk Şekili (Buýruklar)

Imperative mood is used for commands and instructions. The subject “you” (sen) is not always stated but implied. The verb form is usually present participle (form I) except with the verb “to be” (bolmak). In English commands to one person or to a lot of people have the same form. But like Turkmen you can make your commands more polite.

İşligiň buýruk şekili buýruklarda we görkezmelerde ulanylýar. Sözlemiň eýesi “you” (sen) hemişe ýazylmaýar, ýöne sözlemde ol manyny öz içine alýar. “to be” (bolmak) işliginden galan hemme işlikler bilen buýruk şekili köplenç häzirki zamanyň 1-nji görnüşinde ulanylýar. İňlis dilinde bir adam bolsun ýa-da birtopar adam bolsun işligiň buýruk şekili meňzeşdir. Emma türkmen dilinde-de bolşy ýaly, buýruk sözlemleriňizi has mylaýym görnüşde hem aýdyp bilersiňiz.

Basic command – Esasy buýruk

When you’re making a basic imperative command, you are talking to someone in the first person (you). But in English when you’re giving a command, you don’t need to say “you”. You only need to say the verb that needs to be done: *Run! Jump! Sit down!* For example, a simple sentence (not a command) would be “*You go to school*”. To make that sentence a command you

remove the subject “you”. So the sentence becomes “*Go to school*”. Look at these other examples:

Haçan-da siz esasy buýruk bereniňizde, siz biri bilen birinji ýöňkemedede gürleşýärsiňiz ýagny (you) sözünü ulanýarsyňyz. Emma iňlis dilinde buýruk bereniňizde “you” diýmegiň hajaty ýok. Siz diňe ýerine ýetirilmeli işligi aýtmaly: *Run! (Ylga!), Jump! (Bök!), Sit down! (Otur!)*. Mysal üçin, buýruk däl-de esasy sözlem “*You go to school*” (*Sen mekdebe git!*) bolardy. Şol sözlemi buýruga öwürmek üçin sözlemiň eýesi “you” sözünü aýyrmaly. Şeýlelikde sözlem “*Go to school*” bolýar. Şu beýleki mysallarada serediň.

- **Үөү** do your homework! => Do your homework! (Öý işiňi et!)
- **Үөү** take the medicine! => Take your medicine! (Dermanyňy iç!)
- **Үөү** clean the house! => Clean the house! (Öýi arassala!)

Negative commands – Ýokluk buýruklar

For the negative form, use “do not” before the verb.

Ýokluk görnüşi üçin, işligiň öňünden “do not” sözlerini ulanyň.

- **Үөү** don’t read. => Don’t read! (Okamaň!).
- **Үөү** don’t talk. => Don’t talk. (Gürleşmäň!).
- **Үөү** don’t fight with each other. => Don’t fight with each other. (Biri-biriňiz bilen uruşmaň!).

Levels of commands – Buýruklaryň derejeleri

There are 5 main levels of commands based on politeness.

Edepliligiň esasynda buýruklaryň baş sany derejesi bolýar.

Impersonal – Eýesiz

The impersonal command (or basic command) is like the Turkmen command that uses only the verb stem without -mak / -mek. For example: *Oka! Yaz! Bol!* Different tones make the impersonal command stronger and more formal or less formal. Look at these examples:

Eýesiz buýruk (ýa-da esasy buýruk) edil türkmen dilindäki -mak / -mek goşulmasyz düýp sözünüň ulanylyşy ýaly buýruga meňzeşdir. Mysal üçin: *Oka! Yaz! Bol!* Dürli äheňler eýesiz buýruk sözler güýçlüräk, resmiräk ýa-da o diýen resmi däl görnüşlere öwürýärler. Şu mysallara serediň:

- Open the door! (Gapyny aç!)
- Don’t open the door! (Gapyny açma!)
- Read! (Oka!)
- Come to the board! (Tagtanyň ýanyna bar!)

The impersonal command can be made a little more polite by adding “please” at the beginning or end of the command.

Eýesiz buýrugy biraz mylaýym we edepli görnuşe öwürmek üçin buýruk sözlemiň başyna ýa-da soňuna “please” sözi goşulyp bilner.

- **Please** read. (Okaýyň.)
- **Please** bring your book. (Kitabyňyzy getiräýiň.)

- **Please** don't kick me. (**Haýyş edýän** meni urmaýyň.)
- Do your homework, **please**. (Öý işiňizi **edäýiň**, **haýyş edýän**.)
- Clean your room, **please**. (Otagyňyzy arassalaýyňda.)

More polite – Has hoşamaý (has edepli)

You can make more polite commands with “will” or “can”. A command with “will” or “can” is in the form of a question but a command is implied. It isn't really a question, but a request. It is expected that the request will be followed out. “Please” can be added at the end of the questions to make it more polite or to show that you really want this. Notice that for these commands you use “you”.

“Will” ýa-da “can” sözleriniň kömegi bilen has hoşamaý buýruk sözlemlerini döredip bilersiňiz. z. “Will” ýa-da “can” buýruklary sorag görnüşindäki sözlemlerde ulanylýarlar, şeýle-de bolsa olaryň buýrukdygy düşünilýär. Hakykata seretseň bu sorag däl-de haýyş bolup gelýär şonuň üçin bu haýyş ýerine ýetiriler diýip garaşylýar. “Please” sözi sözlemi has hoşamaý görkezmek üçin ýa-da siziň bir zadyň bolmagyny gaty isleýändigizi görkezmek üçin sözlemiň soňuna goşulyp bilner. Şu buýruklar üçin “you” sözünü ulanmalydygyňyza üns beriň.

- Will you show me your pictures? (Maňa suratlaryňyzy görkezip bilermisiňiz?)
- Can you draw me a picture, please? (Maňa surat çekip beräýiň?)
- Will you open the door? (Gapyny açayyň?)
- Can you open the door? (Gapyny açyp bilersiňizmi?)

Even more polite – Ondan hem has hoşamaý

You can make more polite commands with “would” or “could”. Polite commands with “would” or “could” is also in the form of a question. Again it isn't a question but a request that is expected to followed out. “Would” and “could” are considered more polite than “will” or “can”. “Please” can be added at the end of the questions to make it more polite or to show that you really want this.

“Would” ýa-da “could” sözleriniň kömegi bilen has hoşamaý buýruk sözlemlerini döredip bilersiniz. “Would” ýa-da “could” hoşamaý buýruklaryda sorag görnüşindäki sözlemlerde ulanylýarlar. Bu de bu sorag däl-de haýyş bolup gelýär we ol ýerine ýetiriler diýip garaşylýar. “Would” we “could” sözleri “will” ýa-da “can” sözlerinden has hoşamaý diýlip hasap edilýär. “Please” sözi sözlemi has hoşamaý görkezmek üçin ýa-da siziň bir zadyň bolmagyny gaty isleýändigizi görkezmek üçin sözlemiň soňuna goşulyp bilner.

- Could you tell me the time? (Sagady aýdyp bilermisiňiz?)
- Would you open the door? (Gapyny açyp beräýiň?)

Extremely polite – Örän hoşamaý

You can make an extremely polite request by using the phrase: “*Would you like to*” + an infinitive verb. The phrase is more of a suggestion than a question or request. It is still expected that the answer will be “yes” or the action will be carried out.

“*Would you like to*” + nämälim işlik jümlesini ulanyp siz örän hoşamaý haýyş sözlemine döredip bilersiňiz. Bu jümle soraga ýa-da haýyşa garanyňda hödür etmäge ýa-da teklipl etmäge has ýakynrak gabat gelýär. Ol “yes” (hawa) diýen jogaba garaşýar ýa-da gymyldy-herket ýerine ýetiriler diýip umyt edliýär.

- Would you like to sit? (Oturjakmysyňyz?)
- Would you like to stay longer? (Siz uzagrak galmak isleýärsiňizmi?)
- Would they like to drink tea? (Olaryň çay içesi gelýärmikä?)
- Would you like to open the door? (Gapyny açmak isleýäňmi?)

Making a suggestion – Teklip etmeklik

To make a suggestion or encourage group action you can use “Let’s” before a present participle verb (form I). This is similar to Turkmen structure -aly, -eli. Look at these examples.

Teklip etmek ýa-da topar bolup hereket etmäge goldaw bermek üçin siz häzirki zamanyň 1-nji görnüşiniň öňünden “Let’s” ulanmaly. Bu türkmen dilindäki -aly, -eli goşulmalaryna-da gabat gelýär Note: “Let’s” is the contraction of “let us”. Şu mysallara serediň.

- Let’s read! (Gel okaly!)
- Let’s go! (Gitdik!)
- Let’s dance! (Gel tans edeli!)

Subjunctive Mood – İşligiň Şert Şekli

Subjunctive mood is used for clauses and sentences that express possibility rather than actuality: something wished for, a request, or something contrary to fact (imaginary). The subjunctive mood can also be used in conditionals and with modal verbs (*might, could, should, would, must*).

Şert şekili hakykata garaňda has köp mümkinçiligi aňladýan sözlem böleklerinde we sözlemlerde ulanylýar. Ol arzuwy, haýyşy ýa-da hakykatyň tersine hyýaly zatlary aňladýar. Şert şekili şertli sözlemlerde we modal işlikleri (*might, could, should, would, must*) bilen ulanyp bilner.

- It might rain tonight.
- If I had a million dollars, I would travel the world.

Conditional sentences – Şertli sözlemler

Conditional sentences are usually written in simple present tense, past tense, and past perfect tense. The tense that is used indicates the meaning of the statement. Conditional sentences can use several different verb forms and modal verbs. The modal verb “would” is commonly used to make conditional

sentences, but most modal verbs can be used to make conditional sentences (could, might, should, etc.).

Şertli sözlemler adətə yönekey häzirki we öten zamanlarda we gutarnykly öten zamanda ýazylyarlar. Ulanylýan zaman bolsa sözlemde aýdylan sözüň manysyny görkezýär. Şertli sözlem birnäçe dürli işlik görnüşlerini we modal işliklerini ulanyp biler. “Would” modal işligi şertli sözlemi düzmek üçin köp ulanylýan işlikdir, yöne ondan başga-da (could, might, should we.ş.m.) modal işlikleri şertli sözlemi düzmäge ýardam edýärler.

<i>If I had a million dollars,</i>	I would buy a big house.
<i>Eger meniň bir million dollarym bolan bolsady,</i>	onda men uly öý satyn alardym.
<i>a conditional clause / şertli sözlem</i>	<i>the result clause / netije sözlemidir</i>

Simple present tense conditional statements – Ýönekey häzirki zamanyň şertli sözlemleri

When both the conditional clause and the result clause are in the simple present tense or the future tense, then the sentence is a fact or generalization.

Hem şertli sözlem hem-de netije sözlemi yönekey häzirki we geljek zamanlarda bolanlarynda, sözlem hakykata ýa-da umumlaşdyrma öwrülýär.

Present Tense – Häzirki zaman	Present Tense – Häzirki zaman
If A is true,	B is true.
If the sun is out,	the weather is warmer.
If you help me,	you are a true friend.
Present Tense – Häzirki zaman	Future Tense – Geljek zaman
If A is true,	B will be true.
If the sun is out,	the weather will be warmer.

After a conditional clause in the present, the independent clause can also be a command.

Häzirki zaman şertli sözlemiň yzyndan, eýerjeňli sözlem buýruk sözlemide bolup biler.

Simple Present – Ýönekey häzirki zaman	Command – Buýruk
If they go,	wait for me!
If you don't understand,	tell me.

When the conditional clause is in the simple present tense, and the independent clause uses “can”, “may”, “should”, “might”, and a form I of a verb (walk, eat, sleep, etc.), the sentence makes a prediction. If the conditional clause comes true, the independent clause is a logical guess as to what will happen.

Haçan-da şertli sözlem yönekey häzirki zamanda bolanda we eýerjeňli sözlem bolsa “can”, “may”, “should”, “might” modal işliklerini we häzirki zamanyň (walk, eat, sleep, we ş.m.) işlikleriniň 1-nji görnüşini ulananda, sözlem

çaklama manyny berýär. Eger şertli sözlemdäki gymyldy-hereket hasyl bolsa, eýerjeňli sözlem boljak zat baradaky logiki çaklama öwrülýär.

Present – Häzirki zaman	Modal Verb – Modal işlik
If A,	B can / may / should / might follow.
If Murat learns to drive,	he can drive his father’s car.
If we get permission,	we may go.
If I study a lot,	I should do well on the exam.
If they come,	they might stay for the night.

Past tense conditional sentences – Öten zaman şertli sözlemler

When the conditional clause is in the past tense and the result clause uses “could”, “might”, “would”, the conditional clause is unlikely to happen. If the unlikely event happens, the result clause states what will happen as a result.

Haçan-da şertli sözlem öten zamanda bolanda we netije sözlemi bolsa “could”. “might”, “would” sözlemi netijede näme bolup geçjekdigini görkezýär.

Past Tense – Öten zaman	Models – işlikler
If they tried,	they could do better.
If Amangui walked faster,	she might be there sooner.
If he read the newspaper,	he would know what is going on.
If Arzuw wasn’t late,	she would understand the lesson.

When you use a modal verb in a past tense sentence, the action verb that follows the modal verb will be in present participle (form I).

Haçan-da siz modal işligini öten zaman sözleminde ulananyňyzda, modal işliginiň zyzndan gelýän hereket işligi häzirki zamanyň 1-nji görnüşinde bolar.

Past perfect tense – Gutarnykly öten zaman

In conditional statements, the past perfect tense speculates about something that didn’t happen in the past. When the conditional clause is in the past perfect tense and the result clause has “could have”, “might have”, or “would have”, and a perfect verb (form III), then the conditional clause states something that didn’t happen in the past. And the result clause states the outcome that would happen in the past if the action occurred.

Şertli sözlemlerde, gutarnykly öten zaman bir zadyň öten zamanda bolmandygyny aňladýar. Haçan-da şertli sözlem gutarnykly öten zamanda bolanda, netije sözlemiň bolsa “could have”, “might have”, ýa-da “would have” modal işlikleri bolanda we gutarnykly öten zaman işliginiň 3-nji görnüşini ulananda, onda şertli sözlem bir zadyň öten zamanda bolmandygyny aňladýar. Netije sözlemi bolsa hereket amala aşan ýagdaýynda, netijede öten zamanda näme bolup biljekdigini görkezýär.

Past Perfect Tense Gutarnykly öten zaman	Past Perfect Tense + perfect verb Gutarnykly öten zaman + gutarnykly işlik
If they had gone to Lebak,	they could have seen the dinosaur footprints.
If Jemal had come earlier,	we might have been on time.
If I had won the lottery,	then I would have quit my job.

Note: When you use a modal verb in a perfect sentence, the action verb that follows the modal verb will be in perfect participle (form III): been, eaten, etc.

Bellik: Haçan-da siz modal işligini gutarnykly öten zaman sözleminde ulananyňyzda, modal işliginiň zyndan gelýän hereket işligi “been”, “eaten”, ş.m. gutarnykly zamanyň 3-nji görnüşinde bolar

“Were”

When you are talking about something in the present tense that is contrary to fact, not true, or impossible, you use “were”. When a conditional clause uses “were”, and the result clause is “could”, “might”, or “would” and a present participle verb (form I), then the conditional clause states something that is not true in the present, contrary to fact or imaginary.

Haçan-da siz hakykata garşy, nädogry ýa-da bolup bilmejek bir zat barada häzirki zamanda aýtsaňyz, “were” sözünü ulanmalysyňyz. Haçan-da şertli sözlem “were” sözünü ulananda we netije sözlemi bolsa “could”, “might” ýa-da “would” modal işliklerini we häzirki zamanyň işliginiň 1-nji görnüşini ulananda, onda şertli sözlem häzirki zamanda bolup bilmejek, hakykada garşy gelýän, hyýaly bir zady tassyklaýar.

“Were”	“could”, “might”, “would” + present participle
“Were”	“could”, “might”, “would” + işligiň 1-nji görnüşü
If we were going swimming,	I could wear my new bathing suit.
If he were nicer,	people might not be afraid of him.
If I were rich,	I would buy a house.

Unless – Eger ... bolmasa

“Unless” can be used in the place of “if” in the conditional clause. It means “if not”. “Unless” şertli sözleminde “if” sözünüň ýerine ulanylyp bilner. Bu “if not” (eger... bolmasa) manyny berýär.

- **Unless** you brush your teeth twice a day, you will get cavities. (Eger siz her gün dişiňizi iki gezek ýuwmasaňyz, dişiňizde köwek emele geler.)

- **If** you do **not** brush your teeth twice a day, you will get cavities. (Eger siz her gün dişiňizi iki gezek ýuwmasaňyz, dişiňizde köwek emele geler.)

- **Unless** they wear their coats, they will be cold. (Olar paltolaryny geýmeseler, üşärler.)
- **If** they **don't** wear their coats, they will be cold. (Eger-de olar paltolaryny geýmeseler, üşärler.)

Indicative Mood – Işligiň Mälim Şekili

Indicative mood is used for clauses, sentences, and questions about facts. That is, if a sentence states a fact, such as “Winter is cold”, then the sentence uses indicative mood.

Işligiň mälim şekili sözlem böleklerinde, sözlemlerde we soraglarda hakykaty görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Başga söz bilen aýdylanda, eger sözlem hakykaty aňladýan bolsa mysal üçin “Winter is cold”, onda sözlemde işligiň malim şekili ulanylýar diýmekdir.

- Summer is the hottest season.
- What is the coldest season of the year?

Verb Tenses – Işlik Zamanlary

A **verb** expresses an action, thought or a state of being. A **verb tense** shows when the verb occurred in time: the past, the present, or the future. **Mood** describes how speakers change verbs to express themselves: a statement, a command, a question, etc. **Perfect aspect** shows if an action finished. And **continuous aspect** (or progressive aspect) shows if an action continued over a period of time.

Işlik (verb) gymyldy-hereketi, pikiri ýa-da ýagdaýy aňladýar. **Işlik zamany (verb tense)** işligiň haýsy zamanda ýagny öten, häzirki ýa-da geljek zamanda bolup geçendigini aňladýar. **Işlik şekili (mood)** gepleýän adamyň özüni bildirmek üçin işlikleri nähili çalyşýandygyny ýagny ýagdaýy, buýrugy we sorag sözlemleri görkezýär. **Gutarnykly görnüş (perfect aspect)** gymyldy-hereketiň gutarandygyny ýa-da gutarmandygyny görkezýär. **Dowamly görnüş** bolsa (**continuous aspect** ýa-da **progressive aspect**) gymyldy-hereketiň belli bir wagtyň dowamynda dowam edendigini ýa-da etmändigini görkezýär.

So the verb tenses and different aspects combine to make other verbs tenses. These are the most important verb tenses:

Şeýlelikde, işlik zamanlary we dürli görnüşler goşulyp beýleki işlik zamanlaryny emele getirýärler. Şu aşakdakylar iň möhüm işlik zamanlarydyr:

- Present simple tense – Ýönekeý häzirki zaman.
- Past simple tense – Ýönekeý öten zaman.
- Future simple tense – Ýönekeý geljek zaman.
- Present progressive tense – Dowamly häzirki zaman.
- Past progressive tense – Dowamly öten zaman.
- Future progressive tense – Dowamly geljek zaman.

- Present perfect tenses – Gutarnykly häzirki zaman.
- Past perfect tense – Gutarnykly öten zaman.
- Future perfect tense – Gutarnykly geljek zaman.
- Present perfect progressive tense – Gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman.
- Past perfect progressive tense – Gutarnykly dowamly öten zaman.
- Future perfect progressive tense – Gutarnykly dowamly geljek zaman.

Helping verbs – Kömekçi işlikler

Every verb tense has one or more helping verbs.

Her bir işlik zamanynyň bir ýa-da birnäçe kömekçi işligi bolýar.

- Present simple tense: “do” and “does” – Ýönekeý häzirki zamanda: “do” we “does”.
- Past simple tense: “did” – Ýönekeý öten zamanda: “did”.
- Future simple tense: “will” – Ýönekeý geljek zamanda: “will”.
- Present progressive tense: “am”, “is”, “are” – Dowamly häzirki zamanda “am”, “is”, “are”.
- Past progressive tense: “was”, “were” – Dowamly öten zamanda “was”, “were”.
- Future progressive tense: “will” – Dowamly geljek zamanda “will”.
- Present perfect tenses: “have” and “has” – Gutarnykly häzirki zamanda “have” we “has”.
- Past perfect tense: “had” – Gutarnykly öten zamanda “had”.
- Future perfect tense: “will” – Gutarnykly geljek zamanda “will”.
- Present perfect progressive tense: “have” and “has” – Gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zamanda: “have”, “has”.
- Past perfect progressive tense: “had” – Gutarnykly dowamly öten zamanda: “had”.
- Future perfect progressive tense: “will have” – Gutarnykly dowamly geljek zamanda “will have”.

Simple Tense – Ýönekeý Zaman

Present simple tense – Ýönekeý häzirki zaman

Present simple tense describes a habit, a general truth, or a future action that will definitely happen. Look at these example sentences:

Ýönekeý häzirki zaman endigi, umumy hakykaty ýa-da gelejekde hökman bolup biljek gymyldy-hereketi aňladýar. Şu mysallara serediň:

- Habit (endik): I **run** everyday. (Men her gün ylgaýaryn.)
- General truth (umumy hakykat): The sky **is** blue. (Asman gök.)
- Future event (gelejekki waka): The train **leaves** at 2:00. (Otly sagat 2-de ugraýar.)

A habit would also include actions that are repeated several times for example, “*I eat three meals a day*”. But remember, you should not use the present simple tense to describe actions that are happening now; for that, you use present progressive tense: “*I am eating now*”. Because actions in simple present tense happen several times, they will often have time phrases (adverbs) that show how often they occur.

Endik birnäçe gezek gaýtalanyp gelýän gymyldy-herketi hem aňladýar, mysal üçin “*I eat three meals a day*”. Emma edil häzir bolup duran wakany suratlandyrmak üçin ýönekeý häzirkä zamany ulanmaly däldigiňizi ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň, onuň üçin siz dowamly häzirkä zamany ulanmalysyňyz: “*I am eating now*”. Ýönekeý häzirkä zamanda gymyldy-herketiň bimäçe gezek gaýtalanyp gelýändigini sebäpli wakanyň näçe gezek bolup geçýändigini görkezmek üçin wagat jümleleri (hallar) ulanylýar.

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
Every day	Her gün / günde
Always	Hemişe
Sometimes	Käwagt
Usually	Köplenç / adaty
Often	Yygy-yygydan / köplenç
Seldom	Seýrek
Never	Hiç haçan / hiç wagat
As a rule	Adat boýunça, hemişe
From time to time	Wagtal-wagtal

Making sentences – Sözlemleri düzmeklik

The structure of a present simple tense sentence is: pronoun + form I of a verb. Look at these examples:

Ýönekeý häzirkä zaman sözlemiň gurluşy: çalyşma + işligiň 1-nji görnüşi. Mysallara serediň:

- I walk. / You cook. / We eat. / They sleep.

Negative sentences – Ýokluk sözlemleri

The basic structure of a negative sentence is: pronoun + “do” + “not” + form I of a verb. “Not” is used in all verb tenses to make them negative. Look at these examples:

Ýokluk sözlemiň esasy gurluşy: çalyşma + “do” + “not” + işligiň 1-nji görnüşi. “Not” hemme zamanlary ýokluk gornüşe öwürmek üçin ulanylýar. Bu mysallara serediň:

- I do not walk. / You do not cook. / We do not eat. / They do not sleep.

Question sentences – Sorag sözlemler

Remember, to make questions in English, you switch the place of the pronoun and the helping verb.

İnlis dilinde sorag sözlemine düzmek için siz çalyşma bilen kömekçi işliginiñ yerini çalyşmalydygyňyzy ýadyňyzda saklaň.

So, let's make the sentence "You walk" into a question. First, you add the helping verb "do", so the sentence becomes "*You do walk*"; then, you switch the place of the pronoun and the helping verb, so the sentence becomes "*Do you walk?*" Look at the examples:

Geliň "*You walk*" sözlemine sorag sözlemine öwreliň. Ilki bilen, siz "do" kömekçi işligini goşmaly, şeýlelikde "*You do walk*" sözlemi emele gelýär, soňra bolsa çalyşma bilen kömekçi işliginiñ yerini çalyşyň, şeýlelikde "*Do you walk?*" sözlemi emele gelýär. Mysallara serediň:

Do I walk? Do you cook? Do they sleep?

Third-person singular pronouns – Üçünji ýöňkemedäki birlik çalyşmalar

Sentences with a third-person singular pronoun (*he, she, it*) must have an -s at the end of all positive verbs. For example, "*He walks*". Look at these examples:

Üçünji ýöňkemedäkl birlik çalyşmalary (*he, she, it*) sözlemlerde barlyk işlikleriniñ hemmesiniñ soňuna -s goşulmasy goşulýar. Mysal üçin: "*He walks*". Aşakdaky mysallara serediň:

He walks. She cooks. It eats. Ata sleeps.

Also, when a sentence with a third-person singular pronoun has the helping verb "do", an -s sound is added to "do", so it becomes "does". For example, "*He does not walk to school*". The rules for using "do" and "does" are very similar, but because "does" already has an -s sound, you do not need to add an -s sound to the end of the action verb! You shouldn't say "*He does not walks*" or "*Does he walks?*" Instead, you should say "*He does not walk*" and "*Does he walk?*"

Şeýle hem, haçan-da üçünji ýöňkemedäki birlik çalyşmaly sözlemiň kömekçi "do" işligi bolanda onuň yzyna -s goşulmasy goşulýar we "does" sözüne öwrülýär. Mysal üçin: "*He does not walk to school*". "Do" we "does" sözleriniñ ulanyş kadalary birmeňzeşdir ýöne "does" sözüniñ soňunda eýýäm -s goşulmasy bolanlygy üçin ol hereket işligine ýene-de -s goşulmasyny goşmagyň geregi ýok. Siz "*He does not walks*" ýa-da "*Does he walks?*" diýmeli däl. Olara derek siz "*He does not walk*", we "*Does he walk?*" diýmelisiňiz.

Look at these examples showing sentences with third-person singular pronouns: Çalyşmalary üçünji ýöňkemäniñ birliginde görkezýän şu mysallara serediň: *He walks to school everyday. She cooks palaw often. It does not eat food. Does Ata sleep at 11:00 every night?*

Look at the sentence structure for the present simple tense. The positive, negative, and question forms are shown with the verb "to walk".

Ýönekeý häzirki zamanda sözlem düzülişine serediň. Barlyk, ýokluk we sorag görnüşleri “to walk” işligi bilen görkezilendir.

Positive – Barlyk		Negative – Ýokluk				Question – Sorag		
I, you, we, they	walk.	I, you, we, they	do			Do	I, you, we, they	walk?
He, she, it	walks.	He, she, it	does	not	walk.	Does	he, she, it	

Example Text: My daily schedule

Every day I wake up at 7:30. I brush my teeth and take a shower, and at 8:30 I walk to school. I study at secondary school number 8 in Gypjak. I am at school from 8:30 to 12:30. At 1:00 I return home. After school I eat lunch. My mother usually cooks soup.

Mysal tekst: Meniň her günki gün tertibim

Men her gün sagat 7:30-da turýaryn. Men dişlerimi ýuwýaryn we suwa düşýärim we sagat 8:30-da mekdebe gidýärim. Men Gypjakdaky 8-nji orta mekdepde okaýaryn. Men sagat 8:30-dan 12:30-a çenli mekdepde bolýaryn. Sagat 1-de men öýe gelýärim. Mekdepden soň men günortanlyk naharymy iýýärim. Ejem adatça çorba bişirýär.

Past simple tense – Ýönekeý öten zaman

Past simple tense shows that an action occurred at a specific time in the past. Common time phrases for past tense are:

Ýönekeý öten zaman gymyldy-hereketiň öten zamanda belli bir wagtda bolup geçendigini aňladýar:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
Before, ago	Öň
Earlier	Irräk, öňräk
Yesterday	Düýn
The day before yesterday	Öňki gün
Last week	Geçen hepde
Last month	Geçen aý
Last year	Geçen ýyl
The other day	Ýaňy-ýakynda
Just now	Ýaňyja

Past tense verbs – Öten zaman işlikleri

Before you can understand how to make past tense sentences, you have to understand how to conjugate verbs in the past tense (form II).

Öten zamanda sözlemleriň düzülişine düşünmezden öň, siz öten zamanda (işligiň 2-nji görnüşinde) işlikleriň ýöňkemedä üýtgeýşine düşünmeli.

Regular and irregular verbs – Dogry we nädogry işlikler

There are two types of verbs: regular verbs and irregular verbs. To conjugate regular verbs into past tense, -ed is added to the end of the verb. For example, walk + ed = **walked**. Look at this example sentence: “*I **walked** to school*”.

But irregular verbs are conjugated differently. For example, the past tense form of eat is “ate”, so the sentence “*Ol palow **iydi***” would be “She **ate** palow”.

İşlikleriň iki görnüşi bardyr: dogry we nädogry işlikler. Dogry işlikleri öten zamanda üýtgetmek üçin, işligiň soňuna -ed goşulmasy goşulýar. Mysal üçin: walk + ed = **walked**. Şu mysala serediň: “*I **walked** to school*”.

Emma nädogry işlikler dürli-dürli üýtgeýärler. Mysal üçin “eat” sözünüň öten zamany “ate” bolýar, “*Ol palow **iydi***” sözlemi “*She **ate** palow*” diýlip aýdylýar.

Look at the differences between the past tense participles (form II) of regular verbs and irregular verbs:

Öten zamanyň dogry we nädogry ortak işlikleriniň (işligiň 2-nji görnüşi) arasyndaky tapawuda serediň:

Regular Verbs		Irregular Verbs	
Dogry işlikler		Nädogry işlikler	
Infinitive	Past Tense (Form II)	Infinitive	Past Tense (Form II)
Nämälim işlik	Öten zamanyň ortak işligi (2-nji görnüşi)	Nämälim işlik	Oten zamanyň ortak işligi (2-nji görnüşi)
to cook	cooked	to eat	ate
to learn	learned	to drink	drank
to walk	walked	to run	ran
to dance	danced	to sleep	slept

Spelling of regular verbs – Dogry işlikleriň dürs ýazuwy

If a regular verb ends in a -y or -e, the verb’s spelling must be changed. If the verb ends with a consonant and the letter -y, you should change the -y to an -i and add -ed: carry -y + i + ed = **carried** (“r” is a consonant). But if the word ends in a vowel and the letter -y, you should only add -ed: play + ed = **played** (“a” is a vowel). If the word ends in the letter -e, you only add a -d to the end of the word: dance + d = **danced**.

Eger dogry işlik -y ýa-da -e harpyna gutarsa, işligiň ýazylyşy üýtgedilmeli. Eger işlik çekimsiz harp we -y harpy bilen gutaryan bolsa, siz -y harpyny -i harpa öwürmeli we -ed goşulmasyny goşmaly. Mysal üçin: carry -y + i + ed = **carried** (“r” çekimsiz harpdyr). Eger söz çekimli harp we y harpy bilen gutaryan bolsa, siz diňe -ed goşulmasyny goşmaly. Mysal üçin: play + ed = **played** (“a” çekimli harpdyr). Eger söz -e harpyna gutarsa, siz sözüň soňuna diňe -d goşulmasyny goşmaly, mysal üçin: dance + d = **danced**.

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

The sentence structure of past tense: pronoun + form II of a verb. Look at these example sentences:

Öten zaman sözleminiň gurluşy: çalyşma we işligiň 2-nji gömüşi. Şu mysallara serediň:

- I **walked** to school yesterday.
- We **ate** a lot of her palaw earlier.
- She **cooked** palaw last week.
- They **slept** last night.

Negative sentences – Ýokluk sözfemler

The structure of a negative sentence is: pronoun + “did” + “not” + form I of a verb. Let’s negate the sentence “*I walked to school yesterday*”. First, you add the helping verb, “did”, and change the form II of a verb (walked) into a form I of a verb (walk). So, the sentence becomes “*I did walk to school yesterday*”. Then, add “not”, so the sentence becomes “*I did not walk to school yesterday*”. Look at these examples:

Ýokluk sözleminiň gurluşy şundan ybarat: çalyşma + “did” + “not” + işligiň 1-nji görnüşi. Geliň “*I walked to school yesterday*” sözlemini ýokluga öwreliň. Ilki bilen, siz “did” kömekçi işligini goşmaly we (walked) esasy işliginiň 2-nji görnüşi (walk) işliginiň 1-nji görnüşi öwürmeli. Şeýlelikde, sözlem “*I did walk to school yesterday*” bolar. Soňra bolsa “not” sözünü goşmaly, şeýlelikde “*I did not walk to school yesterday*” sözlemi emele geler. Şu mysallara serediň:

- She **did not** cook palaw last week.
- We **did not** eat a lot of her palaw earlier.
- They **did not** sleep last night.

The contraction of “did not” is “didn’t”. Look at the example sentences:

“Did not” sözüniň gysgaltmasy bolsa, “didn’t” bolýar. Mysallara serediň.

- They **didn’t** sleep last night.
- I **didn’t** walk to school yesterday.

Question sentences – Sorag sözlemleri

Remember, to make questions you switch the pronoun and helping verb. So the sentence structure for a past tense question is: “Did” + pronoun + form I of a verb. Look at the examples:

Sorag sözlem düzmek üçin siz çalyşma bilen kömekçi işligiň ýerini çalyşmalydygyny ýatdan çykarmaň. Şeýlelikde öten zaman sorag sözleminiň gurluşy şundan ybarat: “did” + çalyşma + işligiň 1-nji görnüşi. Mysallara serediň:

- **Did** you walk to school yesterday?
- **Did** you cook palow last week?
- **Did** you eat a lot of her palow earlier?
- **Did** they sleep last night?

Look at the sentence structure for the past tense. The positive, negative and question forms are shown with the verb “to cook”.

Öten zamanda sözlem düzülişine serediň. Barlyk, ýokluk we sorag görnüşleri “to cook” işligi bilen görkezilendir.

Positive – Barlyk		Negative – Ýokluk			Question – Sorag		
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	cooked.	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	didn't	cook.	Did	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	cook?

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

Ata: Did he cook palaw yesterday?

Bibi: No, he did not cook palaw yesterday. He cooked soup yesterday.

Example Text: What did you do yesterday?

Yesterday was Turkmenistan’s Independence Day. I woke up early, and my parents and I went to Ashgabat to see the parade. The parade was very interesting. There were many traditional Turkmen dancers, musicians, and beautiful floats. My family and I watched the parade until the end. Then we went to a restaurant to eat lunch.

Mysal Tekst: Siz düýn näme etdiňiz?

Düýn Türkmenistanyň Garaşsyzlyk günüdi. Men ir bilen oýandym we enem-atam bilen bilelikde Aşgabada parad görmäge gitdik. Parad örän gyzykly boldy. Paradda örän köp milli tansçylar, sazandalar we şarlar bardy. Men maşgalam bilen bilelikde parady soňuna çenli synladyk. Soňra biz restorana günortanlyk naharyny edinmäge gitdik.

Future simple tense – Geljek zaman

You use future tense to describe an action in the future. To make a sentence in future tense, you add “will” before form I of a verb. So the form is: pronoun + “will” + form I of a verb. For example:

Gelejekde bolup biljek gymyldy-hereke di suratlandyrmak üçin siz geljek zamany ulanmaly. Geljek zamanda sözlem düzmek üçin işligiň 1-nji görnüşiniň öňüne “will” sözüni goşmaly. Şeýlelikde: Çalyşma + “will” + işligiň 1-nji görnüşü. Mysal üçin:

- I will walk to Ashgabat tomorrow.
- You will cook palaw later.
- We will eat your palaw after that.
- They will sleep later tonight.

Sometimes you will hear people use “shall” for the future tense. British speakers say “shall” with the pronouns “I” and “we”. Look at these examples:

Käwagtlar siz adamlaryň geljek zaman üçin “shall” sözüni ulanýandygyny hem eşidip bilersiniz. Inlisler weli “shall” sözüni “I” we “we” çalyşmalary bilen aýdýarlar. Mysallara serediň:

- I **shall** walk to school tomorrow.

- We **shall** not eat at the new restaurant.
- **Shall** we go to the party?

Common time phrases: Umumy wagt jümleleri:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
Later	Soň, sonra, soňrak
After that	Ondan soň
Next	Indiki, soňra
Next month / Next year	Indiki aý / Indiki ýyl
Tomorrow	Ertir
The day after tomorrow	Birigün
One of these days	Ýakyn günlerde

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Future tense sentence structures for the positive, negative, and question forms are easy.

Geljek zamanda barlyk, ýokluk we sorag sözlemleriniň gurluşlary ýeňildir.

- Positive: pronoun + “will” + form I of a verb.
Barlyk: çalyşma + “will” + işligiň 1-nji gömüşi.
- Negative: pronoun + “will” + “not” + form I of a verb.
Ýokluk: çalyşma + “will” + “not” + işligiň 1-nji gömüşi.
- Question: “Will” + pronoun + form I of a verb + “?”.
Sorag: “Will” + çalyşma + işligiň 1-nji görnüşi + “?”.

Positive – Barlyk				Negative – Ýokluk				Question – Sorag		
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	eat.		I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	not	eat.	Will	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	eat?

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

A: Will you eat pizza tomorrow?

B: No, I will not eat pizza tomorrow. I will eat manty tomorrow.

“Going to” – İşligiň hyýallanma şekili “-makçy”, “-mekçi”

There is another way to make future sentences. You can use “going to” and a verb. For example, “*I am going to Ashgabat (tomorrow)*”. That sentence means the same as “*I will go to Ashgabat*”. To form a future sentence with “going to”, you add a *pronoun*, the correct helping verb, “going”, and an infinitive verb (pronoun + helping verb + “going” + infinitive verb).

Geljek zaman sözlemi düzmegiň ýene bir ýoly bar. Munuň üçin “going to” bilen işlik ulanmaly. Mysal üçin: “*I am going to Ashgabat (tomorrow)*” (*Men ertir Aşgabada gitmekçi*). Bu sözlem, “*I will go to Ashgabat*” (*Men Aşgabada giderin*) ýaly manyny berýär. Geljek zamanda “going to” ulanyp sözlem düzmek üçin, siz ilki çalyşma goşmagy, soňra dogry kömekçi işlik, “going” we ahyrynda nämälim işlik ulanmaly. (çalyşma I kömekçi işlik + “going” + nämälim işlik).

- I **am going to** walk.
- You **are going to** cook.
- He **is going to** eat.
- They **are going to** sleep.

Making sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk			
I	am	going	to sleep.
You,we, they	are		
He, she, it	is		

Negative – Ýokluk				
I	am	not	going	to sleep.
You,we, they	are			
He, she, it	is			

Question – Sorag			
Am	I	going	to sleep?
Are	you,we, they		
Is	he, she, it		

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog	
A:	Is he going to sleep later today?
B:	No, he is not going to sleep later today, because he is going to work.

If you use a past tense “to be” helping verb (was / were), you can say that you were going to do something but didn’t. For example, “*I was going to Ashgabat*”. This is similar to Turkmen’s grammatical structure, -mekçidim, -makçydym.

Eger siz “to be” kömekçi işligini “was” / “were” hökmünde öten zaman sözlemlerinde ulansaňyz, siz bir zady etmekçi bolandygyňyzy, emma ony etmändigizi habar berýärsiňiz. Mysal üçin: *I was going to Ashgabat*. Bu türkmen diliniň grammatikasyndaky -mekçidim, -makçydym goşulmalaryna gabat gelýär.

Continuous (Progressive) Tense – Dowamly Zaman

Present Continuous (Progressive) – Dowamly Häzirki Zaman

You use present progressive tense to show that an action is happening now. To make this tense you add a pronoun, a present tense “to be” helping verb (“am”, “is”, “are”), and a verb with an -ing ending (pronoun + “am”, “are”, or “is” + verb + -ing). For example:

Dowamly häzirki zaman gymyldy-hereketdň edil şu wagt bolup durandygyny görkezmek üçin ulanylýar. Bu zamanda sözlem düzmek üçin siz ilki çalyşma goşmaly, “to be” häzirki zaman kömekçi işligini (“am”, “is”,

“are”) we -ing goşulmaly işligi ulanmaly (çalyşma + “am”, “are” ýa-da “is” + işlik + -ing). Mysal üçin:

- I **am walking** to school now.
- My mother **is cooking** palov.
- They **are eating** soup now.
- They **are sleeping**.

Turkmen has a few words that can be written in present progressive tense. For example: *otyryn, yatyr*, etc. You could translate the sentence, “*He is sitting*”, to “*Ol otyr*”. But English’s progressive tenses are more commonly used.

Türkmen dilinde dowamly häzirkä zaman sözlemleri azrak sözlär bilen ulanylyp bolýar. Mysal üçin: *otyryn, ýatyr* we ş.m. “*He is sitting*” sözlemini “*Ol otyr*” diýip terjime edip bilersiňiz. Emma iňlis dilinde dowamly häzirkä zaman köp ulanylyandyr.

Common time phrases: Umumy wagt jümleleri:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
Now	Häzir
At this moment	Edil şu wagt
Look!	Seret!
Hear!	Gulak sal!
Still	Heniz hem (iýip otyr, ýatyr...)

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk		
I	am	running.
You, we, they	are	
He, she, it	is	

Negative – Ýokluk			
I	am	not	running.
You, we, they	are		
He, she, it	is		

Question – Sorag		
Am	I	running?
Are	you, we, they	
Is	he, she, it	

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

A: Is he running home now?

B: No, he is not running home now. He is walking home.

Stative verbs – Ýagdaý aňladýan işlikler

Stative verbs describe knowledge, perception and emotions, such as: “*know*”, “*understand*”, “*see*”, “*taste*”, etc. Stative verbs cannot be written in progressive tense. You shouldn’t say “*I am understanding you*”. Instead, you should say “*I understand you*”.

Ýagdaý aňladýan işlikler bilimi, düşünjäni, duýgylary ýagny “bilmek”, “düşünmek”, “görmek”, “eşitmek”, “datmak” we ş.m. aňladýar. Ýagdaý

aňladýan işlikler dowamly zamanda ýazylmaýarlar. Siz, “*I am understanding you*” diýmeli däl. Oňa derek, siz “*I understand you*” (*Men size düşünyärin*) diýmeli.

Knowledge Verbs – Bilim Aňladýan İşlikler

Verbs that show knowledge should not be written in progressive tense. Knowledge verbs are usually followed by a noun clause beginning with “that”.

Bilim aňladýan işlikler dowamly zamanda ýazylmaly dökdir. Bilim aňladýan işlikler adaçça “that” sözi bilen başlanýan at jümlesiniň önünden gelýärler.

- Believe (ynanmak): I **believe** that he is right.
- Know (bilmek): They **know** how to fix computers.
- Doubt (şübhelenmek): Agamurat **doubts** that his friend will be on time.
- Remember (ýada düşmek): We **remember** what our teachers told us.
- Think (piktr etmek): I **think** that she is smart.
- Understand (düşünmek): I **understand**.
- Imagine (göz önüne getirmek): Jennet **imagines** that she ll be a doctor when she grows up.
- Want (islemek): You **want** to help.

There are a few exceptions. When the verb “to feel” is being used as the physical meaning or about health, it can be used in progressive tenses. For example, “*I am feeling better*”.

Käbir kadadan çykmalar bar. Haçan-da “to feel” işligi fiziki manyda ýa-da saglyk barada ulanylanda, ony dowamly zamanda ulanyp bolýar. Mysal üçin: “*I am feeling better*”.

Sense and perception words – Duýgy we düşünje aňladýan sözler

Sense and perception verbs are also rarely used with progressive tenses.

Duýgy we düşünje aňladýan sözler hem dowamly zamanda seýrek ulanylýarlar.

- Hear (eşitmek): I **hear** you.
- Taste (tagamy bolmak): This apple **tastes** good.
- See (görmek): I **see** my mom.
- Notice (görmek, bilmek): I didn’t **notice** that it was cold outside.
- Smell (ys almak, ysly bolmak): You **smell** bad.
- Sound (owazly bolmak, ýaňlanmak): Turkmen music **sounds** really interesting.

Past progressive – Dowamly öten zaman

Past progressive tense describes an action that took place over a period of time in the past. To make the tense, you add a pronoun, a past “to be” helping verb (“was” or “were”), and a verb with an -ing ending (pronoun + “was” or

“were” + verb + -ing). For example, “*I was **playing** football when you came over*”.

Dowamly öten zaman gymyldy-herekediň öten zamanda belli bir wagtyň dowamynda bolup geçendigini aňladýar. Bu zamanda sözlem düzmek üçin siz ilki çalyşma goşmaly, “to be” öten zaman kömekçi işligini (“was” / “were”) we -ing goşulmaly işligi ulanmaly. (çalyşma + “was” ýa-da “were” + işlik + -ing). Mysal üçin: “*I was **playing** football when you came over*”.

- She *was* **cooking** when I arrived home.
- They *were* **eating** when you called.
- We *were* **sleeping** during the thunderstorm.

Common time phrases: – Umumy wagt jümleleri:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
At 5 o'clock yesterday	Düýn sagat 5-de
From 5 to 6	5-den 6-a çenli
All day long	Uzynly gün
The whole day	Uzynly gün
While	Entek (ça-çä)
When	Haçan-da

While *While I was **reading** a book, my father was **watching** TV.*

When *When I came home, my father was reading a book.*

When I was climbing the tree, I fell down.

Past progressive tense can be used to show that a past action was not completed or is no longer happening. For example, “*They were **trying** to buy a ticket to Turkmenabat*”. From the sentence you know that they were trying to buy a ticket for a long time in the past, but weren't able to buy a ticket, and are probably not trying to buy tickets now.

Also, you use past progressive tense to show that an action occurred in the past when another action occurred. For example, “*I was **trying** to buy a ticket when the power went out*”.

Dowamly öten zaman bolup geçen gymyldy-hereketiň tamamlanandygyny ýa-da indi dowam etmeyändigini görkezmek üçin ulanylyp bilner. Mysal üçin: “*They were **trying** to buy a ticket to Turkmenabat*” (*Olar Türkmenabada bilet almaga synanyşýardylar*). Şu sözlemden siz olaryň öten zamanda bilet almaga uzak wagtlap synanyşandyklaryny, emma bilet alyp bilmändiklerini we häzir belki bilet almaga synanyşmaýandyklaryny görýärsiňiz.

Ondan başga-da, dowamly öten zamanyny öten zamanda bir gymyldy-hereketiň bolup duran wagty başga gymyldy-hereketirt bolandygyny görkezmek üçin ulanmaly. Mysal üçin: “*I was **trying** to buy the ticket when the power went out.*” (*Men bilet aljak bolup durkam elektrik togy öçdi.*)

Making sentences – Sözlömleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk			Negative – Ýokluk				Question – Sorag		
I	was	waiting.	I	was	not	waiting.	Was	I,	waiting?
You, we they	were		You, we they	were			Were	you, we, they	
He, she, it	was		He, she, it	was			Was	he, she, it	

Example Dialogue – Mysal Dialog

A: Was he waiting for the bus when the rain started?

B: No, he wasn't waiting for the bus when the rain started. He was already on the bus.

Example Text: What were you doing when it started to rain?

When it started to rain, I was walking home. I didn't have an umbrella, so I got really wet. My friends were studying at school, so they didn't get wet. Now I have a cold.

Mysal tekst: Ýagyş ýagyp başlanda sen näme edip otyrdyň?

Ýagyş ýagyp başlanda, men öýe ýöräp barýardym. Meniň saýawanym ýokdy, şonuň üçin men gowy ezildim. Meniň dostlarym mekdepde okap otyrdylar şonuň üçin olar ezilmediler. Häzir men sowukladym.

Future progressive – Dowamly geljek zaman

Future progressive tense describes an action that will happen in the future over a period of time. To form it you add: a pronoun + “will” + “be” + verb + -ing. For example:

Dowamly geljek zaman gymyldy-herketiň geljekde belli bir döwrüň dowamynda boljakdygyny suratlandyrýar. Sözlem düzmek üçin: çalyşma + “will” + “be” + işlik + ing. Mysal üçin:

- I *will be walking*.
- They *will be eating* lunch at 12:00.
- She *will still be cooking* when we arrive.
- We *will be sleeping* during the flight.

You use the future continuous tense to talk about an action in the future that will be interrupted by another action. This is usually used with the relative pronoun “when”. Examples:

Siz dowamly geljek zamany bir gymyldy-herkediň geljekde bolup duran wagty başga bir herketiň oňa päsgel berjekdigini suratlandyrmak üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Bu köplenç “when” otnositel çalyşmasy bilen ulanylýar. Mysal üçin:

- I will be swimming *when* you come.
- She won't be working *when* you see her.
- He will be sleeping *when* they leave.
- They will be reading *until* 3 o'clock.

- I will be cooking *while* you will be watching television.

You use the future continuous tense to show the duration of an action in the future. Examples:

Siz dowamly geljek zamany gymyldy-herketiň geljekde dowamlylygyny bildirmek üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin:

- I will be driving from 3 to 6 tomorrow.
- I will be working all day long tomorrow.

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
At <u>5</u> o'clock tomorrow	Erte sagat 5-de
From <u>5</u> to <u>6</u>	5-den 6-a çenli
All day long	Bütün gün
The whole day	Bütün gün
<u>While</u>	<u>Entek (ça-çe)</u>
<u>When</u>	<u>Haçan-da</u>

Making sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk				
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	be	teaching.	

Negative – Ýokluk					
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	not	be	teaching.	

Question – Sorag			
Will	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	be	teaching?

Example Dialogue – Mysal dialog
A: Will you be teaching English from 5 to 6 tomorrow?
B: No, I will not be teaching English from 5 to 6 tomorrow. I will be teaching English from 7 to 8.

Perfect Tense – Gutarnykly Zamanlar

The perfect tenses are difficult for Turkmen speakers to understand, because Turkmen has no perfect tense, and the sentences cannot be accurately translated into Turkmen. To form all of the perfect tenses, you use a form of “have”, the perfect tense helping verb (“have”, “has”, “had”), and for most of the sentences you use perfect participles, the 3rd form of the verb (“*eaten*”, “*jumped*”, “*slept*”, etc.). Also, “for” and “since” are commonly used for the perfect tenses. “For” is similar to Turkmen’s -lap / -lap. You use “for” to show that something happened over a period of time. For example, “*I have lived in Gypjak for 2 years*”. “Since” is similar to Turkmen’s “bari”. You use “since” to

show that you did something from a specific time in the past. For example, “*I have lived in Gypjak since December, 2006*”.

Türkmen dilinde gepleýänler üçin gutarnykly zamanlara düşünmek kyn sebäbi türkmen dilinde hiç-hili gutarnykly zaman ýok we sözlemler türkmen diline jikme-jik terjime edilmeyär. Hemme gutarnykly zaman sözlemlerini düzmek üçin “have” kömekçi işligi ulanmaly (“have”, “has”, “had”) we köp sözlemlerde gutarnykly zamanyň ortak işliginiň 3-nji görnüşi (“*eaten*”, “*jumped*”, “*slept*” we ş.m.) ulanmaly. Ondan başga-da, “for” we “since” gutarnykly zamanda giňden ulanylýarlar. “For” türkmen dilindäki -lap / -lap goşulmalaryna meňzeşdir. Siz “for” sözünü bir zadyň belli bir wagtyň dowamynda bolandygyny görkezmek üçin ulanýarsyňyz. Mysal üçin, “*I have lived in Gypjak for 2 years*”. (*Men Gypjakda iki ýyllap ýaşadym*). “Since” türkmen dilindäki “bäri” sözüne meňzeşdir. Siz “since” sözünü bir zady geçmişde belli bir wagtdan bäri edýändigini görkezmek üçin ulanýarsyňyz. Mysal üçin, “*I have lived in Gypjak since December, 2006.*” (*Men Gypjakda 2006-njy ýylyň dekabryndan bäri ýaşadym.*)

Present perfect tense – Gutarnykly häzirki zaman

Present perfect tense describes an action that began in the past and continues up to the present. Example: “*Ata has lived in Ashgabat for 2 years*”. Ata began living in Ashgabat in the past, two years ago. And he is probably still living in Ashgabat, but you don’t know if he’ll continue to live in Ashgabat. To form, you add a pronoun + “have” or “has” + perfect participle. Don’t forget that you must conjugate irregular verbs differently! You use “have” for the pronouns “I”, “you”, “we”, and “they”. And you use “has” for the pronouns “he”, “she”, “it”.

In present perfect tense, the event may be finished, but if the event is finished, the event finished a short time ago. Look at this sentence: “*He has finished his homework*”. You know that he finished his homework recently. If the sentence were in simple past “*He finished his homework*”, you know that he finished his homework, but he could have finished it last week, yesterday, or recently. You use present perfect tense to describe people’s experiences. If you went to America, you can always say that you have been to America, so you would use present perfect tense.

Gutarnykly häzirki zaman gymyldy-herekediň öten zamanda başlap şu wagta çenli dowam edýändigini görkezýär. Mysal üçin: “*Ata has lived in Ashgabat for 2 years*”. Bu sözlemede Atanyň Aşgabatda öň, ýagny iki ýyl öň, ýaşap başlandygyny görkezýär. Ol heniz hem Aşgabatda ýaşayan bolmagy mümkin, ýöne siz onuň Aşgabatda ýaşamagyny dowam etjekdigini bilmeýärsiňiz. Gutarnykly sözlemi düzmek üçin çalyşma + “have” ýa-da “has” + gutarnykly ortak işligini ulanmaly. Nädogry işlikleri başga hili

üýtgetmelidigiňizi ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň. “Have” kömekçi işligini “I”, “you”, “we”, “they” çalyşmaları bilen ulanmaly. Emma “he”, “she”, “it” bilen “has” kömekçi işligini ulanmaly.

Gutarnykly häzirki zamanda waka gutaran bolmagy mümkin, emma waka gutaran hem bolsa, ol golaýda gutarypdyr. Şu sözleme serediň: “*He **has finished** his homework*”. Siz onuň öý işini golaýda gutaranyny bilýärsiňiz. Eger sözlem ýönekeý öten zamanda bolan bolsa “*He finished his homework*”, siz onuň öý işini gutarandygyny bilýärsiňiz, ýöne ol ony geçen hepde, düýn ýa-da golaýda gutaran bolmaly. Siz gutarnykly häzirki zamany adamlaryň başdan geçiren tejribelerini suratlandyrmak üçin hem ulanyp bilersiňiz. Eger siz Amerika giden bolsaňyz, siz hemişe Amerikada bolup gördüm diýip aýdyp bilersiňiz, şonuň üçin siz gutarnykly häzirki zamany ulanardyňyz.

Also, you use present perfect tense to describe habitual or continual actions. For example, “*They **have worn** glasses for 10 years*”. When you mention that you have seen or done something as an experience, you use present perfect tense. For example, “*I **have seen** the new movie*” and “*I **have been** to Turkey*”.

And you use present perfect tense to describe events that are occurring at an unspecified time in the past and continue to the future. For this, you use it with “ever” “never” and “before”. For example, “*I **have never seen** Moscow*”.

Ondan başga-da, siz gutarnykly häzirki zamany endik bolan ýa-da dowamly hereketleri suratlandyrmak üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin: “*They **have worn** glasses for 10 years*”. Haçan-da siz bir zady tejribe hökmünde gördüm ýa-da etdim diýjek bolsaňyz, onda siz gutarnykly häzirki zamany ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin: “*I **have seen** the new movie*” we “*I **have been** to Turkey*”.

Siz gutarnykly häzirki zamany wakalaryň öten zamanyň näbelli wagtynda bolup geçendigini hem-de geljekde-de dowam etjekdigini suratlandyrmak üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Şolar üçin siz “ever”, “never” we “before” sözlerini ulanyp bilersiňiz. Mysal üçin: “*I **have never seen** Moscow*”.

Look at these examples: Mysallara serediň:

- I *have* **walked** to school before.
 - They *have* **eaten** camel
 - He *has* **cooked** shashlik many meat.
 - She *has* **been** to America.
- times.

Common time phrases for the perfect tenses:

Gutarnykly zamanlar üçin köp ulanylýan wagt jümleleri:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
Yet (– / ?)	Entäk
Already (+)	Eýýäm
Since	Bäri

Ever	Haçan hem bolsa
Never	Hiç haçan / Hiç wagt
Just	Ýaňyja
Before	Öň
Recently, lately, of late	Soňky wagtlar
This week / month / year	Şu hepdede / şu aýda / ýylda
For	Haýsydyr wagtyň dowamynda

Making Sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk			Negative – Ýokluk				Question – Sorag		
I, you, we, they	have	lived.	I, you, we, they	have	not	lived.	Have	I, you, we, they	lived?
He, she, it	has		He, she, it	has			Has	he, she, it	

Example Dialogue – Mysal dialog

A: Have you lived in Gypjak for your whole life?

B: No, I haven't. I have only lived in Gypjak for 2 years.

Past perfect tense – Gutarnykly öten zaman

Past perfect tense indicates that one past event came before another. For example, “*He had finished the exam before the bell rang*”. Finishing the exam is one event, which came before the bell ringing. To form past perfect, you add: a pronoun + “had” + perfect participle (form III of a verb). Don't forget that you must conjugate irregular verbs differently!

Gutarnykly öten zaman bir wakanyň beýleki wakadan öň gelendigini görkezýär. Mysal üçin: “*He had finished the exam before the bell rang*”. Jaň kakylmazdan öň synagyň gutarmagy bir waka bolup durýar. Gutarnykly öten zamanda sözlem düzmek üçin, çalyşma + “had” + gutarnykly zamanyň ortak işliginiň 3-nji görnüşini ulanmaly. Nädogry işlikleri başga hili üýtgetmelidigiňizi ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň.

- I *had* already walked **home** before it started to rain.
- My mother *had* already cooked **lunch** before I arrived.
- We *had* never **eaten** an American hamburger.

Common time phrases for the perfect tenses:

Gutarnykly zamanlar üçin köp ulanylýan wagt Jümleleri:

Time Phrases	Wagt jümleleri
By	Haýsydyr wagta çenli
Since	Bäri

For	Haýsydyr wagtyň dowamynda
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Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk		
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	had	woken up.

Negative – Ýokluk			
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	had	not	woken up.

Question – Sorag		
Had	I, you we, they, he, she, it	woken up?

Example Dialogue – Mysai dialog	
A:	Had he woken up before 6:00?
B:	No, he hadn't woken before 6:00. He had woken up at 8:00.

Future perfect tense – Gutarnykly geljek zaman

Future perfect tense describes an action that will be completed by or before a specified in the future. For example, “*Ata will have finished this paper before they go to class*”. You know that Ata will finish the paper, and you know when they will go to class. And you know that Ata will finish the paper shortly before they go to class. To form, you add: pronoun + “will” + “have” + perfect participle. Don't forget that you must conjugate irregular verbs differently!

Gutarnykly geljek zaman geljekde gymyldy-hereke diň belli bir wagta golaý ýa-da öň tamamlanjakdygyny suratlandyrýar. Mysal üçin: “*Ata will have finished this paper before they go to class*” (*Olar sapaga girmezden öň Ata şu ýazuw işi ýazyp gutarar*). Siz Atanyň ýazuw işi basym gutarjakdygyny we olaryň haçan sapaga girjekdiklerini bilýärsiňiz. Sözlem düzmek üçin, siz “will” + “have” + gutarnykly zamanyň ortak işliginiň 3-nji görnüşini ulanmaly. Nädogry işlikleri başga hili üýtgetmelidigiňizi ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň! Şu mysallara serediň.

- I *will have* already **walked** home by the time you're ready.
- My mother *will have* already **cooked** lunch before we arrive.
- We *will have* **seen** the movie 10 times.
- They *will have* **slept** for several hours by 6 this morning.

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk				
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	have	finished.	

Negative – Ýokluk					
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	will	not	have	finished.	

Question – Sorag

Example Dialogue – Mysal dialog

Will	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	have	finished?	<p>A: Will he have finished his homework before school tomorrow?</p> <p>B: No, he will not have finished his homework before school tomorrow, because he is lazy.</p>
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Perfect Progressive Tense – Gutarnykly Dowamly Zaman

Present perfect progressive – Gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman

Present perfect progressive tense is similar to present perfect tense, because it describes an event that began in the past and comes up to the present. But unlike present perfect tense, present perfect progressive tense continues into the present. To form a sentence you use: pronoun + “have” or “has” + “been” + verb + -ing.

Gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman gutarnykly häzirki zamana meñzeşdir sebäbi ol wakanyň öten zamanda başlandygyny we şu wagta çenli dowam edendigini suratlandyrýar. Emma gutarnykly häzirki zamandan tapawutlykda, gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman şu wagtyň dowamynda-da dowam edýär. Sözlem düzmek üçin: çalyşma + “have” ýa-da “has” + been + gutarnykly zamanyň ortak işliginiň 3-nji görnüşini ulanmaly.

You use “have” for pronouns “I”, “you”, “we”, and “they”. You use “has” for pronouns “he”, “she” and “it”. And in the sentence “been” is the perfect form of “to be”. All progressive sentences use a form of “to be”. Also, because the sentence is progressive, all of the main verbs have “-ing” endings: regular and irregular verbs. For example:

“I”, “you”, “we”, “they” çalyşmalary üçin siz “have” kömekçi işligini ulanmaly. “He”, “she” we “it” çalyşmalary üçin bolsa “has” ulanmaly. Sözlemdäki “been” sözi bolsa “to be” işliginiň gutarnykly görnüşidir. Hemme dowamly zamanlardaky sözlemler “to be” işliginiň görnüşini ulanýarlar. Elbetde, sözlem dowamly zamanda bolanlygy üçin hemme dogry we nädogry esasy işlikleriň soňuna “-ing” goşulmasy goşulýar. Mysal üçin:

- I *have been walking* for 2 hours.
- They *have been cooking* the soup since early this morning.
- He *has been eating* for 30 minutes, which is a long time.
- You *have been sleeping* for too long. Wake up!

Look at these other example sentences: “*David has been working for two hours*”. David began working two hours ago; he worked for two hours; and he is still working now. You don’t necessarily know when the action began or will end. Look at the sentence again: “*David has been working for two hours, and hasn’t finished yet*”. The first part of the sentence is present perfect progressive, and the second part of the sentence is present perfect.

Başga mysallara-da serediň: “*David has been working for two hours*”. David iki sagat öň işläp başlapdyr, ol iki sagatlap işläpdir we ol heniz hem işläp otyr. Hawa siz herekediň haçan başlap haçan gutarjagyny bilmeýärsiňiz. Yene-de sözleme serediň: “*David has been working for two hours, and hasn't finished yet*”. Sözlemiň birinji bölegi gutarnykly dowamly häzirki zaman, emma ikinji bölegi bolsa gutarnykly häzirki zaman.

Making Sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk				
I, you, we, they	have	been	driving.	
He, she, it	has			

Negative – Ýokluk				
I, you, we, they	have	not	been	driving.
He, she, it	has			

Question – Sorag				
Have	I, you, we, they	been	driving?	
Has	he, she, it			

Example Dialogue – Mysal dialog				
A: Has your son been driving long?				
B: No, he hasn't been driving long. He's only been driving for 6 months.				

Past perfect progressive tense – Gutarnykly dowamly öten zaman

Past perfect progressive tense describes an action that happens over a period of time in the past and was completed before another specified time in the past. To form a sentence you write: pronoun + “had” + “been” + verb + -ing. For example:

Gutarnykly dowamly öten zaman gymyldy-hereketiň öten zamanda belli bir döwürüň dowamynda bolandygyny we öten zamanda başga bir kesgitli wagtdan öň tamamlanandygyny aňlatmak üçin ulanylýar. Sözlem düzmek üçin: çalyşma + “had” + been + işlik + -ing ulanmaly.

- I *had been walking* home for 10 minutes when it started to rain.
- My aunt *had been cooking* for an hour when we arrived.

Look at this sentence: “*John and Jason had been reading Pushkin before the electricity went out*”. You are trying to see when one action occurs in relation to another in the past; for example, *What were John and Jason doing before the electricity went out?* You know that John and Jason began reading Pushkin some time before the electricity went out, maybe one or two hours, and continued reading until the power went out, because the verb in progressive. But they stopped reading when the power went out, because there was no light.

Şu sözleme serediň: “*John and Jason had been reading Pushkin before the electricity went out*”. Siz öten zamanda bir gymyldy-hereketiň beýleki gymyldy-herekete baglylykda haçan bolýandygyny görmäge çalyşýarsyňyz. Mysal üçin, Jon bilen Jeýson elektrik togy açmezden öň name edip otyrdylar?

Siz Jon bilen Jeýsonyň elektrik togy öçmezden birnäçe wagt öň Puşkiniň eserlerini okamaga başlandyklaryny bilýärsiňiz, belki bir ýa iki sagat öňdür, we tä elektrik togy öçýänçä okamaklaryny dowam etdirendiklerini bilýärsiňiz. Sebäbi mysalda ulanylan işlik dowamly zamanda ulanylýar.

Making sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk				
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	had	been	studying.	

Negative – Ýokluk				
I, you, we, they, he, she, it	had	not	been	studying

Question – Sorag				
Had	I, you, we, they, he, she, it	been	studying?	

Example dialogue – Mysal dialog				
A: Had you been studying for a long time when I came?				
B: No, I hadn't. I had only been studying for a short time when you came.				

Future perfect progressive tense – Gutarnykly dowamly geljek zaman

Future perfect progressive tense describes an action that happens during some time in the future; that action will continue for a time, and it will be completed before another specified time (event) in the future. To form a sentence you write: pronoun + “will” + “have” + “been” + verb + -ing. For example:

Gutarnykly dowamly geljek zaman geljekde bir wagtyň dowamynda boljak gymyldy-herketi suratlandyrýar. Ol şol hereketiň wagtlaýyn dowam etjekdigini we onuň geljekde başga belli bir wagtda boljak wakadan öň tamamlanjakdygyny suratlandyrýar. Sözlem düzmek üçin: çalyşma + “will” + “have” + “been” + işlik + -ing ulanmaly.

- I *will have been walking* for 5 hours before the sun comes up.
- My mother *will have been cooking* for 2 days before the wedding begins.
- They *will have been studying* for many days by the exam.

Look at this sentence: “John **will have been playing** football for 2 hours before his dad comes home”. You are trying to see when one action occurs in relation to another in the future. You know that John began or will begin playing football before his dad comes home. That means that at some unknown time John will begin playing football, and two hours later his dad will come. Also, because the verb is progressive it means that John will be playing for a period of time.

Şu sözleme serediň: “*John will have been playing football for 2 hours before his dad will come home*” (“*Kakasy gelyänçä Jon iki sagatlap futbol oýnap duran bolar*”). Siz geljekde bir gymyldy- hereketiň beýleki gymyldy- herekete baglylykda haçan boljakdygyny görmäge çalyşýarsyňyz. Siz kakasy gelmänkä Jonuň futbol oýnamaga başlandygyny ýa-da başlamakdygyny bilýärsiňiz. Bu näbelli bir wagtda Jonuň futbol oýnap başlamakdygyny we iki sagat soňra onuň kakasynyň geljekdigini aňladýar. Şeýle hem, işligiň dowamlylyk zamanda ulanylandygy Jonuň belli bir wagtyň dowamynda futbol oýnajakdygyny aňladýar.

Making sentences – Sözlemlerin düzülişi

Positive – Barlyk					
I,	you,				
we,	they,	will	have	been	playing.
he,	she,	it			

Negative – Ýokluk						
I,	you,					
we,	they,	will	not	have	been	playing.
he,	she,	it				

Question – Sorag				
	I,	you,		
Will	we,	they,	have	been playing?
	she,	it		

Example Dialogue – Mysal dialog	
A:	Will they have been playing since 3:00 when I arrive?
B:	No, they won't. They will have been playing since 2:30, half an hour earlier.

Verbals – İşlikden Ýasalan Sözler

“Verbals” are verb forms that have different jobs in a sentence. The verbal may work as a noun or adjective. Look at this sentence: *I like eating*. In the sentence, “like” is the verb and “eating” is the verbal. “Eating” is a verb, but in this sentence it acts like a noun. The verbals are “infinitives” and “gerunds”.

“İşlikden ýasalan sözler” sözlemde dürli işi ýerine ýetirýärler. Bular işlikden ýasalan at ýa-da sypat görnüşinde hem gelip bilerler. Şu sözleme serediň: *I like eating*. Sözlemde “like” işlik we “eating” işlikden ýasalan atdyr. “Eating” işlik, emma şu sözlemde at hökmünde gelyär. “Nämälim işliker” we “Gerundlar” işlikden ýasalan sözler hasaplanýar.

Infinitive Verbs – Nämälim İşlikler

Infinitive verbs are the base of the verb: “to run”, “to walk”, “to sleep”, etc. The infinitive form of the verb “to + verb” is similar to Turkmen’s infinitive “verb + mak / mek”. Usually the infinitive form of the verb is the same as the present tense. “To be” is the only exception.

Nämälim işlikler “to run”, “to walk”, “to sleep” we ş.m. sözler bolmak bilen düýp işlikler bolup durýarlar, Nämälim işliginiň “to + işlik” gurluşy, türkmen dilindäki nämälim işliginiň gurluşyna meňzeşdir ýagny “işlik + mak / mek”. Adatça nämälim işliginiň gurluşy häzirki zamana hem meňzeşdir. Diňe “to be” ýeketäk kadadan çykýan işlikdir.

Note: Infinitive verbs are never used as actual verbs in a sentence.

Bellik: Nämälim işlikler sözlemde hiç wagt gymyldy-hereket aňladýan işlik bolup gelmeýärler.

You can use infinitives like nouns to express that you would like to do something or that something is easy or hard to do.

Siz bir zady etmek isleýändigizi ýa-da bir zady etmegiň ýeňil ýa-da agyrdygyny aňlatmak üçin nämälim işliklerini atlar ýaly ulanyp bilersiňiz.

- I like **to eat** oranges. (Men apelsin **iýmegi** halaýaryn.)
- It is not difficult **to speak** English. (İňlis dilinde **geplemek** kyn däl.)

This grammar is similar to Turkmen’s use of infinitives.

Bu grammatika türkmen dilindäki nämälim işliginiň ulanylyşyna meňzeşdir.

- I like **to watch** TV. (Men telewizor **görmegi** halaýaryn.)

You can also use infinitives as the subject or object of the sentence, and at that time it functions like a noun, adjective, or adverb.

Ondan başga-da siz nämälim işliklerini sözlemiň eýesi ýa-da doldurgyjy hökmünde ulanyp bilersiňiz we şonda ol at, sypat ýa-da hal ýaly wezipeleri ýerine ýetirýär.

• Subject (Eýe): **To know** me is to love me. (Meni **bilmek** meni söýmek diýmekdir.)

• Object (Doldurgyç): I like **to read** English books. (Men iňlis dili kitaplaryny **okamagy** halaýaryn.)

Also, you use infinitives with phrases that begin with “it is” and an adjective.

Şeýle hem, siz nämälim işliklerini “it is” bilen başlaýan jümleler we sypat bilen ulanyp bilersiňiz.

For example: Mysal üçin:

- *It is* hard **to play** chess. (Küşt **oýnamak** kyn.)
- *It is* fun **to play** football. (Futbol **oýnamak** hezil.)

Gerunds – Gerundlar (İşliklerden Ýasalan Atlar)

Gerunds are -ing verbs that are used as nouns. Gerunds name actions. Gerunds are used very similarly to infinitives. For example:

Gerundlar -ing goşulmaly işlikler bolup, at hökmünde ulanylýarlar. Gerundlar hereketleri atlandyrýarlar we olar nämälim işliklerine çalymdaş ulanylýarlar. Mysal üçin:

- **Smoking** is bad for health. (**Çilim çekmeklik** saglyk üçin zyýanly.)

They can be used as the subject or object of a sentence.

Olar sözlemiň eýesi ýa-da doldurgyjy hökmünde-de ulanylyp bilner.

- Subject (Eýe): **Eating** vegetables is good for health. (Gök önümleri **iýmeklik** saglyk üçin peýdaly.)

- Object (Doldurgyç): I like **eating** vegetables. (Men gök önümleri **iymegi** halaýaryn.)

Often the usage of an infinitive verb or a gerund depends on the grammar of the sentence or the verb being used. In most sentences you can use a gerund or an infinitive interchangeably. You should generally use gerunds after prepositions. For example:

Köplenç gerundy ýa-da nämälim işligi ulanmaklyk sözlemiň grammatik gurluşyna ýa-da ulanylýan işlige bagly bolýar. Siz köp sözlemlerde gerundy ýa-da nämälim işligini biri-biriniň deregine ulanyp bilersiňiz. Umuman, siz gerundy predloglardan soň ulanmaly. Mysal üçin:

- **After** studying English, I want to go to England. (İňlis dilini öwrenenimden **soň**, Angliýa gidesim gelýär).

Note: “After” is the preposition. It means “soň”.

Bellik: “After” predlogdyr. Onuň manysy “soň” diýmekdir.

Also, do not confuse gerunds with other verbs that end with “-ing”.

Ondan başga-da gerundy beýleki “-ing” ýagny türkmençedäki “-ýar”, “-ýär” goşulmalary bilen gutarýan işlikler bilen garyşdyрмаň.

- Gerund (Gerund): **Running** is good for health. (**Ylgamak** saglyk üçin peýdalydyr.)

- Verb (İşlik): I am **running**. (Men **ylgaýaryn**.)

English Sentence Structure – İňlis Dilinde Sözlemleriň Gurluşy

Every English sentence must meet two requirements: first, it must have a subject and a verb; second, it must be a complete thought. Sentences must also begin with a capital letter and end with a period, question mark, or an exclamation point.

Sentences have different parts that must be arranged in a specific order to make sense. The way the parts of speech are arranged into a sentence is called **sentence structure**. All of the parts of speech have specific places inside a sentence, and when their places are changed, the meaning of the sentence is also changed. You can put different parts of speech in different places to make statements, make negative statements, ask questions, make passive voice, etc.

İňlis diliniň her sözlemi iki talaby ýerine ýetirmeli. Birinjiden, onuň eýesi we işligi bolmaly. Ikinjiden bolsa, ol gutarnykly pikiri aňlatmaly. Sözlemler baş harp bilen başlap nokat, sorag belgisi ýa ýüzlenme belgisi bilen gutarmaly.

Belli bir tertipde goýlup many aňlatmak üçin sözlemleriň dürli agzalary bolýar. Söz topartarynyň sözlemde tertip boýunça goýulmagyna **sözlemleriň**

gurluşy diýilýär. Söz toparlarynyň hemmesiniň sözlemiň içinde öz belli orunlary bolýar we olaryň ýerleri üýtgedilende, sözlemiň manysyda üýtgeýär. Barlyk, ýokluk, sorag we işligiň gaýdym derejesi we ş.m. bilen bagly sözlemleri düzmek üçin dürli söz toparlaryny dürli ýerlerde goýup bilersiňiz.

Parts of a sentence – Sözlem agzalary

Subject – Eýe

The **subject** is what the sentence is about. A **simple subject** is the noun or pronoun. The **compound subject** consists of the simple subject and all of its modifiers (adjectives, articles, quantifiers, etc.). To find the subject, ask “who” and “what”. Look at these two sentences:

Eýe sözlemiň näme barada gidýändigini aňladýar. **Sada eýe** at ýa çalyşma bolup biler. **Goşma eýe** sözlemde sada eýeden we ony aýyklarap gelýän hemme agzalardan (sypatlar, artikler, mukdarlar, ş.m.) ybaratdyr. Sözlemiň eýesini tapmak üçin “who” ýa-da “what” diýen soraglary beriň. Aşakdaky iki sözleme serediň:

Sada eýe: He eats palaw. **Goşma eýe:** My best friend eats palaw.

Predicate – Habar

The **predicate** tells what the subject is doing. The **simple predicate** is the main verb. The **compound predicate** is the main verb, the helping verb, and all the words that modify the verb.

Habar eýäniň näme edýändigini görkezýär. **Sada habar** esasy işlikdir. **Goşma habar** bolsa esasy işlik, kömekçi işlik we işligi aýyklarap gelýän hemme sözlerdir.

Sada habar: He eats palaw. **Goşma habar:** He is quickly eating palaw.

Don't forget! Every English sentence must have a verb. If the sentence doesn't have an action verb like “run,” “jump”, etc., then it must have a “to be” helping verb (am, is, are, was, were etc.). In Turkmen every sentence doesn't need a verb; you could say “*Bu gün yssy*”. But in English you can't say “*Today hot*”. That would not be correct. You should say “*Today is hot*”. “Is” is a “to be” helping verb.

Ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň! Iňlis dilinde her bir sözlemiň işligi bolmalydyr. Eger sözlemde gymyldy-herketi aňladýan “run”, “jump” ýaly işlikler bolmasa, onda hökman “to be” (“am”, “is”, “are”, “was”, “were”, we ş.m.) kömekçi işligi bolmaly. Türkmen dilinde hemme sözlemlerde işligiň bolmagy zerur däl, siz “*Bu gün yssy*” diýip bilersiňiz. Emma welin iňlis dilinde “*Today hot*” diýilmeyär, Ol sözlem ýalňyş bolardy. Siz “*Today is hot*” diýmeli. “is” bu ýerde “to be” kömekçi işligidir.

Object – Doldurgyç

The **object** is to whom or to what the subject is acting on. Objects are usually nouns, pronouns, infinitives, or gerunds. Like the subject and verb, objects can be simple or compound.

Sözlemiň eýesiniň kime we nämä täsir edýändigini görkezýän sözlere **doldurgyç** diýilýär. Doldurgyçlar köplenç atlar, çalyşmalar, nämälim işlikler ýada gerundlar bolup gelýärler. Eýe we işlik ýaly, doldurgyçlar hem ýönekeý we çylşyrymly bolup bilýärler.

Sada doldurgyç: He eats **palaw**.

Goşma doldurgyç: He eats **tasty and hot palaw**.

There are also direct objects and indirect objects. A **direct object** shows what the subject acted on. The **indirect object** shows to whom the object was given.

Göni baglanýan we göni baglanmaýan doldurgyçlar hem bardyr. **Göni baglanýan doldurgyç** sözlemiň eýesiniň nämä hereket edendigini görkezýär. Göni baglanmaýan doldurgyç bolsa doldurgyjyň kime berlendigini görkezýär.

	Göni baglanýan doldurgyç	<u>Göni baglanmaýan doldurgyçlar</u>
My mother gave	the palaw	<u>to me.</u>

In English direct objects can come before or after the indirect object. Look at the example sentences:

Iňlis dilinde göni doldurgyçlar göni baglanmaýan doldurgyçlardan öň we soň gelip bilýärier. Aşaky sözlemlere serediň:

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object	Indirect Object
Eýe	Işlik	Göni baglanmaýan doldurgyç	Göni baglanýan doldurgyç	Göni baglanmaýan doldurgyç
Serdar	gave	<u>her</u>	a book	
Serdar	gave		a book	<u>to her</u>

If the indirect object has a preposition, it should go after the direct object. Also if the direct object is a pronoun, the indirect object is after the direct object.

Eger göni baglanmaýan doldurgyjyň predlogy bar bolsa, ol göni baglanýan doldurgyjyň zyndan gelmeli. Şeýle-de, eger göni baglanýan doldurgyç çalyşma bolsa, göni baglanmaýan doldurgyç göni baglanýan doldurgyjyň zyndan goýulýar.

- Baymyrat gave **it** to Sahara.
- Aylar bought them **for her mother**.

Phrase – Jümle

A phrase is a group of words that doesn't have either a subject or verb. There might be a subject and not a verb, or there might be a verb and not a subject. Phrases act like a part of speech: noun phrase, adjectival phrase, adverbial phrase, prepositional phrase, and verb phrase.

Eýesi ýa-da habary bolmadyk söz toparyna jümle diýilýär. Sözlemiň eýesi bolup habary bolmazlygy mümkin ýa-da habary bolup eýesi bolmazlygy mümkin. Jümleler söz toparlary ýagny at jümlesi, sypat jümlesi, hal jümlesi, predlog jümlesi we işlik jümlesi hökmünde hyzmat edýärler.

Noun phrase – At jümlesi

A noun phrase includes a noun and its modifiers. It can be the subject, or object, or both in a sentence.

At jümlesi ady we ony aýyklar gelýän sözleri öz içine alýar. Ol sözlemde eýe, ýa doldurgyç ýa-da ikisi hem bolup biler.

Subject	Predicate	Object
Eýe	Habar	Doldurgyç
Agahan	baked	a delicious chocolate cake
Begench, my brother	is	a very smart young man

Verb phrase – İşlik jümlesi

A verb phrase is the word or words used to show meaning, tense, mood, and voice of the action in the sentence. The verb phrase includes the main verb, the helping verb and any other words that modify the verb.

İşlik jümlesi söz ýa-da sözlerden ybarat bolup sözlemdäki gymyldy-herkedeň manysyny, zamanyny we derejesini aňladýar. İşlik jümlesi esasy işlikden, kömekçi işlikden we işligi aýyklar gelýän beýleki sözlerden ybaratdyr.

- Wepa **found** his notebook.
- Wepa **has found** his notebook.
- Maya **is going** to her
- Please **read**.

Adverbial phrase – Hal jümlesi

An adverbial phrase is a phrase that is used as an adverb to modify the verb. There are two kinds of adverbial phrases.

Hal jümlesi diýip, sözlemde işligi aýyklar gelmek üçin hal hökmünde ulanylýan jümlä aýdylýar. Hal jümlesiniň iki görnüşi bar.

An adverb describing an adverb is an adverbial phrase. Notice that in the example sentences, “very” modifies “quickly” and “rather” modifies “beautifully”.

Haly häsiýetlendirýän hala hal jümlesi diýilýär. Üns beriň aşakdaky sözlemlerde “very” “quickly” sözünü aýyklar gelýär we “rather” bolsa “beautifully” sözünü aýyklar gelýär.

- She works **very quickly**.
- He plays the dutar **rather beautifully**.

A prepositional phrase can act as an adverbial phrase if it modifies the verb.

Predlog jümlesi işligi aýyklar gelýän bolsa hal jümlesi ýaly hereket edip biler.

- They waited **for twenty minutes**.

“For twenty minutes” is a prepositional phrase, but it modifies the verb “waited”. Therefore, it is also an adverbial phrase.

“For twenty minutes” predlog jümlesidir, ýöne ol “waited” işligini aýyklar gelýär. Şol sebäpli, ol hem hal jümlesi hasaplanýar.

Prepositional phrase – Predlog jümlesi

A prepositional phrase includes a preposition followed by a noun or noun phrase that acts as the object. Predlog jümlesinde predlog, onuň zyndan bolsa doldurgyç hökmünde hereket edýän at ýa-da at jümlesi gelýär.

- Baygeldi put the bread **on the table**.
- My aunt went **to the bazaar**.
- Merjen’s long brown hair was **in two beautiful braids**.

Clause – Sözlem

A clause is a group of words that has both a subject and a verb. The 2 main kinds of clauses are the independent clause and the dependent clause.

Hem eýesi hem habary bolan söz toparlaryna “clause” sözlem diýilýär. Sözlemiň esasy iki görnüşi bar: baş we eýerjeň sözlemler.

Independent clause – Baş sözlem

An independent clause has both a subject and a verb. A single independent clause is the same as a sentence. Independent sentences can be very simple. For example: “*Cats eat*”. The sentence has a subject “cats” and the sentence has a verb “eat” so it is an independent sentence.

Phrases are added to sentences to make them longer. Look at how the sentence “*Cats eat*” has phrases added to it to make it longer.

Baş sözlemiň hem eýesi hem-de habary bar. Ýeketäk baş sözlem sözleme meňzeşdir. Baş sözlemler örän sada bolup bilerler. Mysal üçin: “*Cats eat*”. Bu sözlemiň “Cats” diýen eýesi bar we “eat” diýen işligi bar, şeýlelikde bu baş sözlem hasaplanylýar.

Sözlemleri uzynrak etmek üçin jümleler goşulýar. “*Cats eat*” diýen sözleme uzynrak bolmagy üçin jümleler goşulanda nähili bolandygyna serediň.

Noun phrase – At jümlesi = my friend’s cats Verb phrase – İşlik jümlesi = are eating Adverb phrase – Hal jümlesi = very quickly Prepositional phrase – Predlog jümlesi = on the table	My friend’s cats are eating very quickly on the table
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Don’t forget! If a sentence doesn’t have an action verb (run, jump, sleep), it must have a “to be” verb (am, is, are, etc.) to be independent.

Ýadyňyzdan çykarmaň! Eger sözlemiň gymyldy-hereketi aňladýan işligi (run, jump, sleep) bolmasa, onda baş sözlem bolmak üçin onuň “to be” işligi bolmaly.

- Today **is** hot.
- I **am** cold.

Dependent clause – Eýerjeň sözlem

Dependent clauses are also called **subordinate clauses**. A dependent clause cannot make a complete sentence. It must be attached to an independent clause. Look at these dependent clauses:

Eýerjeň sözleme eýerjeňli goşma sözlemler (“subordinate clause”) hem diýilýär. Eýerjeň sözlem özbaşyna gutarnykly sözlem bolup bilmeyär. Bu baş sözleme bagly bolmaly, Şu aşakdaky eýerjeň sözlemlere serediň:

- ... who called on the telephone;
- When they went to Gokje;
- If we had an ice cream machine.

Some conjunctions, called subordinating conjunctions, make independent clauses dependent. Pay attention to these conjunctions: “although”, “after”, “because”, “if”, “since”, “in order that”, “when”, “while”, etc. You can combine independent clauses with other independent clauses, or you can combine independent clauses with dependent clauses. And an independent clause can have more than one dependent clause.

“**Eýerjeňli baglaýjylar**” diýip atlandyrylýan käbir baglaýjylar baş sözlemleri eýerjeň edýärler. Şu baglaýjylara üns beriň: “although”, “after”, “because”, “if”, “since”, “in order to”, “when”, “while” we ş.m.

Siz baş sözlemleri beýleki baş sözlemler bilen baglap bilersiňiz ýa-da baş sözlemleri eýerjeň sözlemler bilen baglap bilersiňiz. We baş sözlemiň birden hem köp eýerjeň sözlemi bolup biler,

- Jennet is the teacher... (2) and she lives in Abadan.
- Jennet is the teacher... (2) who called on the telephone.
- Jennet is the teacher... (2) who called on the telephone... (3) while I was sleeping.

Making sentences – Sözlemleriň düzülişi

In English the basic structure for a positive sentence is: subject + predicate + object. Look at the example sentence:

İňlis dilinde barlyk sözlemiň ýönekeý gurluşy eýe + habar + doldurgyçdan ybaratdyr. Şu sözlemlere serediň:

Subject	<i>Predicate</i>	<u>Object</u>
Eýe	<i>Habar</i>	<u>Doldurgyç</u>
He	<i>eats</i>	<u>soup</u>

English sentence structure is very different from Turkmen sentence structure. Turkmen sentence structure is: subject + object + predicate.

İňlis dilindäki sözlemleriň gurluşy türkmen dilindäki sözlemleriň gurluşyndan örän tapawutlydyr. Türkmen dilindäki sözlemleriň gurluşy eýe + doldurgyç + habardan ybaratdyr.

Eýe	Doldurgyç	Habar
Olar	çorba	içip otyrlar.

The English sentence structure is known as the **Subject-Predicate** sentence pattern. It is the most basic sentence pattern in the English language. The predicate gives a lot of information. There are 4 main patterns for the predicate.

Bu **Eýe-Habar** (“**Subject-Predlcate**”) sözlemi diýlip tanalýar. Bu iňlis dilinde iň esasy sözlem nusgasydyr. Sözlemiň habary örän köp maglumat berýär. Habaryň dört sany esasy nusgasy bar.

1.

Subject	Verb
Eýe	Habar
We	ate.
Biz	iýdik.

2.

Subject	Helping verb	Object
Eýe	Kömekçi işlik	Doldurgyç
Guljermal	is	a student.

Note: a complement has many meanings, but in grammar it is a word that is necessary to complete the verb. A complement describes the subject.

Bellik: “complement” (“doldurgyç”) sözüniň köp manysy bar, ýöne grammatikada işligi tamamlamak üçin ulanylýar. “Doldurgyç” sözlemiň eýesini suratlandyrýar.

3.

Subject	Verb	Object
Eýe	Habar	Doldurgyç
I	bought	a pencil.

4.

Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
Eýe	Habar	Göni baglanýan doldurgyç	Göni baglanmaýan doldurgyç
They	told	us	the news.

These parts of a sentence can be one word or many words long. Compare the English sentence to Turkmen sentence, and look at where the parts of speech are placed. Also, look at how adjectives and adverbs go before the nouns and verbs in English.

Bu sözlem agzalary bir ýa-da birnäçe sözden ybarat bolup bilerler. İňlis sözlemini türkmen sözlemi bilen deňşdiriň we söz toparlarynyň nirede goýlandygyna serediň. Ondan başga-da, sypatlar bilen hallaryň iňlis dilinde atlaryň we işlikleriň öňünden nähili gelişlerine serediň.

English – İňlis dili

Eýe	<i>Habar</i>	<u>Doldurgyç</u>
My good friends	<i>are quickly eating</i>	<u>delicious hot soup</u>

Turkmen – Türkmen dili

Eýe	<u>Doldurgyç</u>	<i>Habar</i>
Meniň gowy dostlarym	<u>tagamly gyzgyn çorbany</u>	<i>çalt içip otyrlar.</i>

Using helping verbs – Kömekçi işlikleriň ulanylyşy

Every verb tense has a helping verb.

Her bir işlik zamanynyň kömekçi işligi bolýar.

Verb Tense	Noun	Helping verb	Action verb
İşlik zamany	At	Kömekçi işlik	Hereket işligi
Ýönekey häzirki zaman	I	do	walk.
Ýönekey öten zaman	They	did	walk.
Ýönekey geljek zaman	You	will	walk.
Dowamly häzirki zaman	We	are	walking.
Gutarnykly häzirki zaman	Ata	has	walked.
Modal işlik	She	must	walk.

Note: Simple present tense and simple past tense do not usually use their helping verbs in positive sentences.

Bellik: Ýönekey häzirki zaman we ýönekey öten zaman köplenç kömekçi işliklerini barlyk sözlemlerde ulanmaýarlar.

Making negative sentences – Ýokluk sözlemleriniň düzülişi

To make a negative sentence, you add the correct helping verb + “not” + the main verb. “Not” is used to negate all sentences; it is similar to “däl”. And this form (helping verb + “not” + main verb) is also used to negate all of the verb tenses and modal sentences. But remember, the helping verb must be in the correct verb tense. Look at these example sentences:

Ýokluk sözlemni düzmek üçin, dogry işlik + “not” + esasy işligi goşmaly. “Not” hemme sözlemleri ýokluk görnüşe öwürmek üçin ulanylýar we bu “däl” diýen söze meňzeşdir. Bu görnüş (kömekçi işlik + “not” + esasy işlik) hem hemme işlik zamanlaryny we modal sözlemlerini ýokluk görnüşe öwürmek üçin ulanylýar. Emma kömekçi işliginiň dogry işlik zamanında bolmalydygyny ýadyňyzda saklaň. Şu sözlemlere serediň:

Verb Tense	Noun	Helping verb	Negation	Action verb
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Işlik Zamany	At	Kömekçi işlik	Yokluk	Hereket işligi
Simple Present Tense Ýönekey häzirki zaman	I	do	not	walk.
Simple Past Tense Ýönekey öten zaman	They	did	not	walk.
Simple Future Tense Ýönekey geljek zaman	You	will	not	walk.
Present Progressive Tense Dowamly häzirki zaman	We	are	not	walking.
Present Perfect Tense Gutarnykly häzirki zaman	Ata	has	not	walked.
Modal Verb Modal işlik	She	must	not	walk.

Double negatives – Ýokluk goşa sözler

A negative word shows that someone or something didn't happen. For example, “no one”, “nothing”, “nobody”, “never”, etc. Negative verb phrases show that an action didn't happen, such as: “**didn't eat**” or “**will not go.**” These are called **negatives**.

In English, using two negatives in a statement is incorrect and will often change the meaning of the sentence. For example, you should not say “*I did not buy nothing*” because “did not” and “nothing” are both negative. Instead, you should change one of the negatives into a positive: change “did not buy” to “bought”, or change “nothing” into “anything.” So, the correct sentences would be: “*I did not buy anything*”, or “*I bought nothing*”.

Turkmen and Russian speakers often make mistakes with double negatives, because double negatives are used in their languages. For example, you could say “Hiç kim çay içmedi.” In this sentence “Hiç kim” and “içmedi” are negative. However, you could not say “*No one didn't drink tea*” in English, because it is incorrect.

Ýokluk sözi biriniň ýa-da bir zadyň bolmandygyny görkezýär. Mysal üçin: “no one”, “nothing”, “nobody”, “never” we ş.m. Yokluk söz jümleleri gymyldy-hereketiň bolmandygyny aňladýarlar, mysal üçin: “**didn't eat**” ýa-da “**will not go**” Bulara **ýokluklar (“negatives”)** diýilýär.

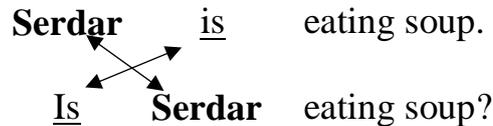
Iňlis dilinde iki sany ýokluk sözleri bir sözlemde ulanmaklyk nädogry bolar we bu adaçça sözlemin manysyny üýtgeder. Mysal üçin, siz “*I did not buy nothing*”, diýmeli däl sebäbi “did not” we “nothing” ikisi hem ýokluk sözlerdir. Onuň ýerine, bu ýokluk sözleriň birini barlyk söze öwürmeli: “did not buy” jümlisini “bought” sözüne ýa-da “nothing” sözüni “anything” sözüne çalyşmaly. Şeýlelikde, dogry sözlem şeýle bolardy: “*I did not buy anything*” ýa-da “*I bought nothing*”.

Türkmenler we ruslar gepleşikde ýokluk goşa sözleri ulananlarynda ýalňyş goýberýärler sebäbi olaryň dilinde ýokluk goşa sözler ulanylýar. Mysal üçin siz “Hiç kim çay içmedi.” diýip bilersiňiz. Bu sözlemede “hiç kim” we “içmedi” sözleriniň ikisem ýokluk sözlerdir. Şeýle-de bolsa, siz inlis dilinde “*No one didn't drink tea*” diýip bilmersiňiz sebäbi ol nädogry sözlem bolar.

Making Questions – Soraglaryň Düzülişi

English has an interesting way of making questions. You switch the place of the noun and the helping verb. For example, look at the sentence “*Serdar is eating soup*”. The noun “Serdar” and the helping verb “is” are switched.

Inlis dilinde sorag düzülişi gyzyklydyr. Siz at bilen kömekçi işliginiň ýerini çalyşýarsyňyz. Mysal üçin sözleme serediň; “*Serdar is eating soup*”. “Serdar” at bilen “is” kömekçi işliginiň ýerteri çalşylýar.

Serdar is eating soup.

Is **Serdar** eating soup?

Look at these other examples:

Şu ýerdäki beýleki mysallarada serediň:

Verb Tense	Helping verb	Noun	Action verb
Islik Zamany	Kömekçi işlik	At	Hereket işligi
Simple Present Tense Ýönekey häzirki zaman	Do	I	walk?
Simple Past Tense Ýönekey öten zaman	Did	they	walk?
Simple Future Tense Ýönekey geljek zaman	Will	you	walk?
Present Progressive Tense Dowamly häzirki zaman	Are	we	walking?
Present Perfect Tense Gutarnykly häzirki zaman	Has	Ata	walked?
Modal Verb Modal işlik	Must	she	walk?

When you use an interrogative question word (who, what, when, where, etc.), you add the question word first, and then you add the helping verb, pronoun, and main verb (interrogative word + helping verb + pronoun + main verb). For example, if you wanted to ask what Serdar is eating, you could say:

Haçan-da siz (who, what, when, where, ş.m.) sorag çalyşmalaryny ulananyňyzda, ilki sorag çalyşmasyny goýmaly, soňra bolsa kömekçi işligini, at çalyşmany we esasy işligi goşmaly (sorag çalyşmasy + kömekçi işlik + at

çalyşma + esasy işlik). Mysal üçin, eger siz Serdaryň näme iýip oturandygyny soramak islän bolsaňyz, onda şeýle diýip bilerdiňiz:

Sorag çalyşmasy	Kömekçi işlik	At çalyşma	Esasy işlik
What	is	Serdar	eating?

The other interrogative pronouns are used similarly. Look at the examples in different verb tenses.

Verb Tense	Interrogative Pronoun	Helping verb	Noun	Action verb
Işlik zamany	Sorag çalyşmasy	Kömekçi işlik	At	Hereket işligi
Simple Present Tense Ýönekey häzirki zaman	What	do	I	walk?
Simple Past Tense Ýönekey öten zaman	Where	did	they	walk?
Simple Future Tense Ýönekey geljek zaman	Who	will	you	walk?
Present Progressive Tense Dowamly häzirki zaman	Why	are	we	walking?
Present Perfect Tense Gutarnykly häzirki zaman	When	has	Ata	walked?
Modal Verb Modal işlik	How	must	she	walk?

Note: to make negative questions, “not” should be put after the subject. For example, “*Why did Serdar not eat?*”

Bellik: ýokluk sorag sözlemlerini düzmek üçin “not” eýäniň zyzndan goýulmaly. Mysal üçin: “*Why did Serdar not eat?*”

Short and long answers – Gysga we uzyn jogaplar

When you’re answering a question, you can give short answers. The short answers don’t need an action verb, only a helping verb. To make a short answer you need to say if it’s positive or negative, “yes” or “no.” Then, you add a noun or pronoun and the correct helping verb. If the answer is negative, you also add “not.”

Siz soraga jogap bereniňizde, gysga jogap berip bilersiňiz. Gysga jogaplar hereket aňladýan işlikleri talap etmeýärler, olar diňe kömekçi işlikleri talap edýärler. Gysga jogap bereniňizde, siz ýa hawa (“yes”) ýa-da ýok (“no”) diýmeli. Soňra, siz at ýa-da çalyşma we dogry kömekçi işligini goşmaly. Eger jogap ýokluk bolsa, onda “not” hem goşmaly.

- Positive answer (Barlyk jogap): “Yes” + noun + helping verb.
- Negative answer (Ýokluk jogap): “No” + noun + helping verb + “not”.

You can make short answers for every verb tense, but remember the helping verbs are different for the different verb tenses. For example, a general statement (not an answer or a question) would be “*I went to the store*”. If someone asked you if you went to the store (“*Did you go to the store?*”), you could give a short answer. If you did go to the store, you could say “*Yes, I did*”. The verb is understood: “*Yes, I did (go to the store)*”. Or if you didn’t go to the store, you could say, “*No, I did not*”. Note: this question is in the past tense, and in the past tense “did” is the helping verb. Look at these example dialogues from other verb tenses:

Siz islendik zamana-da gysga jogap berip bilersiňiz, emma dürli zamanlaryň dürli kömekçi işlikleriniň bolýandygyny ýadyňyzda saklaň. Mysal üçin, (jogap ýa-da sorag bolmadyk) umumy sözlem alalyň: “*I went to the store*”. Eger biz sizden dükana gideniňizi sorasak (“*Did you go to the store?*”), siz gysga jogap berip bilerdiňiz. Eger siz dogrudan hem dükana giden bolsaňyz, siz “*Yes, I did*” diýip jogap bererdiňiz. Bu işlik dükana gidilendigini düşündirýär: “*Yes, I did (go to the store)*”. Ýa-da siz dükana gitmedik bolsaňyz, siz “*No, I did not*” diýip jogap berip bilerdiňiz. Bellik: bu sorag öten zamandadyr, öten zamanda bolsa “did” kömekçi işlik hökmünde ulanylýar. Beýleki zamanlarda ulanylýan işlikleriň dialoglarda gelýan mysallaryna serediň:

Simple present tense – Ýönekey häzirkî zaman

A: Is the weather hot today? (Şu gün howa yssymy?)

B: Yes, it is. / No, it is not. (Hawa / Yok.)

Present progressive tense – Dowamly häzirkî zaman

A: Are you reading the newspaper? (Siz gazet okap otyrsyňyzmy?)

B: Yes, I am. / No, I am not. (Hawa / Yok.)

Simple future tense – Ýönekey geljek zaman

A: Will he go to Turkey? (Ol Türkiýä gidermi?)

B: Yes, he will. / No, he will not. (Hawa / Yok.)

Present perfect tense – Gutarnyky häzirkî zaman

A: Have you eaten your supper? (Agşamlyk naharyňy iýdiňmi?)

B: Yes, I have. / No, I have not. (Hawa / Yok.)

Questions tags – Bölüji soraglar

Question tags ask for agreement or disagreement of a statement. They come at the end of the statement. If the statement is positive, then the question tag is negative. But if the statement is negative, then the question tag is positive. Question tags are mostly used in speech and are rarely used in writing.

Question tags usually consist of the same helping verb or linking verb that is in the statement and a subjective pronoun. Note: you do not need an action verb.

For negative question tags always use contractions, that is, the short form of negative helping verbs: isn't, hasn't, didn't, won't, etc. Look at these example sentences:

Bölüji soraglar aýdylan sözlem bilen ylalaşmaklygy ýa-da ylalaşmazlygy sorayar. Olar sözlemleriň soňundan gelýärler. Eger sözlem barlykda ulanylan bolsa, onda bölüji sorag ýoklukda bolýar. Emma eger sözlem ýoklukda ulanylan bolsa, onda bölüji sorag barlykda bolýar. Bölüji soraglar köplenç gepleşikde ulanylýarlar we ýazuwda bolsa örän seýrek duş gelýärler.

Bölüji soraglar adatça sözlemlerdäki şol bir kömekçi ýa-da baglaýjy işliklerden düzülýärler we eýe at çalyşmasyny ulanýarlar. Bellik: Size hereketi aňladýan işlikleri ulanmagyň geregi ýok.

Ýokluk bölüji soraglar üçin hemişe gysgaltmalary, başga söz bilen aýdylanda ýokluk kömekçi işlikleriniň “isn't”, “hasn't”, “didn't”, “won't”, ş.m.-iň gysga görnüşlerini ulanyň. Şu mysallara serediň:

Positive Statement	Negative Question Tag
Barlyk Sözlem	Yokluk bölüji soraglar
Akgul is tall,	isn't she?
It has been raining for a long time,	hasn't it?
Ali went to school already,	didn't he?
Juma will come today,	won't he?

Negative Statement	Positive Question Tag
Yokluk sözlem	Barlyk bölüji soraglar
Palvan isn't coming today,	is he?
I don't need an umbrella today,	do I?
You haven't been there,	have you?
Sulgun wasn't going to come,	was she?
Our teacher won't help us,	will he?

Direct and Indirect Speech (Reported Speech) – Başganyň Sözi we Başganyň Özgerdilen Sözi (Başganyň Sözi)

When you're talking about what someone said, you can use indirect speech and direct speech. To report speech “said” and “told” are often used.

You use **indirect speech** to report what someone said, but you don't report it exactly, and you don't use quotations. For example, “*The doctor told me that smoking was not good*”. The word “that” will sometimes separate the sentence from the speech and shows that the sentence is indirect speech.

You use **direct speech** when you report exactly what someone said. Quotation marks are put before and after the speech to separate it from the rest of the sentence. Usually, the first letter of the quotation is capitalized.

Haçan-da siz blrinIn áýdan zadyny áýtjak bolsaňyz, siz başganyň özgerdilen sözünü we başganyrt sözünü ulanyp bilersiňiz. Olary aýtmak üçin siz “said” we “told” sözlerini ýygy-ýygydan ulanmalysyňyz.

Kimdir biriniň aýdanyny aýtmak üçin siz **başganyň özgerdilen sözünü** ulanýarsyňyz, ýöne ony bolşy ýaly aýtmaly däl we goşa dyrnaklary ulanmaly däl. Mysal üçin: The doctor told me that smoking was not good, “that” käwagtlar sözlem bilen sözünň arasyny açýar we sözlemiň başganyň özgerdilen sözdüginini aňladýar.

Birinlň aýdanyny edil bolşy ýaly aýtmak üçin siz **başganyň sözünü** ulanyp bilersiňiz. Sözlemi beýleki agzalarydan aýyrmak üçin goşa dyrnak sözlemiň önünden we soňundan göýulýar. Adatça goşa dyrnagyň içinde gelyän sitatanyň birinji harpy baş harp bilen ýazylýar.

Reported speech – Başganyň sözi

Study this example situation: You want to tell somebody else what Tom said. There are two ways of doing this: You can repeat Tom’s words (*direct speech*): Tom said ***‘I’m feeling ill’***. Or you can use *reported speech*: *Tom said that he was feeling ill.*

Aşakdaky nusgany öwreniň: Siz kimdir-birine Tomuň näme aýdandygyny gürrüň bermek isleýäňiz. Muny etmegiň iki ýoly bar: Siz Tomuň sözlerini gaýtalap bilersiňiz (*awtoryň sözi*): *Tom aýtdy: “Men özümi erbet duýýaryn”*.

Ýada siz başganyň sözünü ulanyp bilersiniz: *Tom özüni erbet duýýandygyny aýtdy.*

When we use reported speech, the main verb of the sentence is usually past (Tom **said** that... / I **told** her that... etc.). The rest of the sentence is usually past too:

- Tom **said** that he **was feeling** ill.
- I **told** her that I **didn’t have** any money.

Haçanda biz başganyň sözünü ulananymyzda, adatça sözlemin esasy işligi öňe geçýär (Tom aýtdy ýagny... / Men oňa gürrün berdim ýagny... we.ş.m). Adatça sözlemiň beýleki bölegi hem öňe geçýär:

- Tom aýtdy, ýagny ol özüni erbet duýýar.
- Men oňa aýtdym, ýagny mende pulumyň bolmandygyny.

You can leave out **‘that’**:

- Tom said (that) he was feeling ill.
- I told her (that) I didn’t have any money.

Siz muny (**ýagny “that”**) galdyryp hem bilersiniz:

- Tom aýtdy (**ýagny**) ol özüni erbet duýupdyr

- Men oña aýtdym(**ýagny**) mende pulumyň bolmandygyny.

In general, the *present* form in direct speech changes to the past form in reported speech:

Umuman, häzirki görnüş awtoryň sözünü beýan edip gelende öten zaman görnüşine öwürülýär:

am / is (bolmak)	=> was (boldum)	can (edindi)	=> could (başarar)
are (bolmak)	=> were (boldylar)	want (isleyärin)	=> wanted (isledim)
do / does (etmek)	=> did (etdi)	like (halaýaryn)	=> liked (haladym)
have / has (bolmak)	=> had	know (bilyarin)	=> knew (bildim)
will (eder)	=> would (etsedi)	go (gidýärin)	=> went (gitdim)

Compare direct speech and reported speech:

Awtoruň sözünü we başganyn sözünü deňeşdiriň:

<p>You met Judy. Here are some of the things she said to you in <i>direct speech</i>:</p>	<p>Later you tell somebody what Judy said. You use <i>reported speech</i>:</p>
<p>(<i>Siz Judy bilen tanyşdyňyz. Ynha olardan birnaçesi, onuň saňa “awtoryň sözünde” aýdanlaryndan:</i>)</p>	
<p>‘My parents are very well.’ (“<i>Meniň enem-atamyň ýagdaylary örän gowy.</i>”)</p>	<p>Judy said that her parents were very well. (<i>Judy aýtdy, ýagny onuň ene-atasynyň ýagdaýlarynyň örän gowudygyny.</i>)</p>
<p>‘Im going to learn to drive.’ (“<i>Men maşyn sürmegi öwrenmäge taýýarlanylaryn.</i>”)</p>	<p>She said that she was going to learn to drive. (<i>Ol aýtdy, ýagny ol maşyn sürmegi öwrenmäge taýýarlanylandygyny.</i>)</p>
<p>‘John has given up his job.’ (“<i>Jon öz işinden boýun gaçyrdy.</i>”)</p>	<p>She said that John had given up his job. (<i>Ol aýtdy, ýagny Jonuň öz işinden boýun gaçyrandygyny.</i>)</p>
<p>‘I can’t come to the party on Friday.’ (“<i>Men Anna günündäki oturylyşyk agşamyna gelip bilmerin.</i>”)</p>	<p>She said that she couldn’t come to the party on Friday. (<i>Ol aýtdy, ýagny ol Anna günündäki oturylyşyk agşamyna gelip bilmeyändigini.</i>)</p>
<p>‘I want to go away for a holiday but I don’t know where to go.’ (“<i>Men dynç almaga gitmek isleyarin, yöne nira gitjegimi bilemok.</i>”)</p>	<p>She said that she wanted to go away for a holiday but (she) didn’t know where to go. (<i>Ol aýtdy, ýagny ol dynç almaga gitmek isleyändigini, yöne nira gitjegini bilenokdygyny.</i>)</p>
<p>‘Im going away for a few days. I’ll phone you when I get back.’ (“<i>Men birnaçe günlük gidýärin. Men haçan-da dolanyp gelenimde saňa jaň ederin.</i>”)</p>	<p>She said that she was going away for a few days and would phone me when she got back. (<i>Ol aýtdy, ýagny ol birnaçe günlük gidyändigini we haçan-da dolanyp gelende maňa jaň etjekdigini.</i>)</p>

The *past simple* (**did** / **saw** / **knew**, etc.) can usually stay the same in reported speech, or you can change it to the *past perfect* (**had done** / **had seen** / **had known**, etc.):

direct Tom said: ‘I **woke** up feeling ill, so I **didn’t** go to work.’

reported Tom said (that) he **woke** up feeling ill, so he **didn’t** go to work, or

Tom said (that) he **had woken** up feeling ill, so he **hadn’t gone** to work.

Ýönekeý öten zaman (etdim, gördüm, bildim we.ş.m) adatça başganyň sözüňki formasynda galýar ýada siz ony öten zaman tamamlanan görnüşine üýtgedip bilersiňiz (edip boldum, görüp boldum, bildim we.s.m):

Awtoryň sözi Tom aýtdy “Men oýananymda özümi erbet duýdum, şonuň üçin hem işe gitmedim”.

Başganyň sözi Tom aýtdy, ýagny ol oýananynda özüni erbet duýupdyr, şonuň üçin hem ol işe gitmändir.

It is not always necessary to change the verb when you use reported speech. If you report something and it is still true, you do not need to change the verb:

direct Tom said ‘New York **is** more lively than London.’

reported Tom said that New York **is** more lively than London.

(New York is *still* more lively. The situation hasn’t changed.)

direct Ann said ‘I want to go to New York next year.’

reported Ann said that she **wants** to go to New York next year.

(Ann *still* wants to go to New York next year.)

Haçanda siz awtoryň sözüni ulananyňyzda hemişe işlik zamanyny üýtgetmek zerur däl. Egerde siz nämedir bir zat habar beryän bolsaňyz hem-de ol dogry bolsa, size işlik zamanyny üýtgetmek zerur dälendir:

Awtoryň sözi Tom aýtdy: “Londona seredeniňde Nýu-Ýorkda durmuş has-da gyzgalaňly”.

Başganyň sözi Tom aýtdy, ýagny Londona seredeniňde Nýu-Ýorkda durmuş has-da gyzgalaňly. (Londona seredeninde Nýu-Ýorkda durmuş has-da gyzgalaňly bolýar. Ýagdaý üýtgemedi.)

Awtoryň sözi Anna aýtdy “Men indiki ýyl Nýu-Ýorka gitmek isleýärim”.

Başganyň sözi Anna aýtdy, ýagny ol indiki ýyl Nýu-Ýorka gitmek isleýär.

(Anna entegem indiki ýyl Nýu-Ýorka gitmek isleýär.)

Note that it is also correct to change the verb into the past:

- Tom said that New York **was** more lively than London.
- Ann said that she **wanted** to go to New York next year.

Üns beriň, işligi öten zamana geçirmek hem dogrudyr:

- Tom aytdy, yagny Londona seredeniňde Nýu-Ýorkada durmuş has-da gyzgalaňlydygyny.

- Anna áytdy, ýagny ol indiki ýyl Nýu-Ýorka gitmek isleýändigini.

Say and tell

If you say *who* you are talking to, use ‘**tell**’:

- Sonia **told me** that you were ill.

TELL SOMEBODY

Otherwise use **say**:

- Sonia **said** that you were ill.
- What did you say?

SAY ~~SOMEBODY~~

But you can ‘say something to somebody’:

- Ann **said** goodbye **to me** and left.

Aýtmak we gürrüň bermek

Eger-de siz kime gürrüň berilýändigini aýtmak isleseňiz onda “Tell“ ulanyp bilersiňiz: KIMDIR BIRINE AÝTMAK

- Sonya **maňa** siziň näsagdygyňyzy aýtdy, ýagny.

Başga ýagdaýlarda “say” ulanyp bilersiňiz :

- Sonýa siziň näsagdygynyzy aýtdy.
(Kime aýdylandygy görkezilmeyär)

~~KIMDIR BIRINE AYTMAK~~

- Siz näme aýtdynyz?

Emma siz ‘say something to somebody’ “Kimdir birine bir zatlar aýtmak” diyip hem bilersiňiz:

- Enna maňa hoş gal diýdi we gitdi.

Prepositions – Predloglar (Sözsoňular)

Prepositions show relationships in space, time, and logic between nouns, pronouns, and other words in the sentence. English speakers use prepositions frequently to explain ideas. Look at the prepositions in the sentences.

Predloglar atlaryň, çalyşmalaryň we sözlemdäki beýleki sözleriň ýer, wagt we oý-pikir bilen arabaglanyşygyny görkezýär. Iňlis dilini ene dili hökmünde ulanýan adamlar predloglary pikirlerini düşündirmek üçin ulanýarlar. Sözlemlerdäki predloglara serediň.

- Space (Ýer / Orun): The cat is **below** the table. (Pişik stoluň **aşagynda**.)
- Space (Ýer / Orun): I am **from** America. (Men **Amerikadan**.)
- Time (Wagt): I go to school **in** the afternoon. (**içinde**) (Men mekdebe öýlän gidýärim.)

- Time (Wagt): I studied English **for** 2 years. (Men iňlis dilini iki ýyllap okadym.)

- Logic (Oý-pikir): I have a kilogram **of** tomatoes (**yň**.) (Mende bir kilogram pomidor bar.)

- Logic (Oý-pikir): I like to read **about** English. (Men iňlis dili **barada** okamagy halaýaryn.)

Some prepositions can be used as adverbs, but not all. Prepositions are always followed by a noun, a pronoun, or other noun-words like gerunds. Some prepositions can be several words long; for example, “in addition to”, “on the other side”, etc.

Käbir predloglar hal hökmünde-de ulanyp bilerler, emma hemmesi beýle däldir. Predloglaryň zyzndan hemişe at, çalyşma ýa-da başga gerundlar ýaly at sözleri gelýärler. Käbir predloglar birnäçe uzyn sözlerden hem ybarat bolup biler; mysal üçin: “in addition to” (ondan başga), “on the other side” (beýleki tarapdan) we ş.m.

Spatial prepositions – Orun-tarap bildirýän predloglar

Spatial prepositions show where objects are in the physical world.

Orun predloglary zatlaryň nirede ýerleşýändiglerini görkezýärler.

- The cat is walking **near** the table (**golaýynda**). (Pişik stolyň ýanynda ýöreyär.)

Time prepositions – Wagt bildirýän predloglary

Like adverbs, prepositions are used to show time and express ideas about time. Usually, when making a time phrase, you add the preposition first and after that add the time (**preposition + time**). For example, “*I went to Ashgabat **for 2 days***”. “For” is the time preposition; it means “-lap”. “2 days” is the time.

Hallar ýaly predloglar hem wagt bildirmek ýa-da wagt baradaky pikirleri beýan etmek üçin ulanylýarlar. Köplenç wagt aňladýan jümläni düzeňizde, ilki predlogy goýmaly we onuň zyzndan bolsa wagty goşmaly (**predlog + wagt**). Mysal üçin: “*I went to Ashgabat **for 2 days***”. “For” wagt bildirýän predlog bolup “-lap”, “-läp”, “-lyk”, “-lik” goşulmasyny aňladýar. “2 days” bolsa wagty aňladýar.

Rules for most common prepositions – Iň köp ulanylýan predloglara degişli kadalar

“To”

You will see “to” used frequently in English. “To” has many uses. It is used for infinitive verbs, a preposition, and a time preposition. When it is a preposition, it explains that something or some idea is going toward a place or a new idea.

Siz “to” predlogynyň iňlis dilinde köp ulanylýandygyny görersiňiz. “To”-nyň birnäçe ulanylyşy bardyr. Ol nämälim işlikler, predloglar we wagt predloglary üçin ulanylýar. Haçan-da ol predlog bolup gelende, birezadyň ýa-da pikiriň ýere ýa-da pikire tarap gönükdirilendigini düşündirýär.

- Preposition (Predlog): I am walking **to** school. (Men mekdebe ýöräp barýaryn.)
- Time (Wagt): It is 5 minutes **to** 12. (On ikä 5 minut bar.)
- Infinitive verb (Nämälim İşlik): I want **to** eat pizza. (Men pissa iýmek isleýärim.)

“In”

When you say you live in a city, state, country, or a specific room or apartment, you use “in”. You use “in” when saying that you are in the mountains or desert. And you also use “in” to say that you are in college.

Siz şäherde, şatda, ýurtda ýa-da belli bir otagda ýa-da öýde ýaşaýaryn diýeniňizde “in” predlogyny ulanýarsyňyz. Men dagda ýa-da çölde diýeniňizde “in” ulanýarsyňyz. Kolležde diýjek bolsaňyz hem “in” ulanýarsyňyz.

- Did you like living **in** Texas? (Siz Tehasda ýaşamagy haladyňyzmy?)
- My friend lives **in** Apartment 210. (Meniň dostum 210-njy otagda ýaşaýar.)
- I saw several snakes **in** the desert. (Men çölde birnäçe ýylan gördüm.)
- I live **in** Gypjak. (Men Gypjakda ýaşaýaryn.)

“On”

When you say that you live on a street with no number, you use “on”. You also use “on” to refer to a farm, a beach, an ocean, or other bodies of water.

Haçan-da siz hiç belgisi bolmadyk köçede ýaşaýanlygyňyzy aýdanyňyzda, onda “on” predlogyny ulanýarsyňyz. Ondan başgada fermada, plýažda, ummanda ýa-da başga suw giňişliklerinde diýmek üçin “on” predlogyny ulanyp bilersiňiz.

- He lives **on** Atayew street. (Ol Atayew köçesinde ýaşaýar).
- John and Janet live **on** the beach in Florida. (Jon we Janet Floridada deňiziň kenarynda ýaşaýarlar).
- My father works **on** a farm. (Meniň kakam fermada işleýär).

“At”

When you say that you live on a numbered street, you use “at”. You use “at” when saying that you landed or stopped at an airport, train station, bus stop or specific place. You use “at” to say that you are at university. And you use “at” to say that something was done at a specific time.

Haçan-da siz belgisi bolan köçede ýaşaýanlygyňyzy aýdanyňyzda, “at” predlogyny ulanarsyňyz. Siz aeroporta gonandygyňyzy ýa-da demirýol menziline, awtobus duralgasynda ýa-da belli bir ýerde durandygyňyzy aýdanyňyzda “at” predlogyny ulanarsyňyz. Siz men uniwersitetde diýmek üçin hem “at” predlogyny ulanmaly. Belli bir wagtda bir zadyň edilendigini aýtmak üçin hem “at” predlogyny ulanmaly.

- I live **at** 25 Atabayev Street. (Men Atabayew köçesiniň 25-nji jaýynda ýaşaýaryn.)

- The train stopped **at** the Ashgabat train station. (Otly Aşgabadyň demiryol menzilin**de** durdy.)

- I study **at** Azady Institute. (Men Azady instituty**nda** okaýaryn.)

- I wake up **at** 8. (Men 8-**de** oýanýaryn.)

“For”

For Turkmen speakers “for” can be confusing. “For” can refer to time, show that something was done for someone, or show purpose. When referring to people, “for” is similar to “üçin”. When referring to time, “for” is similar to “-lap / -läp”. It shows that an action lasted for a period of time or happened at an appointed time.

Türkmenler üçin “for” predlogy düşnüksizräk bolup biler. “For” wagta degişli bolup, bir zadyň biri üçin ýerine ýetirilendigini ýa-da maksady görkezýär. Haçan-da adamlara degişli bolanda “for” “üçin” diýen söze meňzeş bolýar. Haçan-da wagta degişli bolanda “for” “-lap / -läp” goşulmalaryna ýakyndyr. Bu gymyldy-herketiň belli bir wagta çenli dowam edendigini görkezýär ýa-da belleşilen wagtda bolup geçendigini aňladýar.

- Time (Wagt): I taught English **for** 3 years. (Men iňlis dilini üç ýyllap okatdym.)

- Time (Wagt): I went to America **for** the summer. (Men tomusyna Amerika gitdim.)

- For people (Adamlar üçin): I bought a present **for** my friend. (Men dostum **üçin** sowgat aldym.)

- For people (Adamlar üçin): I need to study **for** my English test. (Men iňlis dili barlag işim **üçin** okamaly.)

“Of”

“Of” is used frequently to show relationships. It has three uses. First, “of” shows relationships between a part, parts, or parts of a whole; this is also known as passive possessives. For example, “*Two of my friends are going to England*”. Second, “of” shows origin or membership. For example, “*I am a citizen of America*”. Third, “of” shows materials and content. For example, “*They bought a liter of milk*”. Turkmen doesn’t have grammar similar to “of”.

When “one” comes before “of”, “one” is the subject and takes a singular form of the verb: **One of my friends lives in America**. Also, an uncountable noun can follow “of”.

Baglanyşyklary görkezmek üçin köplenç “of” ulanylýar. Onuň üç hili ulanylyşy bar. Birinjiden, “of” bölegiň we bölümleriň arasyndaky baglanyşygy görkezýär; bu şeýle hem gaýdym eýelik düşümi hökmünde tanalýar. Mysal üçin: “*Two of my friends are going to England*”. Ikinjiden, “of” gelip çykyşyny ýa-da agzalygyny görkezýär. Mysal üçin: “*I am a citizen of America*”. Üçünjiden, “of” zatlary we onuň içindäkilerini aňladýar. Mysal üçin: “*They bought a liter*”

of milk". Türkmen diliniň grammatikasynda "of" predlogyna meňzeş söz ýokdur.

Haçan-da "one" sözi "of" predlogyndan öň gelse, "one" sözlemiň eýesi bolýar we ol işligi birlik sanda kabul edýär; mysal üçin: "**One of my friends lives in America**". Şeýle hem sanalmaýan at "of" sözünden soň gelip biler.

"During" and "since" – "Dowamynda" we "bäri"

"During" and "since" are similar to their Turkmen translations: "dowamynda" we "bäri". They explain when events happened. To use them in a sentence put "during" and "since" before the time clause.

"During" we "since" türkmen dilindäki "dowamynda" we "bäri" sözlerine meňzeşdir. Olar wakalaryň haçan bolandygyny görkezýärler. Olary sözlemde ulanmak üçin, "during" we "since" sözlerini wagt jümlesiniň öňünden goýuň.

- I was ill **during** the lesson. (Men sapagyň dowamynda ýaramadym.)
- I have been ill **since** Thursday. (Men penşenbe gününden bäri ýaramok.)

Phrasal Verbs – Jümle İşlikleri

Some verbs are followed by prepositions that make special verbs. These verbs called phrasal verbs and particles. Sometimes their meanings are greatly changed after the verb is added. For example, "take off" is when a ship or plane departs. But "take" by itself simple means "almak".

Aýratyn işlikleri döretmek üçin käbir işlikleriň yzyna predloglar goşulýar. Şular ýaly işliklere "phrasal verbs" (jümle işlikleri) we "particles" (ownuk bölekler) diýilýär. Käwagtlar predloglaryň öňünden işlik ulanylanda olaryň manysy düýbünden üýtgeýär. Mysal üçin: "take off" uçaryň uçmagyna ýa-da gäminiň ugramagyna aýdylýar. Emma "take" sözi özbaşyna "almak" diýmegi aňladýar.

Common particle verbs with prepositions – Predloglar bilen ulanylýan umumy jümle işlikleri

In	Out	On	Off	Down	Up
walk in	get out	turn on	turn off	put down	pick up
run in	run out	push on	push off	slow down	stand / get up
come in	go out	leave on	take off	close / shut down	wake up
plug in	spit out	go on,	walk off	bend / lie / sit	open up
fill in	leave out	put / try	run off	down	turn up (the
	look out	on		write down	volume, heat)
	hand / give out			turn down (the	
				volume, heat)	

Notice that the preposition comes after the verb. Some two-word verbs have one-word synonyms, which is usually more formal.

Predlogyň işlikden sön gelyändigine üns beriň. Käbir iki sözli işlikleriň has resmi bolan bir sözli sinonimi bardyr.

<i>drop in, drop by, stop by</i>	visit	degip geçmek
<i>work out</i>	exercise	maşk etmek, türgenleşmek
<i>carry on, keep on</i>	continue	dowam etmek
<i>put off</i>	delay	yza çekmek, soňa goýmak
<i>let down</i>	disappoint	tamasyny çykarmazlyk, göwnüni geçirmek
<i>go up to, come up to</i>	approach	ýakynlaşmak
<i>catch up (with)</i>	to reach someone	biriniň zyzndan ýetmek
<i>take up</i>	start doing some hobby	halaýan güýmenjäň bilen meşgul bolmak
<i>grow up</i>	mature or become older	ösmek, ulalmak
<i>bring up</i>	raise / look after a child	ýetişdirmek, terbiýelemek
<i>clean up, tidy up, wash up</i>	clean or wash	arassalamak, ýygnaşdyrmak ýa-da ýuwmak
<i>give up</i>	to surrender	razy bolmak, boýun synmak, utulanyňy boýun almak
<i>make up</i>	to forgive each other after an argument and become friends again	jedelden soň biri-biriň bilen ýaraşmak we täzeden dost bolmak
<i>show up</i>	to come to an event, like a party	üýşmeleňe gelmek

Conjunctions – Baglaýjylar

Conjunctions connect words or groups of words. They tell about the logical relationship between these words. There are many types of conjunctions, and their grammatical explanations are very difficult.

When you're speaking, you should always try to use conjunctions. Using them helps you create longer, more difficult sentences. And it gives you excellent speaking practice. Conjunctions are also important for joining sentences together. You use different conjunctions to join different types of sentences. Here are the most important conjunctions:

Baglaýjylar sözleri we söz düzümlerini baglaýarlar. Olar bu sözleriň arasyndaky logiki baglanyşyga hem goşandyny goşýarlar. Baglaýjylaryň köp görnüşleri bardyr we olaryň grammatik düşündirişleri örän kyndyr. Şonuň üçin bu kitapda baglaýjylaryň diňe ýönekeý görnüşleri düşündirilendir.

Geplän wagtyňyz siz hemişe baglaýjylary ulanmaga çalyşmaly. Olary ulanmaklyk size uzynrak we kynrak sözlemleri düzmäge kömek edýär. Bu bolsa size sözleýşiňizi türgenleşdirmäge örän gowy mümkinçilik berýär. Baglaýjylar sözlemleri biri-birleri bilen baglanyşdyrmak üçin hem wajypdyr. Siz sözlemleriň

dürli görnüşlerini baglamak üçin dürli-dürli baglaýjylary ulanýarsyňyz. Ine iň wajyp baglaýjylar şulardan ybarat:

“And” – “We”

If you are joining two positive sentences together, you use “and”.

Eger siz iki sany barlyk görnüşdäki sözlemleri baglanyşdyrýan bolsaňyz, onda siz “and” ulanmaly.

• (+) I like apples (+) I like oranges => I like apples, **and** I like oranges. (Men almalary halaýaryn **we** apelsinleri halaýaryn.)

“But” – “Emma”, “ýöne”

If you’re joining a positive sentence and a negative sentence, you use “but”.

Eger siz barlyk görnüşdäki sözlem bilen ýokluk görnüşdäki sözlemi baglaýan bolsaňyz, onda “bu” ulanmaly.

• (+) I like apples (–) I don’t like oranges => I like apples, **but** I don’t like oranges. (Men almalary halaýaryn, **ýöne** apelsinleri halamaýaryn.)

“Or” – “Ýa-da”, “ýa-”

You can use “or” to show choice or negative difference. Siz “or” baglaýjysyny saýlamaklygy ýa-da ýokluk tapawutlygyny görkezmek üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz.

• (–) I don’t like apples (–) I don’t like oranges. => I don’t like apples **or** oranges. (Men almalary **ýa** apelsinleri halamaýaryn.)

“Because” – “Sebäbi”, “çünki”

If you’re showing why an action happens, you use “because”.

Eger gymyldy-hereketiň näme sebäpden bolup geçýändigini görkezmek üçin siz “because” baglaýjysyny ulanarsyňyz.

• Serdar doesn’t smoke + smoking is bad for health => Serdar doesn’t smoke, **because** smoking is bad for health. (Serdar çilim çekmeýar, **sebäbi** çilim saglyk üçin zyýanlydyr.)

“So” – “Şol sebäpli”

If you’re showing the result of something, you use “so”.

Eger siz bir gymyldy-hereketiň näme sebäpden bolýandygyny görkezýän bolsaňyz, “so” ulanmaly.

• I studied English everyday + now I have a good job => I studied English everyday, **so** now I have a good job. (Men iňlis dilini her gün okadym, **şol sebäpli** şu wagt meniň gowy işim bar.)

You can use conjunctions to connect parts of the sentence in different ways. You can make a compound subject: “*Aman **and** Ata are sleeping*”. You can make a compound predicate: “*She reads **and** writes her English homework everyday*”. You can make a compound object: “*They do not eat **apples or***

oranges". And you can make other sentences, too: "*I went to the market, and I bought food*".

Siz baglaýjylary sözlemiň agzalaryny dürli ýollar bilen birikdirmek üçin ulanyp bilersiňiz. Siz sözlemiň goşma eýesini "*Aman and Ata are sleeping*" diýip düzüp bilersiňiz. Siz sözlemiň goşma habaryny "*She reads and writes her English homework everyday*" diýip düzüp bilersiňiz. Siz sözlemiň goşma doldurgyjyny "*They do not eat apples or oranges*" diýip hem düzüp bilersiňiz. We ondan başga-da birnäçe sözlemleri düzüp bilersiňiz: "*I went to the market, and I bought food*".

Types of conjunctions – Baglaýjylaryň görnüşleri

Coordinating conjunctions – Düzmeli baglaýjylar

Conjunctions that keep the sentences independent are called coordinating conjunctions. They join two or more words or phrases of the same type. Coordinating conjunctions include: "and", "but", "or", "so", "for" and "nor". For example, "*I don't like apples, **nor** do I like oranges*".

Sözlemleri garaşsyz saklamaga kömek edýän baglaýjylara düzmeli baglaýjylar diýilýär. Olar bir görnüşdäki Iki ýa-da köp sözleri ýa-da jümleleri baglaýarlar. Düzmeli baglaýjylar "and", "but", "or", "so", "for" we "nor" sözlerden ybaratdyr. Mysal üçin: "*I don't like apples, **nor** do I like oranges*".

Subordinating conjunctions – Eýerjeňli baglaýjylar

Subordinating conjunctions make an independent sentence dependent when they are added. That is, they make the sentence they modify dependent on another sentence to be completed. For example, "*He went to the market, because he needed to buy food*". The sentence "*he needed to buy food*" is independent, but when you add "because", it becomes dependent. Subordinating conjunctions are:

Eýerjeňli baglaýjylar goşulanda garaşsyz sözlemler garaşly sözlemlere öwrülýärler. Ýagny, olar aýyklar gelýän garaşsyz sözlemlerini gutarnykly many aňlatmak üçin beýleki sözleme bagly edýärler. Mysal üçin: "*He went to the market, because he needed to buy food*". "*He needed to buy food*" sözlemi garaşsyzdyr, ýöne "because" sözüni goşanyňyzda ol garaşly sözleme öwrülýär. Eýerjeňli baglaýjylar şu aşakdakylardan ybarat:

- After (Soň): I began to eat lunch **after** he left.
- Although (bolsada, welin): **Although** the weather was bad, I played outside.
- As (Ýaly): He is as dumb **as** a box of rocks.
- As if (Ýaly, göýä): He looked at me **as if** he knew me.
- Because (Sebäbi): I like using the computer, **because** computers are interesting.
- Before (Öň): I was doing my homework **before** my dad returned home.
- If (Eger): **If** I could fly like a bird, I would fly to a beautiful island.

- Once (Bir wagtlar): **Once** he was strong and young, but now is old.
- Since (Bäri): I've been working **since** early this morning.
- So that (Üçin): I bought a new car **so that** I can be a taxi driver.
- Than (-dan / -den, deňşdirme üçin): Ata is taller **than** Serdar is.
- Unless (**Eger** ... kömekleşmeseň): I won't clean the house **unless** you help me.
- Until (tä... -ça, -çe, tä gelyänçäm): My mother waited for me **until** I came home.
- When (Haçan, soragda däl): I don't know **when** he will come home.
- Whether (-myka, -mikä ýagarmyka, ýagmazmyka): I don't know **whether** it'll rain or not.
- While (-ka, -kä, öý işini edip otyrka): I watched football **while** my brother did his homework.

Conjunctive adverbs – Baglaýjy hallar

Conjunctive adverbs are similar to simple conjunctions, but they are stronger, and they are used to compare large ideas in an argument or paper. For example, “but” and “however” are similar, but “however” shows bigger differences between sentences and thoughts.

Baglaýjy hallar ýönekeý baglaýjylara meňzeşdir, ýöne olar güýçliräk bolup jedellerdäki ýa-da gazetdäki çuň pikirleri deňşdirmek üçin ulanylýarlar. Mysal üçin: “but” we “however” meňzeşdir, emma “however” sözlemler bilen pikirleriň arasyndaky uly tapawutlyklary görkezýär.

- Also (Şeýle hem, we): I went to Ashgabat, and I **also** went to Mary.
- Anyway (her näme bolsada): My mother told me not to eat watermelon and lamb, but I ate it **anyway**, and now I am ill.
- Besides (başga-da, daşyndan): **Besides** myself, no one else knows English.
- Finally (Ahyry): I **finally** finished school.
- Furthermore (Ondan başga-da): You shouldn't smoke or drink; **furthermore**, you should exercise every day.
- However (Şeýle-de bolsa, emma): He's a nice man; **however**, he's lazy.
- Indeed (Dogrudan hem): **Indeed**, he is a very smart man.
- Likewise (Üstesine-de): Smoking is bad, **likewise**, being with people who are smoking is bad.
- Moreover (Üstesine-de): You shouldn't be on the street after 11:00; **moreover**, you should always have your passport.
- Next (soňra, ondan soň): He'll cut the meat, fry the meat, and **next**, he'll eat the meat.
- Therefore (Şonuň üçin, şol sebäpli): Two times two equals four; **therefore**, four divided by two is two.

- Then (Soňra): Today I'll go to work; **then**, I'll return home.

Usually, the conjunctive adverbs are followed by a comma. Adatça baglaýjy hallaryň zyndan otur goýulýar.

Correlative conjunctions – Özara baglanyşykly baglaýjylar

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of words that connect words, phrases, and clauses. They can be used with subjects, verbs, or objects. The first correlative conjunction is placed before the first part of the pair, and the second correlative conjunction is placed between the 2 parts of the pair. Look at the patterns:

Özara baglanyşykly baglaýjylar jübüt sözlerden ybarat bolup sözleri, jümleleri we sözlemleri baglanyşdyrýarlar. Olar sözlemiň eýesi, işlikleri ýa-da doldurgyçlary bilen ulanylyp bilerler. Birinji özara baglanyşykly baglaýjy birinji bölegiň öňünden goýulýar we ikinji baglaýjy bolsa iki jübüt sözleriň arasynda goýulýar. Aşakdaky mysallara serediň:

Both... and (Hem... hem)

- **Both** Jemal **and** I are going to Turkmenbashy.
- Aylar likes **both** drawing **and** playing basketball.
- Ata is **both** tall **and** thin.

Either... or (Ýa... ýa)

- Ogulsoltan can eat **either** melon **or** watermelon.
- You can **either** stay **or** go.

Neither... nor (Ne... ne-de)

“Either” and “neither” are used similarly, but “neither” is used for negative sentences. “Either” we “neither” meňzeş ulanylýar, emma “neither” ýokluk sözlemlerde ulanylýar.

- **Neither** Mekan **nor** Hemra came to class today.
- Jemile is **neither** tall **nor** short.

As... as (ýaly)

- This restaurant is **as** nice **as** Shazada restaurant.

Not... but (-mady, -makçy... gaýta)

- The test was **not** difficult **but** easy.
- They're **not** going to lose, **but** they're going to win.

Not only... but also (Diňe... eýsem)

- **Not only** boys play soccer **but also** girls play it too.

- I'm good **not only** at math **but also** at Russian and literature.

Whether... or (Ya... ya, -sa... -masa)

- **Whether** Shahymerdan comes today **or** comes tomorrow we will still be glad to see him.

- We will go to school **whether** it snows **or** not.



GLOSSARY

ANTONYM – a word that is opposite in meaning to another word in the same language.

BOUND MORPHEME – a morpheme always found in combination with another morpheme.

COMPLEX SENTENCE – a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination.

COMPOSITE SENTENCE – a polypredicative construction formed by two or more predicative lines.

COMPOUND SENTENCE – a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination.

CONNOTATIONAL MEANING – the feelings or ideas that are suggested by a word.

COORDINATION – a type of sentence connection by which the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i. e. equipotently.

DENOTATIONAL MEANING – the conceptual content of a word.

FREE MORPHEME – a morpheme that can build up words by itself, i. e. can be used “freely”.

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY – a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

GRAMMATICAL FORM – a form that unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics.

HOMONYM – a word that has both the same sound and spelling as another, but is different in meaning.

IDIOM (A SET EXPRESSION, A PHRASEOLOGICAL UNIT) – the biggest ready-made two-faceted lexical unit made up of at least two words, or lexemes, and the meaning of each is different from the meaning of the complex unit.

KERNEL PHRASE – a grammatically organized structure in which one element dominates the others.

LEXICOLOGY – a branch of linguistics, the study of words.

MORPHEME – a meaningful segmental component of the word.

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE WORD – external structure of the word.

PARADIGM – the ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function.

PHRASE – a syntactically organized group of words of any morphological composition based on any type of syntactic connection.

PHRASEOLOGY – the branch of lexicology specializing in word-groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning.

POLYSEMANTIC WORD – a word that refers to more than one conceptual category (*warm water* and *warm reception*) and it has two or more interconnected senses.

RHEME – a component of the actual division of the sentence. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre.

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD – the internal structure of the word, or its meaning

SENTENCE – an immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose

SUBORDINATION – a type of sentence connection by which the clauses are arranged as units of unequal rank, one being categorially dominated by the other.

SYNCHRONY – coexistence of lingual elements.

SYNONYM – a word of the same part of speech as another conveying the same concept but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

SYNTAGM – linear relations between units in a segmental sequence.

THEME – a component of the actual division of the sentence. The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i. e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported.

WORD – a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

WORD COMPOUNDING – a kind of word-formation based on combining two immediate constituents (IC) where each is a derivational base.

ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ВОПРОСОВ К ЗАЧЕТУ

1. Язык как системно-структурное образование.
2. Знаковый характер языка.
3. Грамматика как научная дисциплина и ее место в общей теории языка.
4. Грамматическая форма, грамматическое значение, грамматическая категория.
5. Характерные черты строя современного английского языка.
6. Синтетизм и аналитизм в английском языке.
7. Синтагматический и парадигматический аспекты грамматики.
8. Словоизменение и словообразование как грамматическая и лексическая формы части речи.
9. Понятие о морфеме, типы морфем. Аффиксы, их типы.
10. Проблема классификации частей речи.
11. Части речи в английском языке, критерии их выделения.
12. Служебные части речи в английском языке.
13. Имя существительное: категория падежа; категория рода; категория числа; категория определенности / неопределенности.
14. Имя прилагательное: категория степеней сравнения прилагательных.
15. Глагол: категория лица и числа; категория наклонения (модальности).
16. Видо-временная система английского глагола.
17. Обобщенное грамматическое значение местоимений и заместителей.
18. Типы словосочетания. Способы связи в словосочетаниях.
19. Основные коммуникативные типы предложения.
20. Члены предложения как формальные компоненты предложения.
21. Актуальное членение предложения.

УПРАВЛЯЕМАЯ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНАЯ РАБОТА СТУДЕНТОВ (6 Ч)

Тема «Морфемная структура слова» (2 ч)

Морфология. Слово, морфема. Определение морфемы. Ее статус в уровневой системе языка в соотношении со словом. Традиционная классификация морфем, их позиционная и семантическая характеристика.

Рекомендуемая литература:

1. Блох, М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка = A Course in Theoretical English Grammar : учебник / М. Я. Блох. – 4-е изд., испр. – М. : Высш. шк., 2007. – 423 с.

2. Гуревич, В. В. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков : учеб. пособие / В. В. Гуревич. – 5-е изд. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – 168 с.

Форма контроля знаний: выступление с рефератами.

Тема «Знаменательные части речи» (2 ч)

Имя существительное: категория падежа; категория рода; категория числа; категория определенности / неопределенности. Имя прилагательное: категория степеней сравнения прилагательных. Синтетические и аналитические формы степеней сравнения.

Рекомендуемая литература:

1. Блох, М. Я. Практикум по теоретической грамматике английского языка = Theoretical English Grammar: Seminars : учеб. пособие / М. Я. Блох, Т. Н. Семенова, С. В. Тимофеева. – М. : Высш. шк., 2005. – 471 с.

2. Кобрина, Н. А. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / Н. А. Кобрина, Н. Н. Болдырев, А. А. Худяков. – М. : Высш. шк., 2007. – 368 с.

3. Худяков, А. А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов филол. фак. и фак. иностр. яз. вузов / А. А. Худяков. – М. : Академия, 2005. – 256 с.

Форма контроля знаний: выступление с рефератами.

Тема «Основные признаки и категории предложения. Классификация предложений. Актуальное членение предложения» (2 ч)

Понятие коммуникативного типа предложения. Основные коммуникативные типы предложения: повествовательный, вопросительный, побудительный. Понятие актуального членения предложения (информативная перспектива предложения). Соотношение актуального членения предложения и логического членения суждения. Компоненты актуального членения: тема, рема, переход. Языковые средства выражения актуального членения: фонетические

(интонационные), грамматические (детерминативы, интенсификаторы, специальные грамматические конструкции).

Рекомендуемая литература:

1. Блох, М. Я. Практикум по теоретической грамматике английского языка = Theoretical English Grammar: Seminars : учеб. пособие / М. Я. Блох, Т. Н. Семенова, С. В. Тимофеева. – М. : Высш. шк., 2005. – 471 с.

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3. Худяков, А. А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов филол. фак. и фак. иностр. яз. вузов / А. А. Худяков. – М. : Академия, 2005. – 256 с.

Форма контроля знаний: выступление с рефератами.

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