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**Факультет дошкільної та початкової освіти**  
**Кафедра філології**



**Мультимедійний посібник з аудіо- та відеоматеріалами щодо організації самостійної роботи з англійської мови**

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**Частина 1. Теоретичний курс англійської мови**



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# 1. Теоретичний курс англійської мови

## 1.1. Мультимідійна презентація



01.  
Anglo-Saxon.mp4



02. The Norman  
Conquest.mp4



03.  
Shakespeare.mp4



04. The King James  
Bible.mp4



05. The English of  
Science.mp4



06. English and  
Empire.mp4



07. The Age of the  
Dictionary.mp4



08. American  
English.mp4



09. Internet  
English.mp4



10. Global  
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08. American English.mp4



09. Internet English.mp4



10. Global English.mp4

## 1.2. Історія англійської мови

### 1.2.1. Лекції

**Лекція 1. Causes of evolution of the English language. The connection between the history of the English People and the history of English language.**

The evolution or historical development of language includes the internal or structural development of the language system and the "external" history of the language. The description, of internal linguistic history as usually is presented in accordance with the division of language into linguistic levels. Accordingly, the history of the language can be subdivided into historical phonetics, historical morphology, historical syntax and historical lexicology.

The external history of the language is based on functional aspects; the spread of the language, in geographical and social space; the differentiation of language into functional varieties (variants, dialects), contacts with other languages. Most of these factors are connected with the history of the speech community: the structure of society, the migration of tribes, the growth of culture and literature.

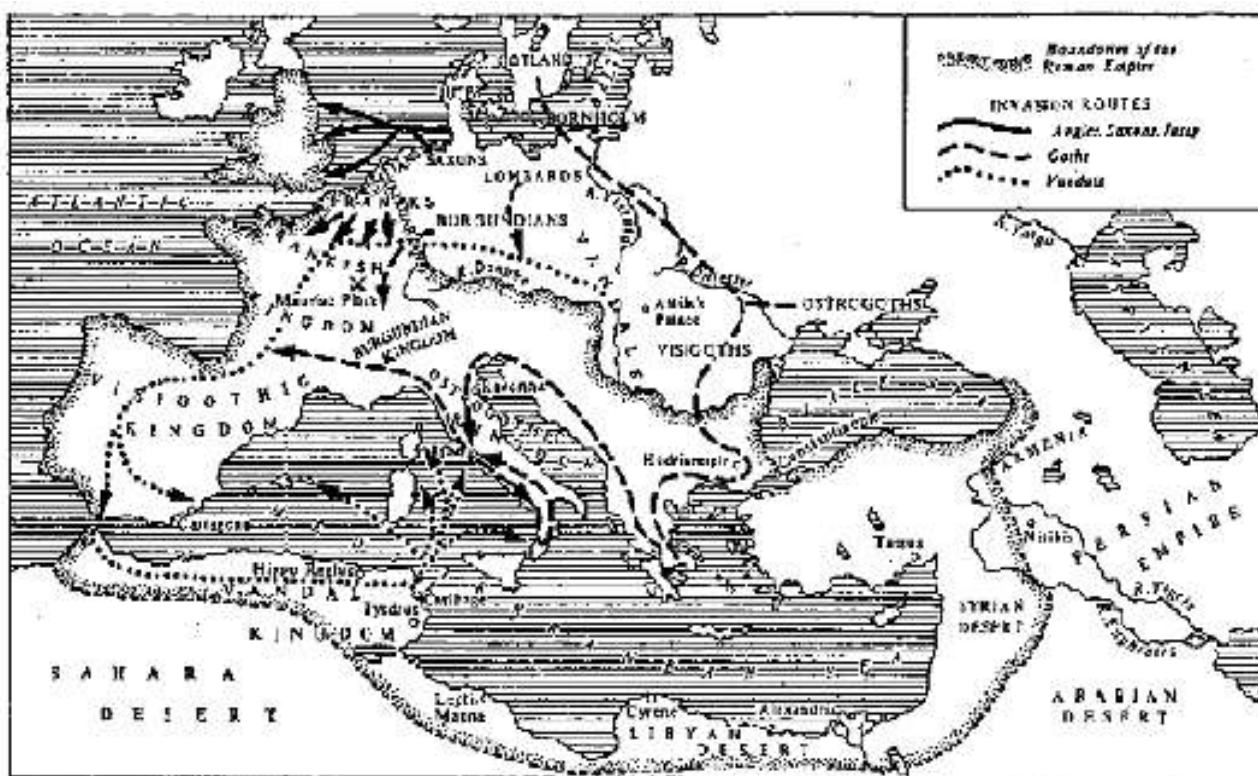
Certain changes constantly occur at one or another linguistic level. The proportion of stable and changeable features varies at different historical periods. We can find static and dynamics both in synchrony and diachrony. Dynamics in diachrony constitutes linguistic change. Static in diachrony constitutes constant features. These constant features are: a) permanent universal properties of language which do not alter through time; the division of sounds into vowels and consonant; the distinction between the main parts of speech and the parts of the sentence. Stable characteristics have most of the pronouns, many form words. Many ways of word-formation have remained historically stable; b) some grammatical categories: number of nouns, degrees of comparison, suffered little alteration; c) other categories, such as case and gender have undergone profound changes.

Linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual. The rate of linguistic changes is restricted by the communicative function of the language between the speakers of different generations. It is important to note that different levels of language develop at different rates. The vocabulary of the language can change more rapidly in comparison with changes in other linguistic levels. The system of phonetics can not be subjected to rapid changes since it must preserve the opposition between phonemes required for the distinction of the same. The grammatical system is very slow to change since it must provide stable formal devices for arranging words into classes and for connecting them into phrases and sentences. The present-day English we learn and speak now-a-days represents Static in synchrony. That is dynamics in synchrony.

A linguistic change begins with synchronic variation. Alongside the existing language units - words, forms, affixes — there spring up new units. They may be similar in meaning, but slightly different in form, stylistic connotations, distribution. A new meaning may arise in the existing word or form in addition to their main meanings.

These two kinds of variation are called formal and semantic. They represent dynamics un synchrony and supply material for linguistic change. A new feature - a word, a form, a sound - can be recognized as a linguistic change only after it has been accepted for general use in most varieties of language and in its main Literary Standard variety.

This question has always attracted the attention of linguists and has given rise to various explanation and theories. The philologists of the romantic trend interpreted the history of Indo-European, and especially Germanic languages, as decline and degradation of the parent language. Linguists of the naturalist trend considered language to be a living organism and associated the stages in language history with stages of life: birth, youth, maturity, old age, and death. The psychological theories attributed linguistic changes to individual psychology. Sociologist in linguistics maintained that ling. changed is caused by social conditions and events in external history. Great importance is attached to the variability of speech, in social groups as the primary factor of change.



Migration of Germanic Tribes in the 2nd-6th centuries

The present-day theory says, that like any movement in nature and society, the evolution of language, is caused by the struggle of opposites. The moving power of the development is made up of two main forces. The growing and changing needs of men in

the speech community and the resisting force that curbs the changes and preserved the language in a state fit for communication. The two forces are manifestations of the two principle functions of language - its expressive and communicative functions. The struggle of the two opposites can also be described as the opposition of thought and means of its expression or the opposition of growing needs of expression and the available resources of language. These general external (extra-linguistic) and internal (infra-linguistic) factors operate in all languages in all times.

## **Лекція 2. German languages – old and new. The expansion of English in the USA and other countries.**

Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historical, or genealogical classification, groups languages in accordance with their origin from a common linguistic ancestor.

Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which is one of the 12 groups of the Indo-European (IE) linguistic family, Germanic is one of the major group. It includes English, German, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Netherlandish, Afrikaans, Frisian, Faroese, Yiddish.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many countries is one of two languages in a bilingual community. The estimates for English range from 250 to 300 million people who have it as their mother tongue. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 million. To this rough estimate we could add an indefinite number of bilingual people in the countries when English is used as an official language (over 50 countries). English is spoken in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, and many other former British colonies and dominions.

All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history. The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of the Proto-Germanic (PG) language. It is the linguistic ancestor of the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from the western IE tongues between 15<sup>th</sup> c. and 10<sup>th</sup> c. The ancient Germans moved further north

than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of Germans, where they became a separate group of the IE family. Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Germans have extended over a larger territory and PG language broke into 3 parts: East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic.

At the later stage of the great migration period - in the 5th c - a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxons, the Frisians and the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the English language. The territory of English was at first confined to what is now known as England proper.

The subjugation of Wales was completed in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. The English language penetrated into Wales and partly replaced the native Celtic dialect. But a large proportion of population did not give up their mother tongue and continued to speak Welsh. The attempts to conquer Ireland in 13-14<sup>th</sup> c. ended in failure. Only the area around Dublin was ruled direct from England. Scottish had a chance to develop into an independent language during the Scotland's self-government. After the unification with England under the Stuarts (1603) Scottish was reduced to dialectal status. English became both the official and the literary language in Scotland. Thus by the end of the Early NE period, the area of English had expanded just all over the British Isles.

In the last three hundred years the English language has extended to all the continents of the world and the number of English speakers has multiplied. England's colonial expansion to the New World began in the late 15<sup>th</sup> c. Many immigrants from Great Britain settled in America. The colonist spoke different dialects of English. Those dialects gradually blended into a new variant of the English language, American English. The expansion of English to Asia was mainly connected with the occupation of India. Later Britain acquired other possessions in Asia, turning them into colonies, dominions or protectorates. Thus, the English language extended to many areas in Asia. Australia was the place of deportation of British convicts since the late 18<sup>th</sup> c. A flow of immigrants were attracted to Australia, at first by the free grants of land, later by

discovery of gold.

Their language is regarded by some linguists as an independent geographical variant of English, though its difference from British English is not great. British penetration into Africa (Sudan, Egypt) dealt with financial dependence, political control, trade, navy raids. But in the course of the 20-th century Great Britain lost the greater part of its possessions overseas and the use of the English language was reduced.

### Germanic Languages

	East Germanic	North Germanic	West Germanic
Old Germanic languages (with dates of the earliest records)	Gothic (4th c.) Vandalic Burgundian	Old Norse or Old Scandinavian (2nd-3rd c.) Old Icelandic (12th c.) Old Norwegian (13th c.) Old Danish (13th c.) Old Swedish (13th c.)	Anglian, Frisian, Jutish, Saxon, Franconian, High German (Alemannic, Thuringian, Swabian, Bavarian) Old English (7th c.) Old Saxon (9th c.) Old High German (8th c.) Old Dutch (12th c.)
Modern Germanic languages	No living languages	Icelandic Norwegian Danish Swedish Faroese	English German Netherlandish Afrikaans Yiddish Frisian

### Лекція 3. Chronological division in the history of English. The Anglo-Saxon, Scandinavian invasion of Great Britain and the Norman conquest.

The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME), New English (NE). Taking into account both external and internal aspects it is further subdivided into VII periods.



## Periodisation of the History of English

I	Early OE (also: Pre-written OE)	c. 450 — c. 700	} <b>OLD ENGLISH</b>
II	OE (also: Written OE)	c. 700 — 1066	
III	Early ME	1066 — c. 1350	} <b>MIDDLE ENGLISH</b>
IV	ME (also: Classical ME)	c. 1350 — 1475	
V	Early NE	1476 — c. 1660	<b>EARLY NEW ENGLISH</b>
VI	Normalisation Period (also: Age of Correctness, Neo-Classical period)	c. 1660 — c. 1800	} <b>NEW ENGLISH (also: MODERN ENGLISH)</b>
VII	Late NE, or Mod E (including Present-day English)	c. 1800 . . . . . since 1945 . . . . .	

I. Early OE is a stage of tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders - Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians, which were gradually losing contacts with the related continental dialects. The tribal dialects were used for oral communication.

II. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects: Kentish, Mercian, Northumbrian and West Saxon, the later was more important in the Sphere of writing due to the rise of the kingdom of Wessex to political and cultural prominence. It is the period of the growing dialectal divergence. It is the period of "full-endings" in comparison with later periods.

III. Early Middle English was the stage of the greatest dialectal divergence. Under the Norman rule the official language was French, towards the end of the period English began to displace French. But the lack of official English all the period long caused intensive linguistic changes. It was a time of great changes at all the levels of the language. Grammatical alterations had transformed English from a highly inflected language into a mainly analytical one. (It was a period of "lost inflections".

IV. Late ME was the time of the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language. The mixed London dialect, originally derived from the Southern dialectal group gained the literary authority of other dialects. Most of the inflections had fallen together. It was the period "leveled endings" and the rose numerous new analytical forms.

V. Early NE period was the period when the growth of the English nation was accompanied by the formation of the national English language. The London dialect had

risen to prominence and formed the basis of the growing national literary language. It was the period of great phonetic, grammatical and lexical changes.

VI. This period (1650 - 1800) is called Normalisation. Received standards began to be recognized as correct at the given period. The norms were fixed as rules of correct usage in dictionaries and grammar books. During the 17<sup>th</sup> c. literary English differentiated into styles and its area extended, far beyond the borders of the British Isles, first of all to North America. Pronunciation was being stabilized during this period. Word usage and grammatical constructions was subjected to restriction and normalization.

VII. The English language of the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> century represents the seventh period in the history of English language – Late NE or Mod. English.

By that time it had acquired all the properties of a national language with its functional stratification and recognized standards. It was strictly distinguished from the local and social dialects. Now the "best" form of English is considered the Redeived Standard. The expansion of English overseas proceeded together with the growth of the British Empire in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Some geographical varieties of English are now recognized as independent variants of the language. The kind of English used the last 40 years represents present-day English.

The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by German tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes in the 5<sup>th</sup> century of our era. It was soon after the departure of the Roman legions that the West Germanic tribes came there and consolidated into a number of kingdoms: The Jutes founded Kent; the Saxons - Wessex; the Angles -East Anglia, Mercia & Northumbria.

Some three hundred years after the West Germanic tribes had settled in England, there was another wave of invasions, this time by Scandinavians. In the history books these people are usually referred to as "Danes," but there were Swedes and Norwegians among them. The dialects they spoke belonged to the Northern rather than the Western division of Germanic. They differed rather more from the dialects of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes than these differed from each other. In spite of different habits of pronunciation, most of the root words were enough alike to be recognizable. The

difficulty caused by differences in inflection was partly solved by dropping some of the inflections.

In 1066 the Normans conquered England. They, like the Danes, had originally come from Scandinavia. But they had settled in northern France, and for some undiscoverable reason had given up their own language and learned to speak a dialect of French. For several centuries Normans, and other Frenchmen that they invited in later, held most of the important positions in England, and it seemed quite possible that French would become the standard language of the country. But the bulk of the population were still English. Most of them never learned French, and eventually—though only after several centuries—all the nobles and officials were using English.



A page from the Gospels in Latin with interlinear Old English glosses

§ 110. Principal Old English Written Records

Dialects			
Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian	Northumbrian
8th century			
Names in Latin, Charters Glosses to Bede's <b>ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE</b>	Charters	Names in Latin, Charters Glosses	Runic inscriptions; the Ruthwell Cross; the Franks Casket Poetry attributed to Caedmon (HYMN, GENESIS, EXODUS) Poetry attributed to Cynewulf (CHRIST, FATE OF THE APOSTLES, ELENE) <b>BEOWULF</b> Elegiac poems (TRAVELLER'S SONG, SEAFARER, WANDERER)
9th century			
Charters	Charters Alfred's literary activity (translations of Gregory's PASTORAL CARE, Orosius' WORLD HISTORY; Boethius CONSOLATION OF PHILOSOPHY; Bede's ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY); the earliest part of the ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE, Charters; Royal Writs	Charters of Mercian kings Interlinear glosses to psalters and gospels Hymns	Riddles

**Лекція 4. The evolution of the phonetics, its vowel and consonants system. The role of word-accent in the simplification of word structure. Changes in unstressed vowels. The reverse tendencies, the long and short vowels in Old English undwent.**

The OE sound-system developed from the PG system. In prewritten period and especially in Early OE it underwent multiple changes.

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE. In OE word-stress was fixed. A dynamic or force stress was employed. It remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms and as a rule, did not shift in word-building, either. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme.

If the words were derived from the same root, word-stress served to distinguish the noun from the verb: 'and - swarn (n) - and-'swarian (v) (answer) 'on - zin (n) - on-'zinnan (v) (beginning)

While the number of accented vowels had grown due to the appearance of new qualitative differences, the number of vowels distinguished in unstressed position had been reduced. In unstressed syllables, final syllables especially long vowels were shortened, and thus the opposition of vowels - long:: short -was neutralized. Some short vowels in final unaccented syllables were dropped.

Sound changes, particularly vowel changes, took place in English at every period of history. Usually the change began with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones. In the course of time some allophones prevailed over the others and a replacement took place. It may result both in splitting and merging. The rise of new phonemes and redistribution, of new allophones among the existing phonemes.

*Table 1*

**Splitting of [a] and [a:] in Early Old English**

Change illustrated		Examples		
PG	OE	Other OG languages	OE	NE
a	æ	<i>Gt</i> pata <i>O Icel</i> dagr	þæt dæg	<i>that</i> <i>day</i>
	o, ā	<i>Gt</i> mann(a) <i>O Icel</i> land	mon land	<i>man</i> <i>land</i>
	a	<i>Gt</i> magan <i>Gt</i> dagos	magan dagas	<i>may</i> <i>days</i>
a:	æ:	<i>OHG</i> dār <i>OHG</i> slāfen	þær slāpan	<i>there</i> <i>sleep</i>
	o:	<i>OHG</i> mōna <i>O Icel</i> mánaðr	mōna mōnaþ	<i>moon</i> <i>month</i>

The OE vowel system displayed an obvious tendency towards a symmetrical, balanced arrangement since almost every long vowel had a corresponding short counterpart. All the vowels listed in the table could occur in stressed position.

Table 2

**Old English Reflexes of Proto-Germanic Diphthongs  
(or Bi-Phonemic Sequences)**

Change illustrated		Examples		
PG	OE	Other OG languages	OE	NE
a + i	a:	<i>Gt</i> stains <i>Gt</i> ains	stān ān	stone one
e + i	i:	<i>Gt</i> meins <sup>1</sup> <i>Gt</i> reisan	mīn rīsan	mine, my rise
a + u	ea:	<i>O Icel</i> austr <i>Gt</i> auso <i>Gt</i> augo (cf. G Auge)	ēast ēare ēaze	east ear eye
e + u	eo:	<i>Gt</i> piudans <i>Gt</i> kiusan	þēoden cēosan	'king' choose
i + u	io:	<i>Gt</i> diups	dēop, dīop <sup>2</sup>	deep

<sup>1</sup> The vowel in *Gt* is [i:], though the spelling resembles the PG [ei].  
<sup>2</sup> In OE the diphthongs [eo:] and [io:] occur as dialectal variants.

Table 3

**Breaking and Diphthongisation**

Conditions	Change illustrated		Examples			
	Early OE	OE	Other OG languages and OE dialects	WS	NE	
Breaking	before <i>l+l</i> or <i>l</i> + other consonants	æ	ea	<i>Gt</i> alls <i>Merc</i> all <i>North</i> ald	eall eald	all old
	<i>h</i> + other consonants	æ: æ e	ea: ea eo	<i>OHG</i> nāh <i>Gt</i> ahtau <i>OHG</i> fehtan	nēah eahta feohtan	near eight fight
	<i>r</i> + other consonants	e æ	eo ea	<i>OHG</i> herza <i>OHG</i> arm <i>Gt</i> hardus	heorte earn heard	heart arm hard
Diphthongisation	after { sk' k'	e	ie	<i>OHG</i> skild	sciold, scyld	shield
		æ	ea	<i>OHG</i> scal <i>Gt</i> skadus	sceal sceadu	shall shade
	j	e	ie	loan-words cerasus (L)	cieres, cyrs	cherries
		æ	ea	castra (L)	ceaster	chester ('camp')
		æ: e	ea: ie	<i>OHG</i> jār <i>Gt</i> giban	zēar ziefan	year give

## Palatal Mutation

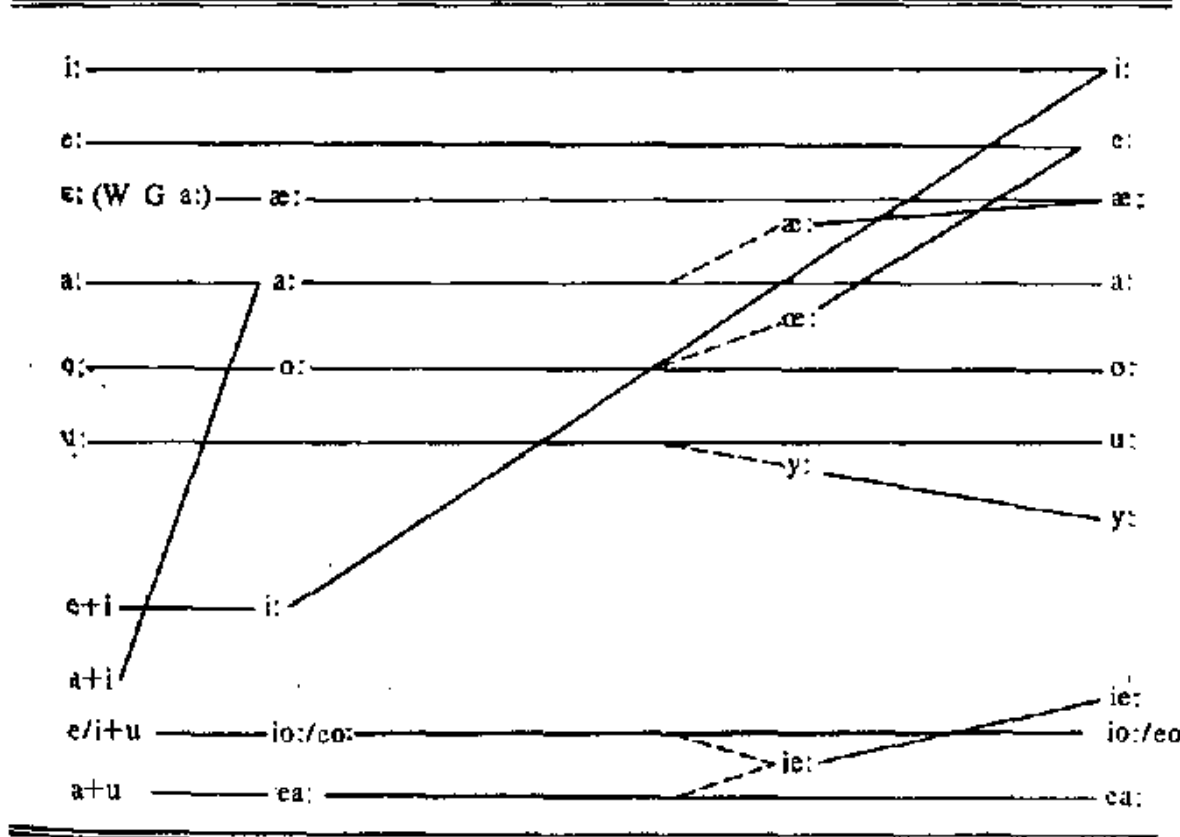
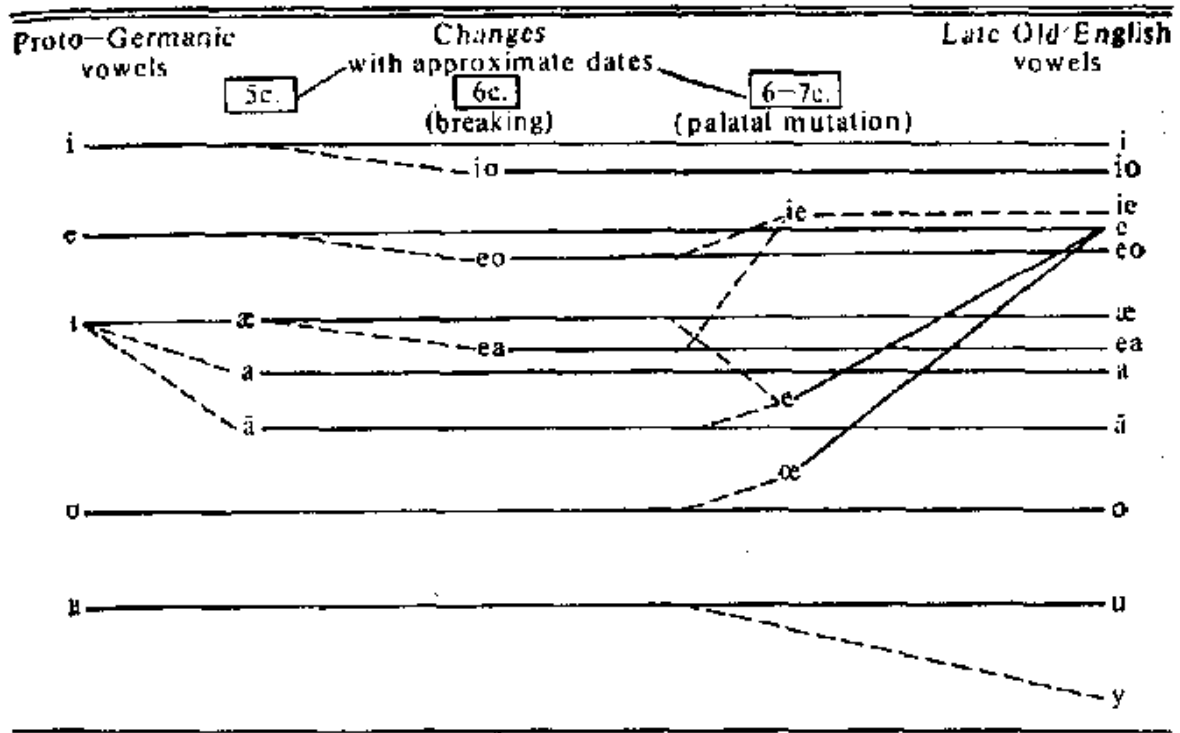
Change illustrated		Examples		
Vowels prior to palatal mutation	Mutated vowels	Gt or OE (without palatal mutation)	OE (palatal mutation)	NE
æ a o	e	Gt mats OE sala, Gt sal- jan	mete sellan	<i>meat</i> <i>sale, sell</i>
a: o		Gt sandjan OE lār, Gt lais- jan	sendan lāran	<i>send</i> <i>'teaching', 'teach'</i>
o	e	OE ān OE dohtor	āniz dehter	<i>one, any</i> <i>daughter</i> (Nom. and Dat. sg)
o:	e:	OE bōc OE dōm	bēc dēman	<i>book, books</i> <i>doom</i>
u	y	Gt gadōmjan OE full	dēman fyllan	<i>deem</i> <i>fill</i>
u: ea eo	y: ie	Gt fulljan OE mūs	fyllan mȳs	<i>fill</i> <i>mouse, mice</i>
ea: eo:		OE eald OE feor	ieldra fierra	<i>old, elder</i> <i>far, farther</i>
ea: eo:	ie: ie:	OE zelēafa Gt galaubjan	zeliefan elƿiediz <i>adj</i>	<i>belief,</i> <i>believe</i>
eo:		OE ƿēod		<i>'tribe', 'of a tribe'</i>

In unstressed syllables we find only 5 monophthongs, and even these five vowels could not be used for phonetic contrast. The system of phonemes appearing in unstressed syllables consists of 3 units: e/i a o/u

On the whole, consonants were historically more stable, than vowels, though certain changes took place in all historical periods. OE did not contain all the consonants that arose in PG. Many consonants underwent diverse changes: qualitative and quantitative, independent and positional. The consonant changes dated in pre-written period referred to as "West Germanic" as they are shared by all the languages of the WG subgroup. They may have taken place at the transitional stage from PG to Early OE. Other changes are specifically English, they took place in Early OE. In Early OE velar consonants split into two distinct sets of sounds, which eventually led to the growth of new phonemes: k – k', g – g'.

Table 5

Early Old English Vowel Changes



———— Main developments  
 - - - - - Developments under certain conditions



Table 6

## Old English Vowels

Monophthongs										Diphthongs		
Short	i	e	(œ)	æ	(ā)	a	o	u	y	(ie)	ea	eo
Long	i:	e:	(œ:)	æ:	a:		o:	u:	y:	(ie:)	ea:	eo:

The difference between velar and palatal consonants was not shown in the spelling of the OE period. In the course of time the phonetic difference between them grew and towards the end of the period the palatal consonants developed into sibilants or affricates [k']>[tʃ], [g]>[dʒ]. In ME they were indicated by means of special diagraphs and letter sequences.

Table 7

## Reflexes of Proto-Germanic Fricatives in Old English

Change illustrated			Examples		
	Late PG	OE	Other OG languages	OE	NE
Hardening	ð	d	O Icel rauðr Gt wasida [ð]	rēad werede	<i>red</i> <i>wore</i> , past of <i>wear</i>
	v	b	Gt broþar	brōþor dumbe	<i>brother</i> <i>dumb</i>
	ɣ	g	Gt guma	guma	'man'
Voicing or devoicing	v	v f	Gt sibun [v] Gt hlāifs (Cf. R <i>хлеб</i> )	seofon [v] hlāfas [v] hlāf [f]	<i>seven</i> <i>loaves</i> <i>loaf</i>
	f	v f	Gt wulfos Gt wulfs	wulfas [v] wulf [f]	<i>wolves</i> <i>wolf</i>
	θ	ð θ	Gt siuþan [θ] Gt sauþ [θ]	sēoþan [ð] sēað [θ]	<i>seethe</i> <i>seethed</i>
	ɣ	ɣ x	Gt dagos Gt baúrǵs	daȝas buruh, burh	<i>days</i> <i>borough</i>
	s	z s	Gt kiusan [s] Gt kaus [s]	cēosan [z] cēas [s]	<i>choose</i> <i>chose</i>
Rhotacism	z	r	Gt maiza [z] Gt huzd	māra hord	<i>more</i> <i>hoard</i>

The system consisted of several correlated sets of consonants. All the consonants fell into noise consonants and sonorant. The noise consonants were subdivided into plosives and fricatives. Plosives were further differentiated as voiced and voiceless.

The most universal distinctive feature in the consonant system was the difference in length. Long consonants were opposed to short ones on a phonetic level. Single and geminated consonants were found in identical phonetic conditions.

Table 8

**Palatalisation and Splitting of Velar Consonants**

Change illustrated		Examples		
Before and after front vowels	In other positions	OE	NE	
k	k'	k	cinn, birce, tēcan (from *tākjan)	chin, birch, teach
			can, macian (from *makōjan)	can, make
g	g'	g	senzan (from *sangjan)	singe
g:	g':		ec3, bryc3	edge, bridge
x	x'	x, h	3ān, 3rētan	go, greet
			neaht, niht	night
ɣ	j	ɣ	hors, hlāf	horse, loaf
			dæ3, 3eard	day, yard
			dagas	days

Table 9

**Old English Consonants**

Place of articulation		Labial, labiodental		Forelingual (dental)		Mediolingual (palatal)		Back lingual (velar)		
Manner of articulation										
Noise consonants	plosive	voiceless	p	p:	t	t:	k'	k':	k	k:
		voiced	b	b:	d	d:		g':	g	g:
	fricative	voiceless	f	f:	θ	θ:	x'	x':	x	x:
		voiced	v		ð	z	ɣ'	(j)	ɣ	(h)
Sonorants			m	m:	n	n:				(ŋ)
			w		r	l	j			

§ 417. Main Historical Sources of Modern Spellings

Sound	Spelling	Examples	Sound changes accounting for the spelling	Notes and references
<b>Vowels</b> <i>Monophthongs</i> <b>Short</b>			<b>ME NE</b>	
æ	a	cat, man	a > æ	§ 392
ɔ	a after w	was, want	wa > wɔ	§ 392
e	ea before d, th	head, death	ɛ: > e: > e	§ 383, 400
u	oo before t, k	foot, book	o: > u: > u	§ 383, 400
ʌ	o, u	come, nut	u > ʌ	In ME both u and o could stand for [u]. § 359, 393
	oo before d	flood	o: > u: > u > ʌ	§ 383, 393, 400
ə	-er, -re, -or	reader, centre, tutor	r } > ə er }	§ 397

Sound	Spelling	Examples	Sound changes, accounting for the spelling	Notes and references
<b>Consonants</b>				
ð	th between vowels	bathe	ð — ð	§ 139, 358
	th initially in form-words	the	θ > ð	§ 358, 406
z	s between vowels	choose, easy	z — z	§ 138
	s finally (unless preceded by voiceless consonants)	is, days	s > z	§ 406 (cf. stops)
ʃ	sh	ship, flesh	ʃ — ʃ	from OE [sk'], § 358, 402
	ssi, ti	passion, action	sj — ʃ	§ 404
tʃ	ch, tch	chin, watch	tʃ — tʃ	§ 357
	ture	nature	tj > tʃ	§ 404
ʒ	g	bourgeois	ʒ — ʒ	§ 415
	si, se	pleasure	zj > ʒ	§ 404
dʒ	g	gender	dʒ — dʒ	§ 357 (cf. go [g])
s	c	certain	s — s	§ 357 (cf. cup [k])

Sound	Spelling	Examples	Sound changes accounting for the spelling	Notes and references
Long i:	<i>ee, ie, e, ea</i>	<i>meet, field, he, meat</i>	e: > i: ɛ: > i:	§ 383 § 383
a:	<i>ar</i> <i>a</i> before <i>st, nt, ft</i>	<i>arm</i> <i>blast, plant, after</i>	ar > a: a > a:	§ 397 § 399
ɔ:	<i>or, oar, ar</i> after <i>w</i>	<i>for, board, warm</i>	or > ɔ: war > wɔ:	§ 397 § 392, 397
ə:	<i>au, aw</i> <i>er, ir, ur</i>	<i>cause, draw</i> <i>her, bird, turn</i>	au > ɔ: ir } > ə: ur } er }	§ 359, 383 § 397
u:	<i>oo</i>	<i>moon</i>	o: > u:	§ 383
<b>Diphthongs</b>				
er	<i>ai, ei, ay</i> <i>a</i> in open syllables	<i>rain, rein, day</i> <i>make, late</i>	ai } > er ei } a: > er	§ 359, 380 § 372, 383
ar	<i>i, y</i> in open syllables <i>i</i> before <i>ld, nd, mb</i> <i>i</i> before <i>gh, ght</i>	<i>time, my</i> <i>mild, kind, climb</i> <i>sigh, night</i>	i: > ar i: > ar ix' > i: > ar	§ 359, 383 § 371, 383 § 383, 395
au	<i>ou, ow</i>	<i>sound, now</i>	u: > au	§ 359, 383
ou	<i>o</i> in open syllables, <i>ou, ow, o</i> before <i>ld</i>	<i>rode, no, oak</i> <i>soul, row, old</i>	ɔ: > ou ou — ou ɔ: > ou	§ 383, 386 § 359, 380 from OE [a/ea] Early ME [a:] § 371, 383
ɪə	<i>ere, eer, ear</i>	<i>here, beer, ear</i>	e:r > ɪə ɛ:r > ɪə	§ 383, 397
ɛə	<i>ear, ere, are</i>	<i>bear, there, hare</i>	ɛ:r > ɛə a:r > ɛə	Diphthongs and triphthongs with ə-glides
ɔə, ɔ: uə	<i>ore</i> <i>oor</i>	<i>more</i> <i>poor</i>	ɔ:r > ɔə o:r > uə	arose due to vocalisation of [r] after long vowels at different stages of the Great Vowel Shift.
<b>Triphthongs</b>				
arə	<i>ire</i>	<i>shire</i>	i:r > arə	
auə	<i>our, ower</i>	<i>our, power</i>	u:r > auə	

**Лекція 5. The evolution of the nominal parts of speech in old, middle and new English periods. The changes of the grammatical type of the language. The tendency of simplification.**

The category of number consisted of two numbers: singular and plural. They were well distinguished formally in all declensions. The Noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. They were not distinguished formally in all the cases. In most declensions 2 or even 3 forms were homonymous. The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions. The total number of them exceeded 25. There were only 10 distinct endings and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms. OE system of declension was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, (1) the gender of nouns, (2) the phonetic structure of a word, phonetic changes in the final syllables. OE pronouns fell roughly the same main classes as modern pronoun: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, and negative. As for relative possessive and reflexive pronouns they were not fully developed in OE. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to nouns or adjectives.

The adjective in OE had grammatical categories of number, gender, and case. These were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun if modified or with the subject of the sentence - if the adjective was a predicative.

**Declension of Adjectives  
in Late Middle English**

	<i>sg</i>	<i>pl</i>
<b>Strong</b>	blind	blinde
<b>Weak</b>	blinde	blinde

Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns; in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case; Instrumental, it was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dative case, expressing an instrumental meaning.

The division of words into parts of speech has proved to be one of the most permanent characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME (provided that the article is treated as an independent part of speech).

The OE noun had the grammatical categories of Number and Case which were formally distinguished in an elaborate system of declensions. However, homonymous forms in the OE noun paradigms neutralised some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions — as well as the influence of some types upon other types — disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree.

The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems.

In the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support — the weakened and levelled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

The grammatical category of Case was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME.

## Declension of Nouns in the Late 14th and 15th c.

Main declension		Variant forms and deviations
<b>Singular</b>		
Comm. case (OE Nom., Dat., Acc., Gen. case)	<i>fish, end(e)</i> <i>tale, sun(e), etc.</i> <i>wolf, hous(e), etc.</i> <i>fishes, endes, tales, sunes, etc.</i> <i>wolves, houses, etc.<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>lady/ladys, fader/faderes</i>
<b>Plural</b>		
Comm. case (OE Nom., Dat., Acc., Gen. case)	<i>fishes, endes</i> <i>tales, sunes, etc.</i> <i>wolves, houses,<sup>1</sup> etc.</i> <i>fishes, endes</i> <i>tales, sunes</i> <i>wolves, houses, etc.</i>	<i>hors/horses/horsen, thing/ thinges, eyen/eyes</i>
<b>Minor groups</b>		
<b>Singular</b>		
Comm. case Gen. case	<i>foot, mous(e), ox</i> <i>footes, mouses, oxen</i>	
<b>Plural</b>		
Comm. case Gen. case	<i>feet, mis(e), oxen</i> <i>feetes, mices, oxen(es)</i>	<i>brothers/brethern childre/children</i>
<sup>1</sup> The interchange of voiced and voiceless fricatives [s~z, f~v] and [θ~ð] arose as allophonic variation in Early OE, but later became phonemic and was preserved in some Mod F words (see § 139).		

The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four I (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME. The syncretism of cases was a I slow process which went on step by step. As shown above (§ 163 ff) even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Ace. Were not distinguished in the pi, and in some classes they coincided also in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers.

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the plural. In the 14th c. the ending -es of the Gen. sg had become almost universal.

## Reduction of Nominal Grammatical Categories in Early Middle English

Grammatical Categories										
	Gender		Case		Number		Definiteness/ Indefiniteness		Comparison	
	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME
Noun	3	—	4	2	2	2	—	—	—	—
Adjective	3	—	5	—	2	—	2	—	3	3
Personal pronoun 1st and 2nd p.	—	—	4	2	3	2	—	—	—	—
3rd p.	3	3	4	2	2	2	—	—	—	—
Demonstrative pronouns	3	—	5	—	2	2	—	—	—	—

The history of the Gen. Case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the . case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival — prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition *of*. The practice to express genitival relations by the *of*-phrase goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in *Jillric's* writings (10th c) but its regular use instead of the inflectional Gen. does not become established until the 12th c. The use of the *of*-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the *of*-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones.

The other grammatical category of the noun, Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate



number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number.

Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their evolution would repeat the evolution of nouns; in reality it was in many respects different. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns and pronouns was not alike. It differed | in the rate and extent of changes, in the dates and geographical directions, I though the morphology of pronouns, like the morphology of nouns, was simplified.

In Early ME the OE Fern, pronoun of the 3rd p. sg heo (related to all the other pronouns of the 3rd p. — he, hit, hie) was replaced by a group of variants —he, ho, see, sho, she: one of them — she - finally prevailed over the others. The new Fern, pronoun, Late ME she, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of the Fem, gender — seo. It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas.

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date — in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the) 1 forms of the 2nd p. — ye, you, your — were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd s | were widely used as equivalents of thou, thee, thine. Later thou became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays thou is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of ~u and thou in Shakespeare's sonnets.

The category of Case underwent profound alterations. The forms of the Dat. And the Ace. cases began to merge in OE, especially in the West Saxon dialect. The syncretism of the Dat. and Ace. took a long time: it began in Early OE in the 1st and 2nd p. pi; in Late OE it extended to the 1st and 2nd p. sg; in Early ME it spread to the 3rd p.; it was completed in Late ME.

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison.

## Personal and Possessive Pronouns in ME and Early NE<sup>1</sup>

Person	Singular		Plural	
	ME	Early NE	ME	Early NE
<b>1st p.</b> Nom. Obj. (from OE Acc. and Dat.) Poss. (from OE Gen.)	ich/I me  myn(e)/my	I me  my/mine	we us  our(e)/ ours	we us  our, ours
<b>2nd p.</b> Nom. Obj. (from OE Acc. and Dat.) Poss. (from OE Gen.)	thou/thow thee  thyn(e)/thy	thou/ye thee/you  thy/your/thine/ yours	ye you  your(e)/ yours	you/ye you  your, yours

<sup>1</sup> ME personal pronouns displayed considerable dialectal diversity. The table includes the main variants of the forms in ME and Early NE.

Person	Singular			Plural		
	ME			ME	Early NE	
<b>3rd p.</b> Nom. Obj. (from OE Acc. and Dat.) Poss. (from OE Gen.)	M. he him  his	F. he/she hir(e)/ her	N. hit/it him/ it  his	he, she, it him, her, it  his, her, his/its his, hers, his/its	hie/they hem/them  her(e)/ their(e)	they them  their, theirs

The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs *ma*, *bet*, *betst*,

— 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with ME more and most became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words.

It appears that in the course of history the adjective has lost all the dependent grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically adjectival category — the comparison. The adjective is the only nominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building.

**Лекція 6. Analytical tendencies in the development of the verb. Grows of the new grammatical categories and new forms within the existing grammatical categories. The sources of the development of the analytical forms.**

OE verb had few grammatical categories, but its paradigm had a very complicated structure. All the forms of the verb were synthetic; the analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two forms, Present and Past. The category of person was made up of three forms the 1st, the 2nd, and the 3d. Finite verbs were distinguished between two numbers: singular and plural. In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. In many respects they were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verbs: their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features. The verbal nature of the Infinitive and the Participle was revealed in some of their functions and in their combinability. Like finite forms of the verb they could take direct, objects and be modified by adverbs.

The majority of OE verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. The main difference between them lays in the means of forming the principle forms, or the stems of the verbs. All the forms of the verb, finite as well as non-finite, were derived from a set of 'stems': Present Tense stem (or Infinitive), Past Tense stem, Participle II. In addition there were minor groups of verbs: preterit-presents, suppletive (anomalous, irregular). All the verbs with the exception of the strong verbs and minor groups, which make a total of about 315-320 units, were weak verbs. They formed their

Past and Participle II by means of the dental suffix -d, -t. The weak verbs were subdivided into 3 classes differing in the ending of the Infin., the sonority of the suffix, and the sound preceding the suffix.

### Conjugation of Verbs in Middle English and Early New English<sup>1</sup>

	Strong		Weak	
	ME	Early NE	ME	Early NE
<i>Infinitive</i>	finde(n)	find	looke(n)	look
<b>Present tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1st	finde	find	looke	look
2nd	findest/finde	findest	lookest /lookes	lookest
3rd	findeth/finde	finds /findeth	looketh /lookes	looks /looketh
Pl	finde(n)/findeth /finde	find	looke(n) /looketh /lookes	look
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	finde	find	looke	look
Pl	finde(n)		looke(n)	
<i>Imperative</i>	find(e) findeth/finde		look(e) looketh /looke	
<i>Participle I</i>	finding(e)/-ende /findind(e) /findand(e)		finding	
<b>Past tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1st	fand <sup>2</sup>	found	looked(e)	looked
2nd	founde/fand /fandes		lookedest	
3rd	fand		looked(e)	
Pl	founde(n)	looked(en)		
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	founde	found	looked(e)	looked
Pl	founde(n)	found	looked(en)	looked
<i>Participle II</i>	founden	found	looked	looked

<sup>1</sup> In the lists of variants the London form comes first.

<sup>2</sup> By the end of the 15th c. the two stems of the Past tense of strong verbs fell together: *fand* and *founde(n)* was replaced by *found*, see strong verbs, § 478.

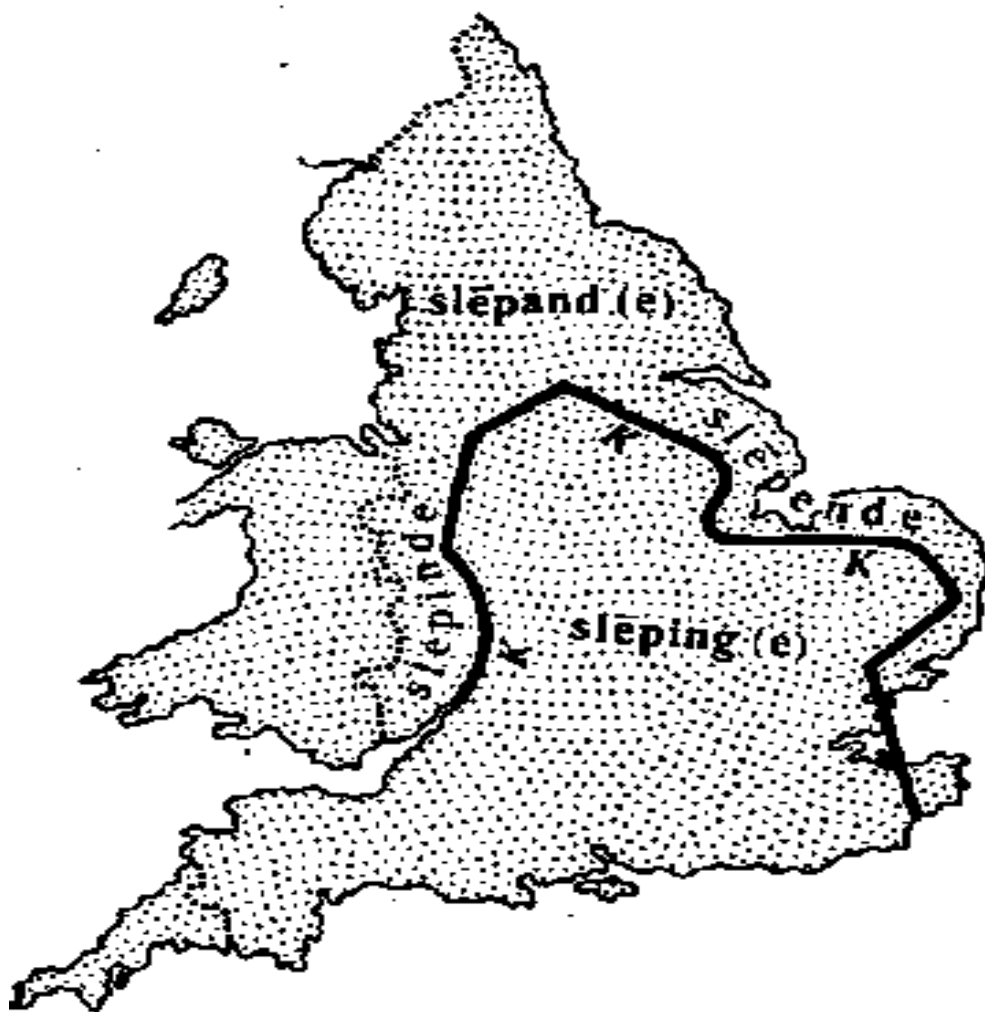
In ME and NE verb paradigm expanded, owing to addition of new grammatical forms and to the formation of new grammatical forms and to the formation of new grammatical categories. According to the Mod. E grammars it has 5 categories: Mood, Tense, Aspect, Time-Correlation and Voice. The growth of analytical forms from free verb phrases was a long and complicated process, which is dated in Late OE. The properties of the analytical verb are as follows:

- 1) it must consist of an auxiliary verb which served as a grammatical marker;
- 2) and a non-finite form - Inf. or Part., which serves as a grammatical marker and expresses the lexical meaning of the form;
- 3) it should be idiomatic, its meaning is not equivalent to the sum of meanings of the component parts.

Originally the verb phrases and the new component forms were used as synonyms of the old synth. forms gradually the semantic diff. between them, grew; the new forms acquired a specific meaning while the application of the old forms was narrowed.



**Endings of the plural of verbs (Present Tense Indicative Mood) in Middle English dialects**



**Forms of Participle I in Middle English dialects**

In the OE verb system there was no category of aspect. Verbal prefix - e, which could express an aspective meaning of perfectivity, was primarily word-building prefix. The development of Aspect is linked up with the growth of the Continues forms. Verb phrases consisting of 'beon' + Part. I denoted a quality or a lasting state . It was not until the 18 c. that the Continues forms acquired a specific meaning of their own: of incomplete process of limited duration. Only at that stage the Cont. and non-Cont. made up a new gram category - Aspect. For many hundred years the Continues forms were not used in the Passive Voice. It aroused the protest of many scholars. But inspite of all these protests the Passive Voice of Continues aspect continued to be used and eventually was recognized as correct.

### Changes of the Principal Forms of Strong Verbs in Middle English and Early New English

Principal forms	OE	ME	NE	OE	ME	NE
	Class 1			Class 2		
Inf.	wrītan	writen [i:]	write	ceosan	chesen [e:]	choose
Past sg	wrāt	wrote [ɔ:]		ceas	chees [e:]	
Past pl	writon	writen [ɪ]	wrote	cearon	chosen [ɔ:]	chose
Part. II	writen	writen [ɪ]	written	ceoren	chosen [ɔ:]	chosen
Class 3						
Inf.	findan	finden [i:]	find	drincan	drinken [i:]	drink
Past sg	fand	fand [a] or [a:]		dronc	drank [a]	
Past pl	fundon	funden [u:]	found	druncan	drunken [u]	drank
Part. II	funden	funden [u:]	found	druncen	drunken [u]	drunk
Class 4			Class 5			
Inf.	beran	beren [e:]	bear	sp(r)ecan	speken [e:]	speak
Past sg	bær	bar [a]		sp(r)æc	spak [a]	
Past pl	bæron	beren [e:]	bore	spæcon	speken [e:]	spoke
Part. II	boren	boren [ɔ:]	born	specen	speken [e:], spoken [ɔ:]	spoken
Class 6			Class 7			
Inf.	secan	shaken [a:]	shake	cnāwan	knowen [ou]	know
Past sg	scōc	shook [o:]		cnēow	knew [eu]	
Past pl	seccan	shoken [o:]	shook	cnēowon	knewen [eu]	knew
Part. II	seacer	shaken [a:]	shaken	cnāwen	knawen [ou]	known

\* ME forms represent the London literary language of the late 14th c.; the final -n in the Infinitive and Past pl is unstable.

### Changes of the Principal Forms of Weak Verbs in Middle English and Early New English

	OE	ME	NE	
	<i>Class I</i>		<i>Class I</i>	
Inf.	dēm-an	deem-en	deem	
Past	dēm-de	deem-de	deemed	
Part. II	dēm-ed	deem-ed	deemed	
			<i>Class II</i>	
Inf.	styr-ian	stir-en	stir	
Past	styr-ede	stir-ede	stirred	
Part. II	styr-ed	stir-ed	stirred	
	<i>Class II</i>			
Inf.	lōc-ian	look-en	look	
Past	lōc-ode	look-ede	looked	
Part. II	lōc-od	look-ed	looked	

## Development of Verbal Grammatical Categories in Middle English and Early New English

	Grammatical categories									
	Mood		Tense		Voice		Time correlation		Aspect	
	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE
Finite verb	3	3 <sup>1</sup>	2	3	—	2	—	2	—	2
Non-Finite verb:										
Infinitive	—		—		—	2	—	2	—	2
-ing-Form	—		—		—	2	—	2	—	

<sup>1</sup> Most modern grammars distinguish several oblique moods; therefore the number of moods in the category of Mood ranges from 3 to 6.

The analytical forms of Participle I began to develop later than the forms of the Infinitive. In the 17<sup>th</sup> c. it was already used in all four forms which it can build today. Participle II remained outside this system correlating to the forms of Participle I through formal differences and semantic opposition. Analytical forms of the Gerund were the last to appear. The formal pattern set by the Participle I was repeated in the new forms of Gerund. The forms of Infinitive, Participle I & Gerund made up grammatical categories similar to these of the Finite verb: Voice, Time-correlation and Aspect.

### 7. Development of the English vocabulary from Old English to Modern English. Analytical tendencies in its development.

The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic; except for a small number of borrowings, it consisted of native words inherited from PG or formed from native roots and affixes. Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main layers in the native OE words are: common IE words; common Germanic words; specifically OE words.

Words belonging to the common IE layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena: plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of human body, terms of kinship. Verbs



belonging to this layer denoted the basic activities of man. Adjectives indicate the most essential qualities: broðor, mōdo, sunu, dōn, beōn.

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by the most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. This layer is smaller than the layer of common IE words. They originated in the common period of Germanic history, when Teutonic tribes lived close together. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with the sea and every day life: eorþe, scrēap, macian.

The specifically OE layer contained the words which did not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words were few, if we include here only the words whose roots have not been found outside English: clipian (call), brid (bird).

<b>OE</b>	<b>ME</b>	<b>NE</b>
song — <b>sinzan</b>	song — <b>singen</b>	song — <b>sing</b>
talu — <b>tellan</b>	tale — <b>tellen</b>	tale — <b>tell</b>
full — <b>fyllan</b>	full — <b>fillen</b>	full — <b>fill</b>
sittan — <b>settan</b>	sitten — <b>setten</b>	sit — <b>set</b>

Borrowed words constituted only a small portion of the OE vocabulary - all in all about six hundred words. That reflected the contacts of English with other tongues resulting from diverse political, economic, social and cultural events in the early periods of British history.

<b>Native English</b>	<b>French</b>	<b>Latin</b>
<b>break</b>	<b>sever</b>	<b>separate</b>
<b>reckon</b>	<b>count</b>	<b>compute</b>
<b>size</b>	<b>calibre</b>	<b>magnitude</b>
<b>kingly</b>	<b>royal</b>	<b>regal</b>

The growth of the English vocabulary from internal sources - through word-formation and semantic change - can be observed in all periods of history. Suffixation was the most productive way of deriving new words. Prefixation, after a temporary decline in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> c., grew again. Suffixes and prefixes have been added either from internal or external sources. Sound interchanges and the shifting of word stress were mainly employed as a means of word differentiation. The early NE witnessed the growth of new, specifically English way of word derivation conversion, also known as "functional change".

While the OE vocabulary was almost entirely Germanic and on the whole was highly resistant to borrowings, the language of later periods absorbed foreign words by the hundred and even made use of foreign word components in word formation. As a result/the native Germanic element constitutes about 30% of the Mod.E vocabulary; the other two thirds came from foreign sources, mainly Romance and Scandinavian. Nowadays the total number of Scandinavian borrowings in English is estimated at about 900 words; about 700 of them belong to Standard English. The total number of French borrowings by far exceeds the number of borrowings from any other foreign language. The greater part of French loan-words in English date from ME. They are usually described according to semantic spheres. To this day nearly all the words relating to the government and administration are French by origin: people, country, court, nation, office, parliament. A large number of French words pertain to the Church and religion: abbey, Bible, glory, pray, saint, sacrifice. French loan-words are referring to house, furniture, architecture: castle, column, palace, table, design, ornament. Many French loan-words belong to the domain of entertainment: cards, dance, leisure, pleasure, sport, partings. The Latin language continued to be used in England. Its main spheres were the church, the law court and academic activities. Latin words were borrowed in all historical periods. Eventually French loan-words spread throughout the language space after the Norman Conquest and became the integral of the English vocabulary. Early borrowings were mostly made in the course of oral communication. Later borrowings were firstly used in literature - in translation of French books. Close to this group are words pertaining to the feudal system and words indicating titles, ranks of the nobility. The host of military matters were managed by the Normans: army, battle, defeat, force, navy, soldier, troops. A still greater number of words belong to the domain of law and jurisdiction, which were under the control of the Normans: accuse, case, crime, guilt, justice, marriage, penalty.

In the 16<sup>th</sup> -17<sup>th</sup> c. Latin was the main language of philosophy and science. Its use in the sphere of religion became more restricted after the Reformation and the publication of the English version of the Bible.

French borrowings of the later periods differ greatly from the loan-words adopted in ME. They mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art and fashions. Most of them have not been completely assimilated and have retained a foreign appearance to the present day:

- 1) Words like 'genre' and 'restaurant' have analyzed vowels and a French spelling;
- 2) Police, fatigue, marine receive the stress on the last syllable and are pronounced with long [i:]

	English	French	Latin	Danish	Other
The first most frequent thousand	83%	11%	2%	2%	2%
Second thousand	34	46	11	2	7
Third thousand	29	46	14	1	10
Fourth thousand <sup>1</sup>	27	45	17	1	10

<sup>1</sup> The figures are reproduced from I. M. Williams ORIGINS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, Ln. 1975, p. 67. The following six thousands show a slight but steady decrease of native words, an increase of Latin loan-words and fluctuations in the other columns.

Conversion became a new productive method of word derivation. It is now a most productive specifically English way of creating new words. Due to the conversion the word is transformed into another part of speech with the identical form: house- to house, love – to love.

OE	Late ME	NE
lufu <i>n</i> — lufian <i>v</i>	love <i>n</i> — love( <i>n</i> ) <i>v</i>	love <i>n, v</i>
	change <i>n</i> — (from <i>Fr</i> ) —change( <i>n</i> ) <i>v</i>	change <i>n, v</i>

### 1.2.2. Поточний контроль

Завдання для проведення поточного контролю розроблені відповідно мети та змісту навчання з історії англійської мови. До уваги брались особливості навчання з даної дисципліни. Поточний контроль реалізується під час виконання студентами практичних завдань, як усно, так і письмово обговорення теоретичних проблем, аргументування точки зору з приводу спірних питань. Під час виконання поточних контрольних завдань студент повинен показати зв'язок

історії англійської мови з сучасним станом мови, орієнтуватися в різних напрямках розвитку історії і методах аналізу, а також підходах до мовного матеріалу. Студент мусить застосовувати теоретичні знання при інтеграції фактів історичного розвитку мови.

## **Модуль 1. Теоретичні основи історії англійської мови**

### **Practical Assignments:**

**Ex 1.** Explain why linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual.

**Ex 2.** At first glance the vocabulary of the language seems to change very rapidly as new words spring up all the time. Could the following words be regarded as absolutely new? (Note the meaning, component parts and word-building pattern): jet -plane (of airplane); typescript (of manuscript); air-lift, baby-sitter, sputnik, Soviet, safari, best-seller, cyclization, air-taxi, astrology, sunsuit, pepper, gas.

**Ex 3.** In the 14th c. the following words were pronounced exactly as they are spelt, the Latin letters remaining their original sound values. Show the phonetic changes since the 14th c.: moon, fat, meet, rider, want, knee, turn, first, part, for, often, e.g. nut [nut]>[nAt]

**Ex 4.** Point out the peculiarities in grammatical forms in the following passages from Shakespeare's SONNETS and describe the changes which must have occurred after the 17th c.:

a) As fast as thou shall wane, so fast thou grow'st. In one of thine, from that which thou departest...

b) It is thy spirit that thou send'st from thee... It is my love that keeps mine eyes awake; Mine own true love that doth my rest defeat -

c) Bring me within the level of your frown. But shoot not at me .in your wakened hate.

**Ex 5.** What historical conditions account for increased dialectal divergence in Early ME?

**Ex 6.** Compare the position of the Old Scandinavian and Anglo-Norman (French) in Early ME (comment on the geographical, social and linguistic differences).

**Ex 7.** Account for the shift of the dialect type of the speech of London in 14 c. Why is the name "English" language more justified than "Anglo-Saxon" or "Saxon" though in the OE period one of the Saxon dialects, West Saxon, was the main form of language used in writing?

**Ex 8.** Can the evolution of language be controlled by man? Recall the efforts made by men-of-letters in the "Normalisation period" to stop the changes and improve the language.

**Ex 9.** Say which word in each pair of parallels is OE and which is Gt. Pay attention to the difference in the vowels: raups - read-(NE red); ham - haims (NE home); beald-balpei (NE bold); barms - bearm ('chest'); deaf - daufe ( NE deaf); triu - treo (NE tree); leof- liufs ('dear'), rel to NE love); qipan - swe an (NE quoth 8'say'). In the same way classify the following words into OE and O Soand: beaz - baugr ('ring'); man or mon - ma..r (Gt manna); daupr - deap (NE death); eall - allr (NE all); earm - armr (NE arm); harpa - hearpe (NE harp).

**Ex 10.** Account for the difference between the root-vowels in OE and in parallels from other OE 1-ges:

Gt marei, OHG meri, OE mere (NE obs. mere 'lake'); Gt sandian, OE sendan (NE send); Gt ubils, OE yfel (HE evil); Gt be-laibian, Gt fulljan, OE fyllan (NE fill);

**Ex 11.** Explain the term "mutation" and innumerate the changes referred to mutations in Late PG and in Early OE. What do they all have in common?

**Ex 12.** Which word in each pair could go back to an OE prototype with palatal mutation and which is more likely to have descended from the OE word retaining the original non-mutated vowel? Mi^d that the spelling may often point to the earlier pronunciation of the word:

old ==elder; strong - strength; goose - geese; man - men; full - fill; food - feed; Брoтeр - brethren;" far - further.

**Ex 13.** What consonant and vowel changes are illustrated by the following pairs of words? Gt maiza – Gt maiza-OE mara (NE more); Gt kunpian,

Gt daups - OE dead (TSIE dead); Gt saljan - OE sellan (NE sell);

OE pyncan - puhte (NE think - thought); Gt kinnus, OE cinn (NE chin); OHG isarn  
- OE iren

(NE iron,); Gt hausjan - OE hieren (NE hear); 0 Scand skaft -, OE sceaft (NE  
shaft).

**Ex 14** Account for the following place-names: Germany, Saxony, Bavaria, Anglia, Thuringia, Swabia, Gothenburg, Gothlarid, Allraagne (Pr. for Germany), Gotha, Jutland, France, Frankfurt, Normandy, Anglesea, England.

**Ex 15** Analyse the shifting of word stress in word-building and form-building and point out the words which can illustrate the original Germanic way of word accentuation: read, reading, re-read, readable; bear /v./, bearer, unbearable; satisfy, satisfaction, unsatisfactorily, circumstance, circumstantial, circumstantiality.

**Ex 16** Explain the sound correspondence in the following parallels from Germanic and non-Germanic 1-ges (the sounds are italicized)

R боль	OE balu	'mischief
R сонь	G salz	'salt'
L gena	OE cin	kin (NE chin)
L pecus	Gt faihu	OE fech (NE fee)
R нагой	NE naked	G nackt
R приятель	NE friend	
R дерево	Gt triu, NE tree	
L domare	NE tame	

**Ex 17** Analyse the consonant correspondences in the following groups of words and classify the words into Germanic and non-Germanic:

- foot, pedal, pedestrian; twofold, double, doublet, twin, brotherly, fraternal; tooth, dental, dentist;
- canine, hound; hearty, cordial; three, trinity; decade, decimals, ten; agriculture, acre; agnostic, know; tame, domestic.

## **Модуль 2. Розвиток граматичної системи та словникового складу англійської мови**

**Ex 1. Read the following MB words and explain the employment of the italicized letters:**

certainly, pacient, came, killen (NE certainly, patient, cany, kill); geste, gold (NE jest, gold); was, seson, ese, sory (SE waa, season, ease, sorry); other, thinken, the, that, nameless, both (NE other, think, the, that, nevertheless, both); afere, every, fight, thief, very (NE affair, every, fight, thief, very); yonge, sonne, not, hose (NE young, sun, not, hose); mous, low, loud, toun, how (NE mouse, low, loud, town, how); knowen, whether, straunge, what, knyght, taughte (NE know, whether, strange, what, knight, taught).

**Ex 2 Give a historical explanation of different spellings of the following homophones:** NE son, sun; meet, meat; see, sea, rein, rain; vein, vain; soul, sole; main, mane; cease, sleze; flour, flower; so, sow; law, lore; bare, bear; root, rute; or, oar; rode, road.

Were all these pairs homophones in ME?

**Ex 3 Why does the letter V stand for [ks] and [gz] in the following words:** oxen-axes-example; execute-exeoutor-executive; exercise-examine-exact-exist?

**Ex 4. Account for the sound values of the letter 'c' in the following words:** [s] in NE mercy, centre; [k] in copper, class; [ʃ] in speeial, sufficient?

**Ex 5. Account for the difference in the sound values of 's' 'th' T in the following words:** son, busy, wisdom, mouse, east, observe, dresses, thousand, threat, thou, the, mouth, mouths, they, of, fair, fence;

**Ex 6 Show how modern spelling can help to reconstruct the phonetic history of the words; use the following words as examples:** NE drive, might, keen, mete, lead, lake, loaf, boot, about, low, draw, applaud, cast, cart, cord, ant, warn, bird, beard, bum, certain, first, nun, none, bloody, bony, knee, gnat, often, limb.

**Ex 7 . Explain why OE can be called, a "synthetic " or " inflected" language. What form-building means were used in OE?**

**Ex 8 Speak on the differences between the categories of case, number and gender in nouns, pronouns and adjectives.**

Which phonetic changes account for the alternation of consonants in the following nouns mup-m'upa (Nom. sg, Dat. pi. N. -a) hus-husum (Nom. sg Dat. pi N. -a); wit-wife (Nom.JDat. sg N. -a); (NE mouth, house, wife). Were these consonant interchanges confined to certain declensions? In what respects was the OE verb system "simpler- than the Mod E system?

**Ex 9** Compare the historical productivity of different form-building means: synthetic (inflections, sound interchanges), analytical, suppletive.

**Ex 10.** Which part of speech has lost the-greatest number of grammatical categories? Which part of speech has acquired new categories?

**Ex 11.** Compare the development of case and number in nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

**Ex 12.** Illustrate the process of replacement by tracing the history of the pronouns she, they, him, you, its.

**Ex 13.** What is the connection between the growth of articles, the history of pronouns and the decline of adjectival declensions?

**Ex 14.** Comment on the following statement made by S.Johnson in his DICTIONARY "He snail seldom err who remembers that when a verb has a participle distinct from its preterit as write, wrote, written, that distinct participle is more proper and -elegant, as the book is written is better than the book is wrote though wrote may be used in poetry..." What events called forth this remark? ,

**Ex 15.** Make a list of verb inflections in Mod E and trace their origin (show their grammatical and dialectal sources).

**Ex 16.** Why would it be incorrect to apply the terms "strong" and "weak" to Mod E standard and non-standard verbs?

**Ex 17.** Point out traces of OE pret. -pres. verbs - in modern -modal verbs.

**Ex 18.** Have all the phrases consisting of To have' plus Part. II, be plus Part I and shall/will plus Int. become grammatical forms? . Describe their histories as instances of splitting.



**Ex 19.** Recall some instances of grammatical changes which involve several linguistic levels : morphological, syntactic, phonetic, lexical.

**Ex 20** Why does the OE vocabulary contain so few borrowings from the Celtic languages of Britain?

**Ex 21** Why do place-names constitute a substantial part of Celtic element?

**Ex 22** What facts can be given to prove that OS was generally resistant to borrowing and preferred to rely upon its own resources?

**Ex 23** What is meant by "simplification of the morphological structure"? Use words from the following list to illustrate your answer: OE ealdian (<\*eald-o-jan) 'grow old' metan (<\*mot-i-an); woruld (<\*werealdi 'age', 'old') NE world; hlaford, (<\*hlaf-weard 'bread, loaf, 'keeper') NE lord; NE

lady; ealand (<\*ea-land 'water', 'land') NE Island; NE goodly, fair.

**Ex 24** What conclusions can be ' drawn about the nature of contacts between the English and the Scandinavians from the nature of Scandinavian loanwords?

**Ex 25.** Comment on the English-Scandinavian etymological doublets - skirt - shirt; scatter - shatter.

**Ex 26.** Compare the French and Scandinavian influence on the Middle English vocabulary (linguistic, geographical and social aspects; the number, nature and spheres of borrowings).

**Ex 27** Discuss the following figures showing the percentage of borrowings from various languages in the first, second and third most frequent thousands of English words:

The first most Frequent thousand	83%	11%	2%	2%	2%
Second thousand	34	46	11	2	7
Third thousand	29	46	14	1	10
Fourth thousand	27	45	17	1	10
	English	French	Latin	Danish	Other

### 1.2.3. Підсумковий контроль

Завдання для проведення підсумкового контролю відповідають рекомендаціям поданим в Програмі і співвідносяться з цілями та змістом навчальної програми з «Історії англійської мови». Метою підсумкового контролю є визначення рівня володіння студентами цією дисципліною. Підсумковий контроль характеризується зростаючою складністю і запропонований у формі комбінованого тесту, який застосовується з метою перевірки сформованості конкретних знань, навичок і вмінь з історії формування та розвитку англійської мови, становлення фонетичної системи, розвитку граматичної системи словника. Студент повинен володіти особливостями діахронічного підходу до інтерпретації лінгвістичних явищ, орієнтуватися на взаємовідношення статичної і динамічної, лінгвістичних та екстралінгвістичних факторів розвитку мови.

Мета контролю: перевірка різноманітних цілей як теоретичних, так і практичних. Сучасна англійська мова відображає багатовікову історію її розвитку і охоплює найбільш вагомі моменти в історії розвитку англійської мови: становлення фонетичної системи, розвиток граматичного строю, зміни словникового запису слів у зв'язку із змінами його умов суспільного функціонування.

#### Структура тесту

Тест складається з 50 питань. Завдання 1 – 50 на вибір однієї правильної відповіді. Усі тести закритого типу. Завдання розташовуються в логічно-змістовій послідовності навчальної дисципліни.

Кожне тестове завдання містить 4 варіанти відповідей, з яких – одна правильна.

#### Варіант I

##### 1. English belongs to the...

- a) Indo – European family;
- b) Chinese family;
- c) Banty language family;
- d) Turkic language family;

##### 2. What group of language does English belong to?

- a) Germanic;
- b) Slavic;
- c) Roman;
- d) Gergian.

**3. When did the Normans conquer England?**

- a) 1056;
- b) 1054;
- c) 1070;
- d) 1077.

**4. French itself is directly descended from..**

- a) German;
- b) Celtic;
- c) Latin;
- d) Scandinavian.

**5. How many groups is English history divided?**

- a) 3;
- b) 4;
- c) 7;
- d) 5.

**6. The English language of the 19th and 20<sup>th</sup> century represents the...**

- a) The restoration of the English to the position of the state and literary language;
- b) The stage of the greatest dialectical divergence;
- c) Stage of tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders;
- d) Late NE or the modern period in the history of English language.

**7. Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles had been inhabited by...**

- a) Celts;
- b) Roman;
- c) Scandinavian;
- d) Angles.

**8. What kingdom was the dialect of the Jutes?**

- a) Northumbrian;
- b) Mercian;
- c) West Saxon;
- d) Kentish.

**9. What kind of letters OE tribes used?**

- a) The runes;
- b) Letters of the Greek alphabet;
- c) Letters of the Latin alphabet;
- d) The runes and letters of the Latin alphabet.

**10. The rise of national language was favored by such factors...**

- a) The unification of country;
- b) The growth of the vocabulary;
- c) The progress of culture;
- d) The introduction of Christianity.

**11. What two varieties of English in Great Britain are distinguished nowadays?**

- a) Scandinavian;
- b) Scottish;
- c) Anglo – Irish;
- d) Kentish.

**12. What borrowed elements enter the etymological structure of English vocabulary?**

- a) Chinese;
- b) Latin;
- c) Japanese;
- d) Scandinavian.

**13. The greatest event in the history of English between the 14-18<sup>th</sup> c. is named...**

- a) The Great Consonant Shift;
- b) The Great Consonant and Vowel Shift;
- c) The Large Vowel change;

d) The Great Vowel Shift.

**14. What consonants are subdivided into voiced and voiceless?**

- a) The fricative consonants;
- b) Palatal consonants;
- c) Plosive consonants;
- d) Velar consonants.

**15. The consonant system in Late ME was in some respect different from the OE system:**

- a) plosive consonant were contrasted to the new affricates;
- b) consonant sequences [ss], [nt], [ft] brought the lengthening of the short vowel phonemes;
- c) in the set of affricates [ts] was opposed to [dz] through sonority;
- d) some sequences of consonants fused into single consonant.

**16. What layer contained the words which did not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages?**

- a) Native OE words;
- b) The common Germanic words;
- c) The specifically OE layer;
- d) The Germanic layer.

**17. What was the most productive means of word derivation?**

- a) Prefixation;
- b) Suffixation;
- c) Derivational affix;
- d) Root – morpheme.

**18. What are the changes in the English vocabulary from 12 – 19<sup>th</sup> century?**

- a) Losses of words;
- b) Conversion;
- c) Concepts;
- d) Rivalry of synonyms.

**19. What was the main language of philosophy and science in the 16 – 17<sup>th</sup> century?**

- a) Latin;
- b) English;
- c) French;
- d) Greek.

**20. What was the most productive way of deriving new words in OE?**

- a) Prefixation;
- b) Word formation;
- c) Word composition;
- d) Suffixation.

**21. What are the noun – suffixes?**

- a) –ise, -il, -sion;
- b) -ist, -fy, -al;
- c) –ance, -enco, -ment;
- d) –tion, -ise; -able.

**22. What word has the noun – suffix?**

- a) Drinkable;
- b) Fulfillment;
- c) Economical;
- d) Defective.

**23. Semantic changes are commonly divided into:**

- a) Metaphoric shift;
- b) Metonymic shift;
- c) Widening and narrowing of meaning;
- d) Metaphoric and metonymic shifts.

**24. How many notional parts of speech were in OE?**

- a) 5;
- b) 6;
- c) 8;

d) 9.

**25. What categories had the noun in OE?**

- a) Number;
- b) Gender;
- c) Person;
- d) Case.

**26. What case was primarily the case of nouns served as attributes to other nouns?**

- a) Dative;
- b) Nominative;
- c) Accusative;
- d) Genitive.

**27. What grammatical categories had the adjective in OE?**

- a) Person;
- b) Number;
- c) Category of comparison, number, case;
- d) Case.

**28. Most OE adjectives distinguished between..... degrees of comparison:**

- a) 3;
- b) 2;
- c) 4;
- d) 5.

**29. The category of Tense in OE consisted of..... forms**

- a) 3;
- b) 4;
- c) 1;
- d) 2.

**30. The weak verbs were subdivided into.... classes.**

- a) 3;
- b) 2;

- c) 5;
- d) 4.

**31. The syntactic structure of the OE was determined by such major conditions...**

- a) The nature of OE morphology;
- b) The relation between the spoken and written forms of the language;
- c) A synthetic language;
- d) A grammatical forms which could indicate the connections between words.

**32. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in...**

- a) Number, case, gender;
- b) Gender;
- c) Number;
- d) Case.

**33. According to the ME grammars noun has ....categories.**

- a) 5;
- b) 2;
- c) 3;
- d) 4.

**34. The Present tense could indicate....actions, depending on the context.**

- a) Present;
- b) Future;
- c) Past;
- d) Continue.

**35. The indicated the transition in the state expressed by a...**

- a) Noun;
- b) Conjunction;
- c) Article;
- d) Participle.

**36. What dialects does split in Low German?**

- a) Persian;



- b) Angles;
- c) Celtic;
- d) Saxon, angles.

**37. Britons belong to..**

- a) The Celtic tribe;
- b) The Slavic tribe;
- c) The Jutes tribe;
- d) The Saxon tribe.

**38. The Normans had originally come from..**

- a) West Germanic;
- b) Scandinavia;
- c) Central Asia;
- d) Low German.

**39. What period was characteristic of the greatest dialectal divergence?**

- a) Anglo – Saxon;
- b) Early New English;
- c) Early Old English;
- d) Early Middle English.

**40. When was the growth of the English nationality accompanied by the formation of the national English language?**

- a) Early OE;
- b) Early ME;
- c) Late NE;
- d) Anglo – Saxon.

**41. The history of the English language begins with..**

- a) The invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes;
- b) The invasion to North America by West Germanic invaders;
- c) The occupation of Britain by Normans;
- d) The invasion of the British Isles by German tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes in the 5<sup>th</sup> century.

**42. The most important role in the history of the English was played by the...**

- a) Development of culture;
- b) Development of feudalism;
- c) Introduction of Christianity;
- d) Continental Germanic dialects.

**43. What was the main dialect of Saxon?**

- a) Kentish;
- b) West Saxon;
- c) Northumbrian;
- d) Mercian.

**44. The formation of the national literary language covers...**

- a) The Early NE period;
- b) The Early OE;
- c) The late NE;
- d) The Middle English.

**45. The age of literary flourishing is known as the...**

- a) Age of Elizabethan;
- b) Age of Shakespeare;
- c) Age of Th. More;
- d) Age of W. Tyndale.

**46. What kind of words in OE Latin entered English?**

- a) Italian;
- b) Spanish;
- c) French;
- d) Scottish.

**47. What native elements enter the etymological structure of English vocabulary?**

- a) Greek;
- b) Indo – European;
- c) Germanic;

d) English.

**48. The consonant changes dated in pre-written period referred to as...**

- a) The Great Consonant Shift;
- b) West Germanic;
- c) Early OE;
- d) The Middle English.

**49. Early ME [r] was vocalized when it stood;**

- a) before vowels;
- b) after vowels and between vowels;
- c) between vowels;
- d) another consonant.

**50. What are the main layers in the native OE vocabulary?**

- a) Common IE words;
- b) Common Latin words;
- c) Specifically OE words;
- d) Common Germanic words, SE words, Latin words.

## **Вариант II**

**1. What dialects Low German does split into?**

- a) Persian;
- b) Angles;
- c) Celtic;
- d) Saxon.

**2. Britons belong to..**

- a) The Celtic tribe;
- b) The Slavic tribe;
- c) The Jutes tribe;
- d) The Saxon tribe.

**3. The Normans had originally come from..**

- a) West Germanic;

- b) Scandinavia;
- c) Central Asia;
- d) Low German.

**4. What period was characteristic of the greatest dialectical divergence?**

- a) Anglo – Saxon;
- b) Early New English;
- c) Early Old English;
- d) Early Middle English.

**5. When was the growth of the English nationality accompanied by the formation of the national English language?**

- a) In Early OE;
- b) In Early ME;
- c) In Late NE;
- d) Anglo – Saxon.

**6. The history of the English language begins with..**

- a) The invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes;
- b) The invasion to North America by West Germanic invaders;
- c) The occupation of Britain by Normans;
- d) The invasion of the British Isles by German tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes in the 5<sup>th</sup> century.

**7. The most important role in the history of the English was played by the...**

- a) Development of culture;
- b) Development of feudalism;
- c) Introduction of Christianity;
- d) Continental Germanic dialects.

**8. What was the main dialect of Saxon?**

- a) Kentish;
- b) West Saxon;
- c) Northumbrian;
- d) Mercian.

**9. The formation of the national literary language covers...**

- a) The Early NE period;
- b) The Early OE;
- c) The late NE;
- d) The Middle English.

**10. The age of literary flourishing is known as the...**

- a) Age of Elizabethan;
- b) Age of Shakespeare;
- c) Age of Th. More;
- d) Age of W. Tyndale.

**11. What kind of words in OE Latin entered English?**

- a) Italian;
- b) Spanish;
- c) French;
- d) Scottish.

**12. What native elements enter the etymological structure of English vocabulary?**

- a) Greek;
- b) Indo – European, Germanic, English;
- c) Germanic;
- d) English.

**13. The consonant changes dated in pre-written period referred to as...**

- a) The Great Consonant Shift;
- b) West Germanic;
- c) Early OE;
- d) The Middle English.

**14. Early ME [r] was vocalized when it stood;**

- a) before vowels;
- b) after vowels;
- c) between vowels and after vowels;

d) Another consonant.

**15. What are the main layers in the native OE vocabulary?**

a) Common IE words, Germanic words, Latin words;

b) Common Latin words;

c) Specifically OE words;

d) Common Germanic words.

**16. According to the morphological structure OE words consisted of....parts.**

a) 2;

b) 4;

c) 3;

d) 5.

**17. What was the highly productive way of developing the vocabulary of OE?**

a) Prefixation;

b) Suffixation;

c) Root – morpheme;

d) Word – composition.

**18. The greater part of French loan – words in English date from:**

a) Old English;

b) Middle English;

c) New English;

d) Early Middle English.

**19. What types word – formation fall into?**

a) Word – derivation;

b) Root – morpheme;

c) Prefixation;

d) Word composition.

**20. Pairs of words *song – sing, sit – set* date in...**

a) ME;

b) NE;

c) OE;

d) Early ME.

**21. What are the adjective - suffixes?**

a) –able, -fy, -ise;

b) –able, -al, -ible;

c) –fy, -ise, -il;

d) –or, -er, -ist.

**22. What words have the adjective – suffix?**

a) Capable;

b) Fulfillment;

c) Starvation;

d) Atomic.

**23. In what period of history English language was synthetic?**

a) OE;

b) ME;

c) NE;

d) Early ME.

**24. How many grammatical categories had the verb in OE?**

a) 5;

b) 4;

c) 6;

d) 7.

**25. The adjective had.... cases in OE?**

a) 4;

b) 5;

c) 3;

d) 6.

**26. How many grammatical categories had the adjective in OE?**

a) 4;

b) 2;

c) 3;

d) 5.

**27. How many kinds of declination had adjectives in OE?**

a) 1;

b) 3;

c) 5;

d) 2.

**28. What are the specifically verbal categories?**

a) Mood, aspect, tense;

b) Aspect;

c) Person;

d) number.

**29. The Forms of the Present were used to indicate... actions**

a) Present;

b) Past;

c) Future;

d) Continue.

**30. How many preterite – present verbs were in OE?**

a) 5;

b) 6;

c) 10;

d) 12.

**31. The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the...**

a) Word;

b) Phrase;

c) Combination;

d) Sentence.

**32. OE finite verb had verbal grammatical categories proper as...**

a) Aspect, voice, tense;

b) Number;

c) Person;



d) Comparison.

**33. The category of Tense consisted of such members....**

a) Future;

b) Past;

c) Continue;

d) Present.

**34. In OE the finite verb had no category of...**

a) Aspect;

b) Mood;

c) Tense;

d) Voice.

**35. In OE verb system there was no category of...**

a) Voice;

b) Aspect;

c) Tense;

d) Mood.

**36. The indicated of the transition in the state expressed by a...**

a) Noun;

b) Conjunction;

c) Article;

d) Participle.

**37. The Present tense could indicate....actions, depending on the context.**

a) Present;

b) Future;

c) Past;

d) Continue.

**38. According to the ME grammars it has ....categories.**

a) 5;

b) 2;

c) 3;

d) 4.

**39. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in...**

- a) Person, number, case;
- b) Tense;
- c) Mood;
- d) Aspect.

**40. The syntactic structure of the OE was determined by such major conditions...**

- a) The nature of OE morphology;
- b) The relation between the spoken and written forms of the language;
- c) A synthetic language;
- d) A grammatical forms which could indicate the connections between words.

**41. The weak verbs were subdivided into.... classes.**

- a) 3;
- b) 2;
- c) 5;
- d) 4.

**42. The category of Tense in OE consisted of..... forms**

- a) 3;
- b) 4;
- c) 1;
- d) 2.

**43. Most OE adjectives distinguished between..... degrees of comparison:**

- a) 3;
- b) 2;
- c) 4;
- d) 5.

**44. What grammatical categories had the adjective in OE?**

- a) Person;
- b) Aspect;

- c) Category of comparison, number, case;
- d) Tense.

**45. What case was primarily the case of nouns served as attributes to other nouns?**

- a) Dative;
- b) Nominative;
- c) Accusative;
- d) Genitive.

**46. What categories had the noun in OE?**

- a) Number;
- b) Gender;
- c) Person;
- d) Case.

**47. How many notional parts of speech were in OE?**

- a) 5;
- b) 6;
- c) 8;
- d) 9.

**48. Semantic changes are commonly divided into:**

- a) Metaphoric shift;
- b) Metonymic shift;
- c) Widening and narrowing of meaning;
- d) Metaphoric and metonymic shifts.

**49. What word has the noun – suffix?**

- a) Drinkable;
- b) Fulfillment;
- c) Economical;
- d) Defective.

**50. What are the noun – suffixes?**

- a) –ise, -il, -sion;

- b) -ist, -fy, -al;
- c) -ance, -ence, -ment;
- d) -tion, -ise; -able.

#### 1.2.4. Література:

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### **1.3. Теоретична граматики англійської мови**

#### **1.3.1. Лекції**

##### **Лекція 1. Grammatical parts of speech. The criteria of classification. The notional parts of speech.**

The traditional grammatical classes of words are called "parts of speech". Since the words are distinguished not only by grammatical, but also by semantico-lexemic properties, some scholar's /Smirnitsky/ refers to parts of speech as "lexico-grammatical category".

It should be noted that the term "part of speech" is purely traditional and conventional. Words are divided into notional and functional which reflect their division in the grammatical tradition into chargeable and unchangeable.

To the notional parts of speech belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb - the words of complete nominative meaning characterized by self-dependent function in the sentence.

## ***THE NOUN***

<p><b>THE CATEGORICAL NUMBER AND CASE SUBSTANCE</b></p> <p><i>“thingness”, “chair”, “iron”</i> but also <i>“beauty”, “peace”</i> and everything else presented as a thing, or object</p>	<p><b>FORMS OF FUNCTION</b> the specific suffixes <i>s, -es,</i> 's. Though some individual nouns may lack either a singular <i>/milk, wine/</i> or plural <i>/trousers, scissors/</i>. They also in the accepted way, have the category of case.</p>	<p><b>THE SUBSTANTIVE MEANING OF</b></p> <p>subject object predicative prepositional connections, modification by an adjective</p>
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## **THE ADJECTIVE**

<p><b>THE CATEGORY MEANING OF</b></p> <p>Property <i>/qualitative/ /relative/</i>. The property may be either permanent or temporary</p>	<p><b>THE FORMS OF THE DEGREE OF</b></p> <p>Comparison the specific suffixes <i>-er, -est</i>. In M.E. is invariable</p>	<p><b>THE ADJECTIVAL FUNCTION</b></p> <p>Attribute to a noun; adjectival predicative. As an attribute <i>/large room/</i> as a predicative <i>/is large/</i>. It can be also an objective predicative <i>/painted the floor green/</i></p>
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## **THE NUMERAL**

<p><b>THE CATEGORICAL MEANING OF</b></p> <p>Number <i>/cardinal/ /ordinal/</i>. Numerals denote either number or place in the sentence.</p>	<p><b>SET OF NUMERALS</b></p> <p>Forms of comparison; specific suffixes. Numerals are invariable.</p>	<p><b>THE FUNCTIONS OF</b></p> <p>Numerical attribute; numerical substantive. A numeral most usually is an attribute <i>/three rooms, the third room/</i>. But it can be also a subject, predicate, object.</p>
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## THE PRONOUN

THE CATEGORICAL MEANING OF	FORMAL PROPERTIES OF CATEGORICAL CHANGEABILITY AND WORD-BUILDING	FUNCTION
<p>Indication. In fact, some pronouns share essential peculiarities of noun <i>/he/</i>, while others have much in common with adj. <i>/which/</i>.</p> <p>Pronouns point to the things and properties without naming them. The pronoun ‘it’ points to a thing without being the name of any particular class of things.</p> <p>The pronoun ‘its’ points to a property of a thing by referring it to another thing.</p>	<p>Demonstrative pronoun <i>this – these, that – those</i> have the category of number, <i>he – him, somebody – somebody’s</i> have the category of case.</p>	<p>Substantival adjectival</p> <p>In the sentence some pronouns may be the subject <i>/he, what/</i> or the object, while others are the attribute.</p> <p>Pronouns can be predicative.</p>

### Лекція 2. Noun as the central nominative lexemic unit of language.

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of “substance” or “thingness”. It is the main nominative part of speech. It has the power to isolate different properties of substances & present them as corresponding self-dependent substances.

The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties.

The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject & the object in the sentence.

Others syntactic functions – attributive, adverbial & even predicative, although performed by the noun, but are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality

as such. Performing these non-substantive functions, the noun essentially differs from the other parts of speech used in similar sentence positions. This may be clearly shown by transformation shifting the noun from various non-subject syntactic positions into subject syntactic positions of the same general semantic value, which is impossible with other parts of speech.

*Her words were unexpectedly bitter.*

*We were struck by the unexpected bitterness of her words.*

*At that time he was down in his career.*

*His career had its ups & downs.*

Some special types of combinability characterize the noun:

1. The prepositional combinability with:

*other noun: an entrance to the house;*

*a verb: to turn round the corner;*

*an adjective: red in face;*

*an adverb: far from its destination.*

2. The casal (possessive) combinability: the speech of the President – the President's speech; the cover of the book – the book's cover;

3. The combinability of one noun with another (by sheer contact): a sport event; film festivals. In the contact group the noun in preposition plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun in postposition. They can go the isolability test with ease: the court regulations – the regulations of the court; the funds distributions – the distributions of the funds.

Mary is **a flower-girl** – **The flower-girl** is Mary;

He lives in **Glasgow** – **Glasgow** is his place of residence.

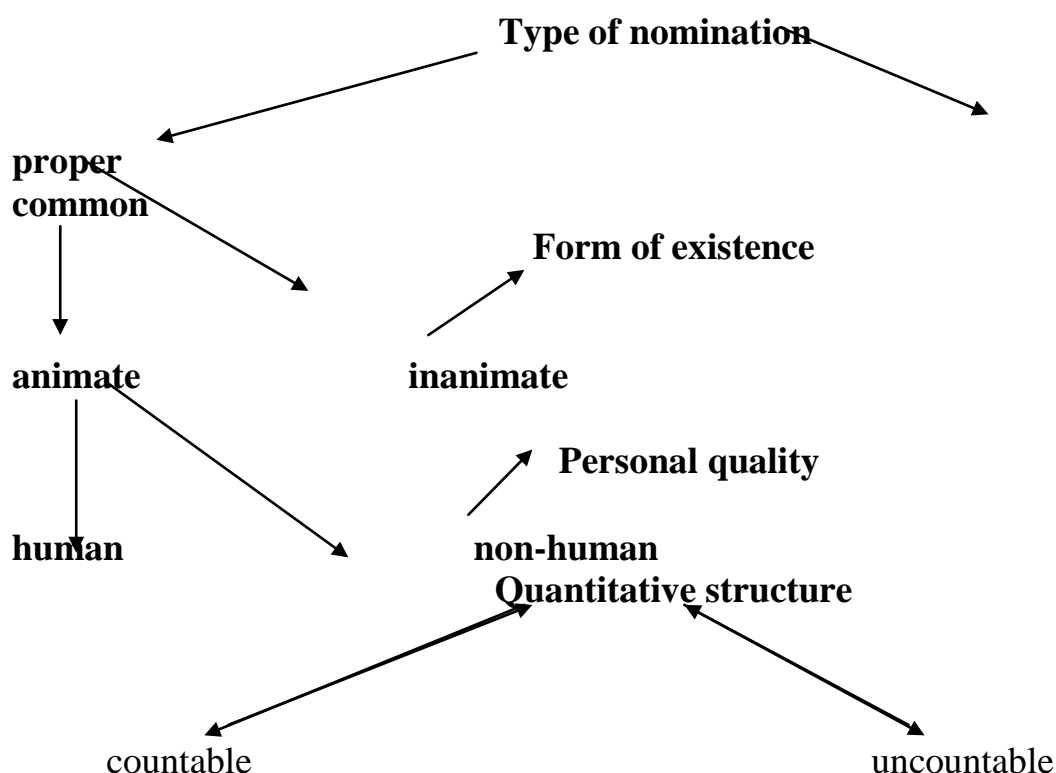
As part of speech, the noun is characterized by a set of formal features determining its specific status in the lexical paradigm of nomination:

It has its word-building distinctions: typical suffixes, compound stem models, conversion patterns. It discriminates the grammatical categories: gender, number, case, article determination.



These formal features taken together are relevant for the division of nouns into several subclasses. They are grouped into four oppositional pairs.

The first noun subclass opposition differentiates *proper* and *common* nouns. The foundation of this opposition is “type of nomination”. The second subclass opposition differentiates *animate* and *inanimate* nouns on the basis of “form of existence”. The third subclass opposition differentiates *human* and *non-human* nouns on the basis of “personal quality”. The fourth subclass opposition differentiates *countable* and *uncountable* nouns on the basis of “quantitative structure”. The division of English nouns into *concrete* and *abstract* is less explicit.



### Лекція 3. Transition of the parts of speech. Substantivation of Adjectives. Adjectivization of nouns.

Substantivization of Adjectives: Adjectives can, under certain circumstances be substantivized, i. e. become nouns.

The questions which arise in this connection are the following.

- What criteria should be applied to find out if an adjective is substantivized or not?
- What criteria should be applied to find out if a substantivized adjective is a noun, or it isn't? They are following.
- Ability to have a form in – 's if a living being is denoted;

- Ability to form the plural;
- Ability to be modified by an adjective;

Performing the function of subject & object of a sentence.

There are nouns when so used & we don't call them substantivized adjectives: native, savage, male, female, grown-up, proletarian, English, Russian. There is also the question of the opposite phenomenon – that of nouns becoming adjectives – Adjectivization of nouns.

The facts are briefly stated, these: in Modern English a noun may stand before another noun & modify it. **Stone wall, speech sound, peace talks** – the first element denotes a substance, but this substance only serves to characterize the property of the thing denoted by the noun.

1. The view that the first element is a noun has been defended by H. Sweet & others;
2. The view that it is an adjective or at least approaches the adjective, by O. Jespersen.

Thus, we reach the conclusion that no perfectly objective result can be attained in trying to determine what part of speech the first element is in such phrases.

This explains the existing difference of views on the subject & we are compelled to recognize that the question can only be solved in a somewhat subjective way, according as we start from one premise to another:

If we start from the premise that we shall not speak of homonyms, or indeed new parts of speech we shall stick to the view that the first element of such phrases as “stone wall” is a noun in a special function. That is the most common point of view.

#### **Лекція 4. The adjective and the problem the qualifying – ‘a- words’ in English.**

There is not much to be said about the English adjective from the morphological point of view. It has neither number, nor case, nor gender distinctions. Having five grammatical categories in OE, adjective preserved only one – the category of comparison. Thus, in the course of the history of English it has lost all its forms of grammatical agreement with the noun. The only morphological problem concerning adjectives is, then, that of degrees of comparison.

The categorial semantics of the adjective is the “property of substance”. So, adjectives are words expressing properties of objects and qualifying nouns.

The derivational features of adjectives are the following:

The suffixes:

- ful (hopeful)
- less (helpless)
- ish (bluish)
- ous (famous)
- ive (decorative)
- ic (basic)

The prefixes:

- un (unprecedented)
- in (inaccurate)
- pre (premature)
- a (afraid, asleep, alone, alive, ashamed)

They can't be used attributively but only as predicatives. They are called stative subclass, or statives, or adlings.

A specific combinability of the adjective. Adjectives can combine: with nouns ( in preposition, occasionally in post-position), with link-verbs (both functional & notional), with modifying adverbs when used as predicative – complementive combinability with nouns (He is fond of that girl) by means of prepositions.

Professor B.A. Ilyish considers ‘a words’ to be “words of the category of state”, “statives”. B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya call them “adlinks” - by virtue of their connection with link-verbs & on the analogy with the term “adverbs”. Professor T.S. Barkhudarov & M.Y. Ilyish undertook re-consideration of the lexemic status of English statives on the basis of comparison with adjectives, with which they have many features in common. The fundamental separation of the statives from the adjectives was rejected as the result of this investigation.

Meanings of the same order are rent by pre-positional adjectives: eager curiosity – curiosity agog; the burning house – the house afire; a floating raft – a raft afloat; a half-open door – a door adjar; slanting ropes – ropes aslant; similar cases – cases alike; an exited crowd – a crowd astir.

The main meaning types conveyed by statives are:

1. The physical state of a person: **afoot**;
2. The physic state of a person: **afraid, ashamed, aware, astir**;
3. The physical state of an object: **afire, ablaze, aglow**;

4. The state of an object in space: **askew, awry, aslant.**

The problem of the analytical form of the degrees of comparison:

The question is this: Is “more difficult” & “most difficult” analytical degrees of comparison or free phrases. Let us examine the arguments that may be put forward in favour of one or the other views.

The first may be supported by the following considerations.

- The actual meaning of “more difficult”, “most difficult” doesn’t differ from that of the degrees of comparison “larger”, “largest”.
- Qualitative adjectives, like “difficult”, express properties which may be present in different degrees, & therefore they are bound to have degrees of comparison.
- The arguments against such formation being analytical degrees of comparison would run roughly like this:
  - The words “more” & “most” have the same meaning as in the phrases: “more time”, “most people”;
  - Alongside this there exist phrases: “less difficult”, “the least difficult”.

Thus, considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing such formations as analytical forms, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view.

A few adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison. They are: good – better – the best; bad – worse – the worst; far – farther, (for distance) further (for time & distance) – the farthest (furthest), near – nearer – the nearest ( for distance, next, (for order), late – later – the latest ( for time), last (for order), old – older (for age), (elder, used only attributively) – oldest (eldest).

There are some adjectives that, on account of their meaning, don’t admit comparison at all: perfect, unique, full, empty, square, round, wooden, daily, upper, major, outer, whole, only.

**Лекція 5. The verb meaning, structure, lexico-grammatical and aspective subclasses, the syntactic valency.**

**THE VERB**

THE CATEGORICAL  
MEANING OF

THE FORMS  
OF THE VERBAL

THE FUNCTION  
predicate /finite forms/

Process, state, Forms of existence.	CATEGORIES OF person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood. Finite forms Non- finite forms The verb is characterized by an elaborate system of morphological categories.	the mixed verbal for the non-finite forms of predicate or part of it /link verb./
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Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech, giving rise to much dispute & controversy.

The general categorial meaning of the verb is process, state, forms of existence, types of attitude etc. This holds true not only about the finite verb, but also about non-finite verb.

This grammatical meaning of the notional verb determines its characteristic combination with: a noun expressing both the doer of the action (subject) & the recipient of the action (object, in cases of the objective verb); an adverb as the modifier of the action.

In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of the verb predicate.

The verb stems may be simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded, composite, and phrasal. The original simple verb stems are not numerous (go, take, read). But conversion (zero-suffixation) as means of derivation, especially conversion of the “noun-verb” type, greatly enlarges the simple stems of the verb: a cloud – to cloud, a house – to house, a park – to park. It is one of the most productive ways of forming verb-lexemes in Modern English. In the tradition of English speaking countries they are called “phrasal verbs”.

A. АХМАТОВА calls this process reversion: blackmailing – to blackmail; sunbathing – to sunbath. The most common term in present-day English is conversion. The sound-replacive type of derivation (food – to feed; blood – to bleed) & the stress-replacive type of derivation are introductive (‘import – to im’port; ‘transport – to trans’port). The typical suffixes expanding the stem of the verb are: -ate, -en, -ity, ize. The verb-deriving prefixes are: be-, en/em-, re-, under-, over-, sub-, mis-, un-.

The composite (compound) verb stems correspond to the composite none verb stems from which they are etymologically derived.

**The phrasal verb stems** occupy an intermediary position between analytical forms of the verbs & syntactic word combinations. There are the following patterns:

- a. head-verb + a noun (to have a smoke, to give a smile);
- b. head-verb + verbal postposition that has a specificational value (to go on, to give up, to look after).

*Verbs fall into a number of subclasses by different semantic & lexico-grammatical features:*

Notional Verbs: (verbs of full nominative value) this subclass is derivationally open & includes the bulk of verb-lexemes. Seminotional Verbs. Functional Verbs. (verbs of partial nominative value) this subclass is derivationally closed; it includes limited subsets of verbs ( to be, to seem, to turn out). Verbs of partial nominative value serve as markers of predication. Notional verbs undergo the three main grammatically relevant categorizations, reflecting the syntactically generalized relations of the subject: to the process denoted by the verb.

The first is based on the relation of the subject to the process denoted by the verb. On the basis on this subject-process relation, all the notional verbs can be divided into actional & statal.

Actional verbs (do, act, perform, make, go, read) express the action performed by the subject, i.e. they present the subject as an active doer.

There exist two main aspective subclasses of verbs. The verbs, presenting a process as potentially limited, are called “limitive”. (The latter term seems inadequate, as the word suggests the idea of completed action, or of a limit attained). To the verbs of this subclass belong such verbs as arrive, come, leave, find, and start, stop, conclude, drop, catch. Here also belong phrasal verbs with limitive postpositions: stand up, sit down, get out, and be off.

The verbs of the second subclass present a process as not limited by any border point. They are called “**unlimitive**”. In the traditional grammar – “**non-terminative**”, “**durative**”, “**cursive**”. To this subclass belong such verbs as: move, continue, live, sleep, work, behave, hope, and stand.

However, applying the principle of oppositions, these cases can be interpreted as **neutralization** of the lexical aspective opposition.

“Mary & Robert **walked** (unlimitive use, basic function) through the park. They **walked** (limitive use, neutralization) the whole way to the square bareheaded.”

The obligatory valencies of the verb from the point of view of sentence structure are that of the subjective i.e. the direct objective valencies. They must be realized in grammatically complete constructions. (We saw a house in the distance)

The optional valency, as different from the obligatory valency, is such as is not necessarily realized in grammatically complete constructions. The adverbial valency of the verb is mostly optional: it may or may not be realized depending on the concrete information. (The night came **dark & stormy**).

The predicative valency of the link-verbs proper is obligatory. The reporters seemed pleased with the results of the press conference.

The obligatory adjuncts of the verb, with the exception of the subject may be called its complements; the optional adjuncts of the verb, its supplements.

Thus, accordingly, as they have or have not the power to take complements, the notional verbs should be classified as complementive & uncomplementive.

## **Лекція 6. The categorical meaning of the adverb. The of “bring up” and “get about”**

### **THE ADVERB**

THE CATEGORICAL  
MEANING OF

SECONDARY

PROPERTY, i.e. the

property of process of

another property

Property of an action or

of property.

THE FORM OF

DEGREES OF

COMPARISON for

qualitative adverbs

THE FUNCTION

OF VARIOUS

ADVERBIAL

MODIFIERS

An adverbial modifier

or a part it / *from there*/

They denote qualifications of the second order, it includes a great number of semantically weakened forms which are in fact intermediate between notional and functional lexemes by their status and often display features of pronominal nature.

According to their meaning adverbs are divided into the following groups: 1.

Adverbs of time: now, then, soon, lately, when, immediately; 2. Adverbs of frequency: often, seldom, hardly ever, occasionally; 3. Adverbs of direction: here, there, below, inside, ashore, backwards; 4. Adverbs of manner: well, badly, quickly, clearly, suddenly, how, deeply, sincerely; 5. Adverbs of degree: very, awfully, highly, too, so, little, sufficiently, A little, a great deal, much, quite, nearly; 6. Adverbs of consequence and course: therefore, hence, why, consequently, accordingly, as a result, for this reason, for one thing.

By combining with the second element verbs of broader meaning are subjected to a regular, systematic multiplication of their semantic functions:

The lexico-grammatical status of the second elements is a question which has been interpreted in different ways:

H. Palmes, A. Smirnitsky have treated it as a variety of adverbs.



I. Anichkov, N. Amosova	- preposition – like a functional word
Y. Zhluktenko	- a peculiar prefix – like a suffix
B.D.Ilyish	- postposition

B.S.Khaimovish, B.I.Rogovskaya - a special set of lexical elements functionally intermediate between words and morphemes. The most typical terms for them are “глагол с послелогом” or “phrasal verbs”.

### **Лекція 7. The functional parts of speech.**

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. To the basic functional parts of words in English belong the article, the prepositions, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection.

**The article** expresses the specific limitation of the substantive functions. Article is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun. The semantic purpose of the article is to specify a noun, to referent, to define it in the most general way.

*Will you give me this pen? Will you give me the pen? Any blade will do, I only want it for scratching out the wrong word.*

The article presents the students with one of the most difficult and intricate problems of language structure. B. Ilyish doesn't include the article in the list of parts of speech. But the problem is irrelevant. Another problem is whether the article is a word or a morpheme.

The two main views of the article are the following.

1. The article is a word which forms a separate part of speech and the collocation “article + noun” is a phrase of a peculiar kind. M. Blokh considers that the status of the combination of the article with the noun should be defined as basically analytical in the free syntactic combination of words where the article itself is a special type of grammatical auxiliary. The category of determination expressed by the article paradigm consists of three forms: the definite, the indefinite, the zero. The paradigm is generalized for the whole system of nouns. Various cases of asymmetry in the realization of this paradigm (such as the article determination of the certain nouns singularia tantum and pluralia tantum) in connection with the expression of the category of number suppletive collocations may be used:

- progress – a kind of progress – some progress – the progress;
- news – an item of news – a piece of news – the news.

If we endorse the view that the group “article + noun” is an analytical form of the noun we’ll set up a grammatical category of determination. In this case we accept a “zero article”.

2. The article is a form element in the system of the noun; it is thus a kind of a morpheme, or if a word, an auxiliary word of the same kind as the auxiliary verbs. In that case the phrase “article + noun” is a morphological formation similar to the formation “auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle”, which is an analytical form of the verb.

If we stick to this point of view, the group “article + noun” is not an analytical form of the noun and the group is peculiar type of phrase, no “zero article” is possible, and the meanings of each of the two articles (definite and indefinite) are to be taken as individual meanings of words. On the whole the second point of view seems to B. Ilyish more preferable.

The article determination of the noun as a specific grammatical category remains valid also in such cases when the noun is modified not by the article itself, but by a semi-notional

*But unhappily the wife wasn't listening. But unhappily his wife wasn't listening.*

*What could a woman do in the situation like that? What could any woman do in that sort of situation?*

Thus, the English noun, besides the categories of numbers and case, distinguished also the category of determination expressed by the article paradigm (expressed by) of three grammatical forms: the definite, the indefinite, the zero.

The paradigm is generalized for the whole system of nouns.

The semi-notional determiners used with nouns in the absence of articles:

*The, this – that, that – those, my, our, your, his, her, its, their; a, another, some, any, every, no, one.*

In a Communicative Grammar G. Zeech and J. Svartvick treat Determiners as words which specify the range of a noun in various ways, e.g. by making it definite (the boy), indefinite (a boy), or by indicating quantity (many boys).

**The preposition** / relations between things and phenomena/ expresses the dependencies and independencies of substantive referents. Prepositions express relations between phenomena, conjunctions express connections between them;

1) may be synonymous

*An old man and his son. An old man with his son.*

2) may be identical in form and have the same function

"before", "after" - introducing a noun

"before", "after" - introducing a subordinate clause.

**The conjunction** express connections of phenomena / coordinating and subordinating conjunction/

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

**The modal words** express the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts.

There belong the functional words of probability /*probably, perhaps*/, of qualitative evaluation /*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily*/.

**The interjection**, occupying a detached position in the sentence, is a signal of emotion. Interjections express feelings / *ah, alas*/. They are not names or feelings, but the immediate expression of them /parenthesis, sentence in itself.

*The interjection is a part of word stock of a language. Interjections as distinct from nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc. are not names of anything, but expressing of emotions: Alas! Ax!*

*Another characteristic feature of the meaning of interjections is, that while some of them express quite definite meanings, other interjections seem to express merely feeling in general.*

*The grammatical problems involved in the study of the interjections are to be considered on two levels: that of phrases & that of the sentence. That of phrases: interjection doesn't make part of any phrase, but stands isolated. But it makes part of phrase. Alas for my friends! Oh, my dear! This possibility is limited to the first person.*

*Interjection can be a part of the sentence loosely connected with the rest of it, & approaches a parenthesis in its character. Oh! She used awful grammar!*

### Лекція 8. Tense – aspect system in English. Different points of view.

While dealing with the verb we should bear in mind that category of Tense and Aspect are closely linked together. It is due to the historical development of the English language that on the basis of the Present and Preterite there developed analytical absolute and relevant Future and as it is considered in the history of English that the analytical forms of Continuous, Perfect, Passive there appeared in the frame work of Tense system.

#### Present indefinite

		Mary I		usually	lives have lunch	in London, at one o'clock.	(констатація факту) (повторювана дія)
		Mary I	doesn't don't	usually	live have my lunch	in the country, until one.	
Where	Do Does does Don't	Who you Mary Mary Peter Peter they	doesn't	usually	lives have lunch live live? speaks Spanish speak Spanish speak Spanish	in London? at one? in London? well, well, well too?	doesn't he? does he? (вираз здивування, сумніви)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Хіба (невже) вони теж добре не говорять по-іспанськи?</li> </ul>							

**Note 1.** З формою Present Indefinite часто вживаються прислівники невизначеного часу often, usually, (very) seldom, rarely, never, ever, sometimes, а також словосполучення every day (week, year, etc.), As a rule та інші . Зверніть увагу на місце прислівників невизначеного часу у реченні.

**Note 2.** Present Indefinite також вживається при короткому викладі змісту п'єси або розповіді.

## PRESENT CONTINUOUS

		I	am	reading	a book	now.	<i>(тривала дія, що відбувається в момент мови)</i> <i>(тривала дія, що відбувається в теперішній період часу)</i>
		Mr Aldridge	is	writing	a new novel	at present.	
		It	isn't	raining	hard	(now).	
What	Are	Who	is	writing	a new novel	at present?	<i>(вираз здивування, сумніви)</i>
	Are	you	isn't	reading	a play or a	now?	
		you	is	doing	novel?	now, is it?	
		It		raining		now, isn't	
		It		raining		it?	
	Isn't	John		reading	a book	now too?	
<p>* Хіба Джон не читає зараз книгу теж?</p>							

### Compare:

Mr Brown plays tennis every week.	Mr Brown <i>is</i> playing tennis in the park now.
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Зверніть увагу на особливість розчленованого питання з дієсловом to be в 1-ій особі однини.

### Compare:

I am late, aren't I?	I am not late, am I?
I am speaking too fast for you, aren't I?	I am not speaking too fast for you, am I?

Форми Continuous зазвичай не вживаються з дієсловами, що виражають почуття сприйняття, бажання, і деякими іншими.

Наприклад :

I like this picture, don't you?

Do you see that man over there? He's our new lecturer.

I'm afraid he doesn't understand what I am talking about.

Do you want two tickets?

Doesn't this magazine belong to you?

I suppose it's going to rain soon.

Але в розмовній мові деякі дієслова почуття і сприйняття можуть вживатися у формі Continuous при зміні їх значення.

### Compare:

Don't you feel the heat? Хіба ви не відчуваєте (відчуваєте) спеку?	How are you feeling now? Як ви зараз себе почуваете? (Як ваше самопочуття?)
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## MODAL VERBS CAN, MAY, MUST; HAVE (TO), HAVE GOT (TO), BE (TO)

### 1. can

	I	cannot	move	this heavy box.	(фізична можливість)
		can't			
	She	can	play	the piano.	(вміння)
can	I		speak	to Mr Brown?	(дозвіл)

**Note.** Дієслово can зазвичай не перекладається на українську мову, якщо за ним слідує дієслова see або hear.

### Compare:

I can see a man in the street,	Я бачу людину на вулиці.
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### 2. may

	You	may	smoke	here.	(дозвіл)
May	I		speak	to Mr Brown?	
	You	may not	take	more than two cartons of cigarettes through the Customs.	(заборону)
* Через митницю не дозволяється перевозити більше двох блоків сигарет.					

**Note.** Дієслово may може також виражати можливість вчинення дії.

### Compare:

He may come in, if he likes. Він може увійти, якщо хоче. (Дозвіл)	He may come in half an hour. Він, можливо, прийде через півгодини. (припущення)
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### 3. must

Must	Mr Brown	must	do this work today.	(Повинність, необхідність)
	you		go now?	
	Children	must not	play with matches.	(категоричну заборону)

**NOTE.** Дієслово must може також виражати ймовірність вчинення дії.

### Compare:

John must go now. Джон повинен зараз йти, (повинність)	John must be at home now. Джон, повинно бути (ймовірно), зараз вдома, (імовірність)
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Зверніть увагу на найбільш уживані відповіді на питання з дієсловами may і must.

May I borrow your book?	Yes, please do. (You may.)	Так, будь ласка. (Ви можете.)
Must I send this letter now?	Yes, indeed (you must). No, you needn't.	Так, звичайно (ви повинні). Ні, не потрібно.

#### 4. have (to), have got (to)

	We		have	got	to phone	Mr Brown.	
	We		have		to phone	Mr Brown.	(необхідність)
Do	we		have	got	to phone	Mr Brown?	
Have	we				to phone	Mr Brown?	
	You	don't	have	got	to phone	Mr Brown,	do you? have
	You		haven't		to phone	Mr Brown,	you?

#### 5. To be

Дієслово be (to) вживається для вираження необхідності вчинення дії у зв'язку з домовленістю або планом.

#### Compare:

He is to leave for Tallin in two days. Він їде (повинен виїхати) в Таллінн через два дні. (у зв'язку з домовленістю, планом)	He must leave now. Він повинен зараз їхати. (необхідність)
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## Present perfect

	I	've (have)	taught	her to speak properly.	<i>(час вчинення дії не вказано)</i>
	You	've (have)	brought	a common flower-girl from Covent Garden to my box at Ascot	<i>(результат досконалої дії в минулому. У</i>
	He	has	received	a delegation this morning (month, year, today, tonight, ect).	<i>(дія закінчилося, але період часу, до якого вона відноситься, триває)</i>
	We Mary	haven't hasn't	spoken met	English for many years, him since 1982 (since they went to school).	
Have How long have Which	You they you of you	have has ever	met been known learned	Mr Smith, haven't you? to see Bob lately? Mr Smith? a foreign language before?	

**Note 1.** З Present Perfect можуть вживатися прислівники невизначеного часу already, yet, never, ever, so far, just, often, always, lately, recently і деякі інші, а також прийменники for і since.

**Note 2.** Present Perfect зазвичай перекладається на українську мову минулим часом. Але коли з контексту ясно, що Present Perfect позначає незакінчену дію, дієслово в цій формі перекладається теперішнім часом.

### Compare:

<p>Mary has been ill for a week.</p> <p>I've known the Greens since 1963.</p>	<p>1. Мері хворіла тиждень. (дія закінчилася)</p> <p>2. Мері хворіє тиждень, (дія не закінчилася)</p> <p>3. Я знаю сім'ю Грінів з 1963 року, (дія не закінчилася)</p>
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## PAST INDEFINITE

	They Michael I	arrived wrote	this article	at eight o'clock yesterday, after he returned from his trip to Africa.	(дія завершилася в певний
	I	took	a book,	opened it and began to read.	(перерахува ння ряду послідовно
	They	didn't arrive		at eight o'clock yesterday.	
Did When	they Who	arrive wrote	this article? his article on Africa?	at eight o'clock yesterday?	

**Note 1.** Past Indefinite вживається зазвичай з такими позначеннями часу, як yesterday, the day before yesterday (позавчора), last year (week, month), last (time) (минулого разу), last night (вчора ввечері), the other day (на днях), two days ago, during the holiday (vacations, summer, winter, etc.), this morning, etc., якщо вказаний період часу вже закінчився, а також у питанні з when.

**Note 2.** Зверніть увагу на те, що дієслово must форми минулого часу не має і для вираження повинності вживається дієслово had (to).

<b>Compare:</b>	
You must talk to him. Must I go and see him tonight?	You had to talk to him last night. Did I have to see him last night?
Present Perfect	Past Indefinite
I've come here this morning to have my English lesson, (період часу ще не	I came here this morning, but you were absent, (період часу вже минув)

## PAST PERFECT

	The rain had stopped	by five o'clock,	<i>(вираз дії, що закінчився до певного моменту в минулому)</i>
We had studied the problem seriously	before we began to discuss it.		
as I hadn't finished my work			
I couldn't go with Had	the rain	stopped	by that time?
Present Perfect	Compare: Past Indefinite	Past Perfect	
I've heard this song.	I heard this song last night.	I had already heard that song before she sang it today.	

**Note.** Past Indefinite вживається при викладі змісту оповідання, де дії в минулому відбувалися послідовно, одне за іншим. Для вираження дії, яка відбулася раніше подій, що є основною темою викладу, вживається Past Perfect.

## PAST CONTINUOUS

	He was still having	at half past eight,	<i>(тривалу дію, що відбувається в якийсь певний момент чи період часу в минулому)</i>
The boys	were playing chess	when I came in. all day yesterday.	
Was it	was snowing here	from morning till night too?	
What was Bill	wasn't watching TV	when (while) the family was watching it.	<i>(одночасність двох тривалих дій)</i>
Bill	doing	when (while) the family was watching	

**Note.** При одночасності двох дій, що відбувалися в минулому, обидва дієслова, що виражають ці дії, можуть бути вжиті також і в Past Indefinite.

### Compare:

Nick played chess when (while) Mary had a walk. Нік грав у шахи, коли Мері гуляла. (констатується факт вчинення дії в певний момент)	Nick was playing chess when (while) Mary was having a walk. Нік грав у шахи, коли Мері гуляла. (підкреслюється процес перебігу дії)
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### PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

### Compare:

Present Perfect	Present Perfect Continuous
They have lived in Kiev for ten years. Вони живуть у Києві 10 років. (констатація факту)	They have been living in Kiev for ten years (since 1978). Вони живуть у Києві 10 років (з 1978)

### PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Past Continuous	Compare: Present Perfect Continuous	Past Perfect Continuous
Football players were training from six till eight yesterday. Футболісти вчора тренувалися з 6 до 8.	Football players have been training for two hours. Футболісти тренуються / тренувалися 2 години.	Football players had already been training for two hours before it started to rain. Футболісти тренувалися 2 години, до того як пішов дощ.

In modern English theoretical grammar there exist different approaches to this complicate phenomena. The traditional point of view is presented by I.Ivanova. According to it the Tense - aspect system of the English is presented by the four paradigmatic sets: Indefinite, Continuous, Perfect, Perfect — Continuous. Only Indefinite is pure tense set, the rest are tense - aspect forms.

According to M. Blokh in Modern English the grammatical expression of verbal time is the following: tense is affected in two correlated stages. At the first stage, the process receives an absolute time characteristics by means of opposing the past tense to the present tense. The marked member of this opposition is the past form. At the second stage the process receives a non-absolute relative time characteristics by means of

opposing the forms of the future tense to the forms of non-future marking. These two temporal categories M. Blokh calls the category of "prime time" and the category of "prospective time".'

B. Ilyish recognizes the tense category, consisting of past, present and future. They reflect the objective category of time and express on this background the relations between the time of the action and the time of the reality.

Some doubts have been expressed as for the existence of a future tense in English by O. Jespersen English has no way of expressing "pure futurity" free form modal shades of meaning. According to Blokh a certain modal colouring of the meaning of the English future can not be denied. But as is widely known, the expression of the future in other languages is not disconnected from modal semantics either, and this is conditioned by the mere fact that the future action, as different from the present or past actions, can not be looked upon as a genuine feature of reality. Indeed it is only foreseen or anticipated, or planned.

While the existence of the aspect category in English is a disputed matter, the tense category is universally recognized. Tense is the form of the verb which indicates the time of action, while aspect is the form of verb which serves to express the manner in which the action is regarded. In OE there were only two tense forms: Present and Past Simple the verbs were conjugated. Due to the fact that both tense and aspect are expressed grammatically they became inseparable and it became common to refer to them as tense-aspect system.

According to B. Ilyish the modal factor should be taken into consideration. But the expression of the future in other languages is not disconnected from modal semantics either. This is conditioned by the mere fact that the future action, as different from the present and past actions cannot be seen as real but only is foreseen, or anticipated, or planned or desired. But in spite of the etymology of the verb "shall" and "will" the English categorical future differs distinctly from the modal constructions with the same predicator verbs. This point of view is shared by B. Ilyish, who considers the three are main divisions of time in the English verbal system present, past and future. Such of them may appear in the common and continuous aspect.

The position of the perfect forms in the system of the English verb is a problem which has been treated in many different ways:

1) the category of perfect is a peculiar tense category which should be classed in the same list as "present", "past". This view was held by O. Jespersen.

2) the category of perfect is a peculiar aspect category, one which should be given a place in the list comprising "common aspect" and "continuous aspect". This view was held by a number of scholars, including Prof. G. Vorontsova.

3) the category of perfect is neither one of tense, nor one of aspect but a specific category different from both. Prof. A. Smirnitsky calls it the category of "time relation" (временной отнесенности).

4) Prof. B. Ilyish accepted the definition of the basic meaning of the perfect forms as that of "precedence". The three verbal categories are-aspect, tense, correlation. They are closely connected, and could therefore even occasionally be confused and mistaken for each other.

5) since the perfect is neither a tense nor an aspect, it is bound to be some special grammatical category different both from tense and from aspect. This view was first put forward by Prof. A. Smirnitsky. He called it "the category of time relation", which was not a very happy term. It is breaking back the old view that the perfect was a special kind of tense. Later the term "correlation" was proposed by B. Ilyish. According to B. Ilyish the verbal categorical paradigm is based on three groups of notions, viz.

- tense: present :: past :: future;
- aspect: common :: continuous;
- correlation: non-perfect :: perfect.

As it is seen from this list, the latter two of the three oppositions are double or "dichotomic", i. e. they consist of only two items each, whereas the first is triple or "trichotomic", i. e. it consists of three items.

Prof. M. Blokh doesn't think that the rule of sequence of tenses in English complex sentences formulated by traditional grammar should be rejected. Sequence of tenses is an important feature of all narration, for, depending on the continual consecutive course of actual events in reality, they are presented in the actual events of

reality, they are presented in the text in definite successions ordered against a common general background. However, what should be stressed here is that the tense-shift is involved in the translate of the present-plane direct information into the past-plane reported information.

The idea of temporal centers propounded by Prof. I. Ivanova as an essential element of the English tense is fully justified in analyzing the future-in-the-past tenses. It should be noted that in many sentences of such kind §f the relation between the action denoted by the verb-form and the time of the utterance remains uncertain; the action may or not have taken place already. What is certain that it was future from the point of view of the time when the action denoted by the verb in past-form took place? Prof. I.Ivanova thinks the term "future-in-the-past" inappropriate and suggests for these forms the term "dependent future". It would appear that both terms will do equally well, and it is undesirable to change a term unless it is absolutely necessary to do so. We will therefore keep the term "future-in-the-past".

### **Лекція 9. Different means of expressing future actions in English.**

All future actions are by nature hypothetical. Owing to that, ways of expressing future actions - in addition to the meaning of futurity - are often associated with various other modal meanings, such as intention, willingness, readiness, obligation, assurance, expectation and the like. That explains why English is rich in means of referring an action to the future.

**The Present Continuous** is used to express a future action as definitely settled due to one's previous decision. The action is going to take place in the nearfuture and the time is, as a rule, indicated in the sentence by means of such adverbial modifiers as *tonight, next week, in a few days*, etc. e.g. she **is coming** to lunch on Thursday.

**The Future Continuous** is also one of the means of expressing future actions. The difference between the Present Continuous used to denote a future action and the Future Continuous becomes quite evident if we compare the following sentences: e.g. We **are meeting** tomorrow (= *we have arranged to meet tomorrow, we have fixed the date of our meeting*).

**To be + infinitive (with to)**, like the Present Continuous, serves to indicate a previous arrangement, but in addition to that meaning it generally implies obligation resulting from that arrangement. Besides, it differs from the Present Continuous in that it does not necessarily refer the action to the near future. The verb *to be* in this combination is regarded as a modal verb.

Since a previous arrangement is the basic meaning of this combination and the action always refers to the future, no special indication of time is needed in the sentence, though the time may be mentioned if necessary. e.g. I've had a letter from home. **I'm to go** back at once.

**To be going to + infinitive** is an important means of referring an action to the future which is frequently used in modern English.

It is convenient to refer to it as the "*going-to* form". The "*going-to* form" may have the following meanings:

It serves to express **premeditated intention** which means that the person denoted by the subject has been planning for some time to perform the action, has been thinking of it, that some preparation for the action has been in progress. Indications of time are optional in this case. e.g. **I'm not going to live** at home.

#### Future Indefinite

	I They	'11 (shall, will) '11 (will)	be twenty arrive	next month, tomorrow.	<i>констатація факту</i>
	We George	shan't (shall not) won't (will not)	come early stay long	tonight. here.	<i>висловлюється впевненість в тому, що дія сповниться в майбутньому</i>
Will When will Why won't	you Who he George	will	be twenty arrive come? stay long	next month? tomorrow? here?	



**Note 1.** Future Indefinite зазвичай вживається з такими позначеннями часу, як tomorrow, tonight, the day after tomorrow (післязавтра) і next year (week, month), in some (two, etc.). Days (hours, months), one of these days (на днях), next time та інші.

**Note 2.** У письмовій мові, а також в офіційних промовах і заявах вживаються повні форми shall і will.

**Note 3.** Для вираження майбутньої дії в підрядних реченнях часу й умови після after, before, when, if, as soon as, as long as, till, until, unless вживається Present Indefinite.

**Compare:**

He'll give you this book if you ask him. They won't be able to do this work unless (until) you show them how to do it.	Він дасть вам книгу, якщо ви його попросите. Вони не зможуть зробити цю роботу, якщо (поки) ви не покажете їм, як її робити.
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Зверніть увагу на модальний відтінок значення shall в питальній формі.

**Compare:**

Shall I shut the door? Let's take a taxi, shall we?	Мені (потрібно) закрити двері? (Ви хочете, щоб я закрити двері?) Візьмемо таксі? (Ви згодні?)
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**THE "BE GOING TO" FORM**

I	am going	are	to see a new film	tonight, in June.	<i>(вираз наміри чи вчинення дії в майбутньому)</i>
The students	going		to have their exams		
Is	John	going	to have his exams	in June too?	

**Note 1.** З дієсловами go, some словосполучення be going to не вживається; замість нього вживається Present Continuous цих дієслів.

They are going fishing next week. Вони поїдуть (збираються) на риболовлю на наступному тижні.

**Note 2.** Для вираження запланованої дії в майбутньому, особливо з такими дієсловами, як go, leave, come, start, arrive, stay та ін, вживається Present Continuous.

The Smiths are leaving for Glasgow tomorrow. Сім'я Сміт їде завтра в Глазго.

## FUTURE CONTINUOUS

We	'll (shall)	be watching TV	at six o'clock tomorrow  (from six to eight, the whole evening tomorrow).	<i>дію здійснюватиметься в певний момент або відрізок часу в майбутньому</i>
Bill	won't	be working	at seven in the evening.	
Will he Who	will	be working be watching TV	at seven o'clock? tomorrow?	

**Note.** Future Continuous вживається також для емоційного підкреслення інтенсивності або важливості дії в майбутньому.

### Compare:

(I'll ) See you tomorrow. Побачимося завтра. (До завтра.)	I'll be seeing you tomorrow, I hope. Побачимося завтра, я сподіваюсь.
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### Compare:

Future Indefinite	to be going to	Present Continuous	Future Continuous
They'll play volley- ball on Sunday.	They are going to play volley- ball on Sunday.	They are playing volley-ball on Sunday.	They'll be playing volley- ball on Sunday from 9 to 11 a. m.

**The Present Indefinite** may be used to express future actions. This occurs in four different cases: Its use is structurally dependent, compulsory, in subordinate clauses of time, condition and concession when the action refers to the future (in such cases we usually find the Future Indefinite, or modal verbs, or the Imperative Mood in the principal clause).

Clauses of time referring to the future may be introduced by the conjunctions *when, while, till, until, before, after, as soon as* and *once*. e.g. Will you wait while I **look** through the manuscript?

Its use is lexically dependent in object clauses after *to see (to), to take care* and *to make (be) sure*. He will take care that no one **interferes** with them.

The Present Indefinite may be used to indicate a future action which is certain to take place according to a timetable, programme, schedule, command or arrangement worked out for a person or persons officially. In this case the sentence usually contains an indication of time. e.g. When **does** Ted **return** from his honeymoon?

**The Future Indefinite.** After all the other means of expressing future actions have been described, it is now necessary to see what remains for the Future Indefinite proper to express.

With stative verbs the Future Indefinite is used to express any action referring to the future, without any restrictions. e.g. His suggestion **will interest** you enormously. You'll **think** his ideas absurd.

The other means of expressing future actions are not common with stative verbs - some of them seem to be impossible with these verbs. Although the number of stative verbs is limited, they are in frequent use, which makes the role of the Future Indefinite very important in English.

With dynamic verbs the Future Indefinite is used freely only under certain conditions:

a) In the principal clause of a complex sentence with a clause of time, condition and concession. e.g. We'll **talk** about it *whenever* he comes.

b) In passive constructions, e.g. He'll **be voted** down.

c) To express a succession of actions in the future. e.g. **I'll take** a walk to the sea and on my way back **I'll buy** you a newspaper.

d) When the time of the realization of the action is indefinite or when its realization is remote. e.g. Life **will teach** her a lesson.

e) To denote actions whose realization is uncertain, doubtful or merely supposed, as their fulfilment depends on some implied condition. e.g. Protest as you like, Mr. Pyke, it **won't alter** my decision.

f) In object clauses after verbs expressing personal views or opinions, such as *to be afraid, to believe, to be sure, to doubt, to expect, to have no doubt, to hope, to imagine, to know, to suppose, to suspect, to think, to wonder* and the like. e.g. He *thinks* a scandal **will ruin** his reputation. I'm *afraid* he **won't talk** to you.

By way of exception to the above rules, dynamic verbs may occasionally be found in the Future Indefinite to express mere futurity without any additional modal meanings. This use of the Future Indefinite may be understood as an expression of neutrality or impartiality on the part of the speaker. e.g. Be quiet. Somebody **will answer** the bell.

### 10. The grammatical category of voice in English.

The category of voice presents us its own batch of difficulties. In their main character they have something in common with the difficulties of mood: there is no strict one-way correspondence between meaning and means of expression.

*He shaved the customers* } The meaning is different  
*He shaved and went out* } but the form is the same

B. Ilyish points out two definitions of the category of voice. According to the one of them this category expresses the relation between the subject and the action. According to the other view the category of voice express the relations between the subject and the object of the action.

### PASSIVE VOICE

	Letters	are	typed -	every day.
	The letter	is being	here	now.
	The letters	have been	typed	already.
	The letter	was	typed	yesterday.
	The letter	had been	typed	by 5 o'clock yesterday.
	The letter	will be	typed	in an hour.
	The letter	is going to be	typed	soon.
	Letters	aren't (are	typed	every day.
	Letters	not)	here	yesterday.
	Letters	weren't	typed	yet.
	The letters	haven't	here	
		(have not)	typed	
	The letters	been	typed yet	when I came in.
	The letter	hadn't been	typed	in an hour.
		won't (will*		
		not) be		
Are	letters		typed here	every day?

	Is Was Have Will	the letter the letter the letters the letter	being  been be	typed typed typed typed	now? yesterday? yet? in an hour?
Who When When	are was will	letter letters the letter the letter	  be	typed typed by typed? typed?	now? every day?

**Note.** Ряд перехідних дієслів, серед них такі, як have, lack, suit, fit, resemble, look like, як правило, не вживаються в пасивному стані.

Examples: They have a nice house.

Will this suit you?

He lacks confidence.

John looks like his father.

Зверніть увагу на переклад українською мовою наступних конструкцій в пасивному стані.

### Compare:

He is asked...

Його просять (запитують) ...

I was told...

Мені сказали (веліли) ...

Ann has been warned...

Анну попередили ...

She will be sent...

Її пошлють ...

You are wanted on the phone.

Вас просять до телефону.

Дієслова give, tell, promise, allow, offer, show, bring, teach, send, lend і деякі інші, потребують після себе , безприменникового прямого і непрямого додатків, можуть вживатися в пасивному стані в конструкціях двох типів.

#### Active

#### Passive

The manager offered Mr Dean a new job.

6. Mr Dean was offered a new job.

7. A new job was offered to Mr Dean.

Зверніть увагу на вживання прийменників з дієсловами у пасивному стані.

### Compare:

1. "Airport" was written by Arthur Hailey.	«Аеропорт» був написаний Артуром Хейлі, (ким?)
2. The Neva river is covered with ice in winter.	Нева взимку покривається льодом. (чим?)
3. The house will be surrounded by a garden.	Будинок буде оточений садом. (чим?)

**Compare:**

Active Voice	Passive Voice
Mr Brown gave a lecture yesterday.	Yesterday a lecture was given by Mr Brown.
The workers will build a new	A new road will be built soon.

**Note.** Доповнення з прийменником *by* вживається тільки в тому випадку, якщо необхідно зробити смисловий акцент на діючому обличчі.

Дієслова *say, know, believe, expect* і деякі інші вживаються у пасивному стані в безособових реченнях типу:

It is said that ... Кажуть, що ...
It is known that ... Відомо, що ...
It is believed that ... Вважають, що ... It is expected that ... Очікують, що ...

Перехідні дієслова з прийменниками: *look at, wait for, rely on (upon)* (покладатися), *laugh at, listen to, send for, speak about, talk about, depend on* (залежати від) і деякі інші вживаються у пасивному стані, причому прийменник зберігає своє місце після дієслова.

This film is much spoken about.                      This man can be relied upon (on).

Про це у фільмі багато говорять.                      На цю людину можна покластися.

From the point of view of form the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: the characteristic is the pattern "be + Participle II" whereas the active voice is unmarked: its characteristic is the absence of that pattern. They constitute a complete system of oppositions within the category of voice.

At various times, the following three voices have been suggested in addition to the two already mentioned:

- 1) the reflexive, as in “he dressed himself”;
- 2) the reciprocal, as in “they dressed each other”;
- 3) the middle, as in “the door opened” as distant from the form “I opened the door”.

But this problem is still discussing.

It is evident that the problem of the voice is very intimately connected with that of transitive and intransitive verbs, which has also been variously treated by different scholars.

In the modern English the formation of the passive voice is possible if verb denotes an action relating to some object. ...*he was spoken of*, ...*he was taken care of*, ...*the bed had not been slept in*

In Indo-European languages transitivity is the lexico-grammatical characteristic of the verb. In Modern English many phrasal verbs have acquired the meaning of transitivity and thus can take the direct object and be converted into passive constructions. I. Burkhudarov suggested to call them objective as a matter of fact transitivity turns out to narrower than objectivity. And for English verb it would be more correct to speak about objectivity (non-objectivity) than of transitivity/non-transitivity. Thus in English the number of verbs that can be used in passive is larger than in other Indo-European languages. It is one of the reasons for the frequent occurrence of the Passive. This is not always correspondence between English and Russian. The Russian reflexive verbs “пугаться, обижаться, сбываться, осуществляться, удивляться, разочаровываться” are rendered in English by passive constructions.

The category of voice is represented in the system of the verb as a whole. It is due to this fact Passive is not used in the forms where “be” must be doubled there are only 10 tense-aspect forms in Passive whereas in Active there are 16. M. Blokh states that forms of Future Continuous (‘ll be going), Present Perfect Continuous (have been going), Future Perfect Continuous (‘ll have been going); Future Continuous in the Past (‘d be going), Future Perfect Continuous in the Past (‘d have been going).

It is common knowledge that the Passive is extensively used in English. This seems to be due to a number of reasons:

- The number of objective verbs capable to be used in Passive is much larger than the number of transitive verbs in other Indo-European languages;
- The need of Passive in English is greater due to its analytical structure and the rigid word order in the sentence and the obligatory presence of the object with the objective verbs. Passive is used: to avoid any mention of the agent.

In English the indefinite pronoun “one” and occasionally the personal “we”, “you”, “they” and the noun “people” may be used with the passive meaning:

- *One ought to keep one's language up.*
- *They say there is nothing going on.*
- *People exaggerate so.*

But for some reason or other, the use of this kind of sentences is restricted, and English, instead, resorts to passive constructions.

- In English, owing to the loss of distinction between the Accusative and Dative cases, the number of verbs taking a direct object is quite considerable. It accounts for the extensive use of the Direct object.
- There is a great number and variety of passive constructions in English. Although some of them are restricted in their application, they still contribute to the frequent use of the Passive.

E. M. Gordon and I.P. Krylova define the following types of passive constructions

- 1) the direct passive: *at night he was carried to the hospital*;
- 2) subject: predicative construction: *She is said...*;
- 3) with formal “it” as a subject: *It was explained...*;

The use of it is quite extensive.

#### Restrictions to its application:

a) it is impossible when direct object is expressed by an infinitive, a clause, a reflexive pronoun;

b) in set phrases: *to take a flight, to take alarm, to loose courage, to take courage, to loose heart (one's patience), to keep one-s word*;



**But** certain phrases of this kind admit it to take care; to take no notice; to pay attention; to take responsibility. Some transitive verbs, at list in certain uses, do not occur in the Passive: *The boy resembled his father. The hat suits you. The dress doesn't fit you. He lacks confidence.*

Another problem posed by the category of voice and connected with neutralization concerns the relations between the morphological form of the passive voice and syntactical form of the corresponding complex nominal predicate with the pure link "be". As a matter of fact, the either of the two combinations is much the same. *The door was closed by the butler. The door on the left was closed.*

The first expressed an action and refers to the passive voice. The second expresses a state and is interpreted as a nominal predicate. They are distinguish by the factor of semantics as the criterion of the dynamic force of the construction. It shows that the categorial status of the predicate in the second sentence is wholly neutralized.

The auxiliary "be" in the passive form can be used in different tense-aspect forms: *The fence is painted. The fence is to be painted. The fence will be painted. The fence has just been painted. The fence is just being painted.*

The presence in the sentence of the object and adverbial modifiers of time, place, and frequency also points to the passive voice: *The letter has been written by my friend. The article was translated with a dictionary.*

### **Лекція 11. The grammatical category of mood. Different points of view.**

According to M. Blokh the category of mood is the most controversary category of the verb. It is reserving different presentations with different authors. The cause of it lies in the complexity of the category as such, in the contrast of its meaningful intricacy (сложность) against the scarcity (дефицит) of the English word inflexion, which roots in the development of English from the synthetic to analytical.

The category of mood expresses the characters of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, presenting it either as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen an imaginary phenomenon. Thus, the form of reality (Indicative Mood) are contrasted to the forms of unreality (Subjunctive Mood) the former making up the strong member, the latter - the weak members of the opposition.

The formal description of the category has its source in the history of English, when the verb was conjugated both in the Indicative Mood and the Subjunctive Mood. Synthetic forms have their roots there: -Be it as you wish! - So be it! - Be what may! - Happen what may! - God forgive us! — Long live our friendship! -It is important that he arrive here as soon as possible. -It is recommended that the election start on Monday.

Imperative Mood is traditionally referred to as a separate mood, but for Ganshirna and Vasilevskaya who consider it to be semantically direct mood and in this sense being linked with the indicative. This kind of interpretation, according to M.Blokh, is hardly convincing. The imperative mood displays every property of a form of attitudes, which can easily be shown by means of transformation: - Be off! — I demand that you be off.

Do be careful with the papers! - My request that you do be careful with the papers. M. Blokh, I. Ivanova consider that the whole system of the English Subjunctive Mood is far from being stabilized, it is just in the process of making and change. That is why it is the most controversial category of the verb. There is wide divergence of homonymous forms with the Indicative Mood forms.

## Modal Verbs

### “Must”, “should”, “ought to”, “could”, “might”, “would” with Indefinite Infinitive

I (he, she, we, you,	must	do this work	now (to- morrow)	(It is very important)	(повинність або рада)	Я (він і т. д.) повинен
	should			Мені (йому і т. д.) слід зробити цю		
	ought to			Мені (йому і т. д.) слід (варто було б)		
	could			(I think, I'll have time)	(припущення, для якого є всі підстави)	Я (він і т. д.) міг би зробити цю роботу
	might			(but I'm not sure)	(припущення з відтінком сумніву)	Я (він і т. д.), можливо (може бути), зроблю (ить)
	would			(but I have some other work to do)	(вираз бажання або можливості вчинення дії за певних умов)	Я (він і т. д.) зробив би цю роботу зараз (завтра).

**Note.** Дієслова could, might і would також вживаються у вічливій формі питання, прохання чи пропозиції щось зробити.

Could you wait for me?

You might look up this word in a dictionary.

Would you stay a little longer?

Would you like another cup of tea?

## “Must”, “may”, “might” and “could” with Continuous Infinitive

He	must	be reading	his paper	now	(probably he is)	Він, повинно бути
	may (might)				(perhaps he is)	Він, можливо (може бути), читає зараз
	could				(quite possible he is)	Він, може бути (цілком можливо), читає зараз

**Note.** Дієслово **must** у значенні повинно бути (ймовірно) в негативній і питальній формі не вживається: замість нього вживаються слова *evidently*, *obviously* та ін.

### Compare:

He must be at home now. Повинно бути, він зараз вдома.

Evidently he is not at home. Мабуть, його немає вдома.

## “Must”, “may”, “might”, “should”, “ought to”, “would”, “can” and “could” with Perfect Infinitive

	must			(probably he did)		повинно бути (ймовірно), зробив це
	may (might)	have done	yesterday (last year, etc.)	(perhaps he did)	Він (я, вона, ми,	можливо, зробив це
He (I, she, we,	should (ought to)	it		(but he didn't)	Йому (мені, вам і т. д.)	слід було б зробити це (але він не зробив
	would			(he didn't because something happened)	Він (я, ви і т. д.)	зробив би це
	could			a) it was possible for him to do it but he didn't; b) I don't know		міг би (міг) це зробити

**Note 1.** Дієслово **might** може також виражати докір чи жаль про невиконані дії.

You **might do** it yourself. Ви могли б зробити це самі. (відноситься до теперішнього або майбутнього часу)

He **might have sent** me the invitation earlier. Він міг би послати мені запрошення раніше (відноситься до минулого часу)

**Note 2.** Дієслова **should** і **ought to** в негативній формі в поєднанні з Perfect Infinitive виражають докір чи жаль з приводу скоєної дії в минулому.

**Compare:**

You **should (ought to) have greeted** him first (but you didn't). Вам (би) варто було привітатися з ним першим. (необхідність вчинення дії, якої не було скоєно)

You **shouldn't (oughtn't to) have greeted** him first (but you did). Вам не слід було б вітатися з ним першим. (докір, жаль з приводу скоєної дії)

**Note 3.** Дієслова **can** і **could** в негативній формі в поєднанні з Perfect Infinitive виражають крайнє здивування або сумнів.

**Compare:**

He **could have made** such a mistake. (I think it's possible.) Він міг би (міг) зробити подібну помилку (припущення, можливість)

He **(can't) couldn't have made** such a mistake. (I think it's impossible.) Не може бути, щоб (невже) він зробив подібну помилку. (?) (Подив, сумнів)

**Note 4.** Модальні дієслова в поєднанні з Indefinite Infinitive (Active and Passive) можуть висловлювати ставлення до дії або станом в сьогоденні або майбутньому, в поєднанні з Perfect Infinitive (Active and Passive) - відношення до дії або станом у минулому.

**Compare:**

Indefinite Infinitive	Perfect Infinitive
She must be busy now.	She must have been busy last night.
It may (might) rain tomorrow.	It may (might) have rained all night. The streets are wet.
The letter should be posted at once.	The letter should have been posted long ago.
An invitation could be made by phone tomorrow morning.	An invitation could have been made by phone, but we decided to send a card.
It would be nice to see you tomorrow.	It would have been nice to see you at the party. Why didn't you come?

## Need, will, would

### 1. need

Need	he	need	go there just now?	(необхідність здійснення дії)	Йому потрібно (необхідно) йти туди зараз?
Does	he		to go there so often?		Чи потрібно йому ходити туди так часто?
	I needn't		leave yet.	(відсутність необхідності вчинення дії)	Мені ще не треба йти.
	One doesn't always need		to change for the theatre.		У театр не завжди потрібно переодягатися.
	She won't need		to wear her raincoat.		Їй не доведеться надягати плащ.

Зверніть увагу, що смислове дієслово need у значенні "require" (потребує, вимагає після себе доповнення, вираженого іменником, займенником або герундієм).

### Compare:

<p><i>A. Do you need to buy a new transistor?</i></p> <p><i>B. No, I needn't buy a new transistor now.</i></p> <p><i>My old one is still good enough.</i></p> <p><i>(lack of necessity)</i></p>	<p><i>A. I need a new transistor. Do you need a new-one. too?</i></p> <p><i>B. No, I don't need a new transistor, my old one just needs some fixing, (requirement)</i></p>
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**Note 1.** Модальне дієслово need зазвичай вживається в питальних або негативних реченнях, в стверджувальних реченнях він вживається з прислівниками hardly, scarcely, only.

I need hardly tell you how important it is to know foreign languages. Навряд чи мені потрібно вам говорити, як важливо знати іноземні мови.

**Note 2.** У сучасній розмовній мові в питальних реченнях, що відносяться до минулого або майбутнього часу, замість модального дієслова need зазвичай вживається дієслово to have (to).

Did you have to fix your appointment for Tuesday? Вам довелося (було необхідно) призначити зустріч на вівторок?

Will they have to show their declaration form at the Customs? Їм доведеться показувати декларацію на митниці?

**Note 3.** Модальне дієслово need може також вживатися для вираження сумніву або докору.

Need you talk so much? Навіщо ви так багато говорите?

I don't think we need take our children to the cinema. Я думаю, нам не варто брати дітей з собою в кіно.

Зверніть увагу на вживання і значення дієслова need в контексті минулого часу.

### Compare:

They didn't need to come here, (that's probably why they didn't come) Їм не потрібно було приходити сюди, (тому вони, можливо, не	They needn't have come here, (but they did come) Їм не потрібно було приходити сюди, (але вони все-
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### will, would

He said	he	would	do it and he will.	(згоду, готовність, бажання,	Він сказав, що він зробить це, і він обов'язково зробить. Я готовий позичити вам гроші, якщо хочете.
	I	Will	lend you the money if		
No matter what you say	I	"Will	do as I like.	завзятість або рішучість вчинити	Що б ви не говорили, я зроблю так, як мені хочеться.
	He The door	won't won't	listen to me. open.	(відмова, вперте	Він не хоче слухати мене. Двері не відкриваються.
We offered him help	but he	wouldn't	accept it.	небажання вчинити дію)	Ми запропонували йому допомогу, але він відмовився її прийняти.

Peter is so fond of reading that	he	will	read for hours without stopping.	(вираз звичних або повторних дій)	Петро так любить читати, що може (буде) читати годинами, не відриваючись.
Time and again	she	would	come home very tired.		(вираз впевненості, можливості або припущення)
	Boys	"Will	be boys. (One cannot expect them to be different.)	Хлопчики завжди залишаються хлопчиками. (Це їм властиво.)	
"He understood the article."	"He	would."	(The article was too easy, or he knows the language well.)	Він зрозумів статтю. - Звичайно. Ще б йому не зрозуміти. (Стаття була занадто легкою або він добре знає мову.)	
	That	will	be the book you need. (It is likely to be the one.)		
When Jane got married	she	would	be 20. (Probably she was.)	(Я припускаю, що це так) Коли Джейн вийшла заміж, їй, має бути, було 20. (Я вважаю, що це було так)	

**Note 1.** Дієслово *would* в контексті теперішнього часу висловлює готовність, згоду, бажання або відмову вчинити будь-яку дію в менш категоричній, більш обережній формі, ніж у випадку передачі цих відтінків значення за допомогою *will*.

**Note 2:** Для вираження звичайної дії або тривалого стану в минулому, яке вже не властиво для теперішнього, вживається сполучення *used to*, а не модальне дієслово *would*.

His hair used to be black, now it's white. Раніше він був брюнет, а тепер сивий.



## Compare:

Habitual action in the past	Discontinued habits
<p>They used to spend their afternoons outdoors that summer. або:</p> <p>They would spend their afternoons outdoors that summer, (дії, що відбувалися час від часу в</p>	<p>He used to smoke a pipe, now he prefers smoking cigarettes, (звичайна дія в минулому, яка вже не властива для</p>

## Conditionals

### Type I. Probable condition

If he has enough money,	why doesn't he buy a colour TV set?	вираз ймовірного, здійсненого припущення, що відноситься до теперішнього часу	Якщо у нього достатньо грошей, чому йому не купити кольоровий телевізор? Якщо ви праві, я, ймовірно, неправий.
If you are right.	I must be wrong.		
If they arrived only last night.	they missed the USSR —	вираз ймовірного, здійсненого припущення, що відноситься до минулого часу	Якщо вони прибули тільки вчора
If you've been travelling so long	Canada		ввечері, то вони пропустили хокейний матч СРСР - Канада.
If he has done everything,	you need a good rest now.		Якщо ви так довго подорожували, вам тепер потрібно добре відпочити.
	he can (may) go home now.		Якщо він все зробив, він може зараз іти додому.
If I am free tonight,	I shall (will) go to see Jane.	вираз ймовірного, здійсненого припущення, що відноситься до майбутнього часу	Якщо я буду вільний сьогодні ввечері, я відвідаю Джейн.
So long as you return the book by next Saturday,	I will lend it to you.		Якщо тільки (за умови, що) ви повернете книгу до наступної суботи, я згоден (обіцяю) дати вам. Якщо вине зможете зробити це самі, попросіть Ніка допомогти вам.
Unless you can do it yourself,	ask Nick to help you.		
If (in case) Mr Lewis should come.	tell him I'll see him right away.	підкреслюється мало ймовірність припущення	У разі якщо пан Льюїс прийде, скажіть що я його негайно ж прийму

## Type II. Improbable condition

If I knew her address,  If he was (were) offered this job	I'd (should, would) give it to you. (but I don't know it) he could (might) take it.	вираз малоймовірних, малореальних припущень, що відносяться до теперішнього або майбутнього часу	Якби я знав її адресу, я б дав її вам. (але я її не знаю). Якби йому запропонували цю роботу, він міг би на неї погодитися (він, можливо, погодився б на неї).
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## Type III. Impossible condition

If he had been at the meeting, If you had tried hard,	I should have seen him. (but he was not there, so I did not see him) you could (might) have done it.	вираз нездійснених речень, що відносяться до минулого часу	Якби він був на зборах, я б його бачив, (але його не було там, і я його не бачив). Якби ви дуже постаралися, ви б змогли зробити це (можливо зробили б це).
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### Compare:

Present, Future	Past
If you asked him, he would help you. (Why don't you do it?) Якби ви попросили його, він би вам допоміг,	If you had asked him then, he would have helped you. (Why didn't you do it?) Якби ви тоді попросили його, він би вам допоміг,

### Compare:

If you help me. we can finish this work today. If you come I'll get a ticket for you. If he refuses to do it, we'll ask someone else.	If you will help me, we can finish this work today. If you would like to come, I'll get a ticket for you. If he won't do it we'll ask someone else.
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**Note 1.** Дієслово в головній частині умовних речень I типу, що відносяться до теперішнього або минулого часу, може стояти в будь-якому часі дійсного способу залежно від змісту висловлення. У реченнях, що відносяться до майбутнього часу, дієслово-присудок головного речення стоїть у формі майбутнього часу або в наказовому способі, а в підрядному реченні, як правило, у формі теперішнього часу.

**Note 2.** Для вираження ввічливого прохання, сильного бажання, рішучості або відмови вчинити дію в придаткових умовних реченнях I і II типу, що відносяться

до теперішнього та майбутнього часу, можуть вживатися дієслова will, would, won't, wouldn't.

If you will (would) kindly wait a moment, I'll see if the manager will receive you.

If you would let me have an answer by tomorrow morning, I should be very grateful.

If only he would ring us up, we wouldn't (shouldn't) be so worried.

**Note 3.** Умовні речення приєднуються до головного за допомогою союзів if, unless, so long as якщо тільки, за умови, що ...; supposing (that), suppose (that) якщо, якби, у разі; in case (that) у разі, якщо; but for якщоб не; provided (that) за умови та деяких інших.

You'd better take an umbrella with you in case it rains.

The plane is to take off at 6 p. m. provided the weather is fair.

Supposing the train is late, what shall we do?

He wouldn't do it unless you told him to.

But for the storm we should have arrived much earlier.

**Note 4.** Умовні речення можуть бути також безсполучникові; в цьому випадку має місце зворотний порядок слів (інверсія).

### Compare:

If (in case) anyone should ring me up, say that I'll be back soon.	Should anyone ring me up, say that I'll be back soon.
If he had known this, he would never have done it.	Had he known this, he would never have done it.

### Subjunctives

It is important	that	he	report the case	(It is important for him to report the case.)	(вказівка на те, що дія є передбачуваною, бажаною або	Важливо, щоб. Було необхідно, щоб. Рекомендується, щоб. Було б краще, якби	він	повідомив
It was necessary		we	(should report the case).				ви	(повідомили)
It is advisable		I					ми	про
It is better							я	цей випадок.

Tom suggests	that	she	postpone the trip	(Tom suggests her	необхідною )	Том пропонує, щоб	вона	відклала
He proposed		they	(should postpone the trip).	her		Він запропонував, щоб	вони	(відклав...) цю
I urge		John		postponing the trip.)		запропонував, щоб	Джон	поїздки.
They demanded		all of us				Я наполягаю на тому, щоб. Вони зажадали, щоб	всі ми	

**Note 1.** Форми умовного способу (Subjunctive) вживаються також після безособових оборотів *it is desirable* бажано, *it is imperative* вкрай необхідно, *it is essential* важливо, *it is requested*, *it is (only) right*, *it is fair*, *it is natural*, *it is just*, *it is reasonable* розумно, *it is obligatory* обов'язково та *in*, а також після дієслів *to agree*, *to insist*, *to recommend*, *to arrange*, *to request* і деяких інших.

**Note 2.** У сучасній англійській мові спостерігається тенденція до вживання Past Indefinite у значенні умовного способу.

He recommended that the title of the article

be changed, should be changed, was changed,.

**Note 3.** Після висловлення *It is (about, high) time* зазвичай вживається Past Indefinite у значенні умовного способу.

It is (about, high) time you started earning your own living.

Тобі вже (давно) пора заробляти собі на життя.

If I were you She talks He behaved	I should be more careful, as if (as though) she knew everything, as if (as though) he	(but I am not you) (but she doesn't or we don't know whether she knows or not) (but he was not alone)	(вираз сумніву, малоїмовірність або нереальності)	Будь я (якби я був) на вашому місці, я був би обережнішим. Вона говорить так, як ніби вона все знає. Він поводився так, як ніби він був там зовсім один.
I wish They wished If only	I were young now. they had had money at the time. you didn't smoke so much.	(It's a pity I am not young now.) (They were sorry they didn't have money at the time.) (I wish you didn't smoke so much.)	(вираз жалю чи нездійснення бажання)	Як би мені хотілося бути зараз молодим. (Як шкода, що я вже не молодий,.) Вони жалкували, що у них в той час не було грошей. (Як їм хотілось, щоб у них були гроші в той час.) Якби ви тільки не палили

**Compare:**

<i>Formal style</i>	<i>Less formal style</i>
If I were you... He speaks' English as if he were an Englishman. I wish I were at home now.	If I was you... He speaks English as if he was an Englishman. I wish I was at home now.

**Compare:**

He looks (looked) as if (as though) he were ill. Він виглядає (виглядав) так, як ніби він хворий. I wish I knew about it. Як шкода, що я не знаю про це. If only I had her address. Як шкода, що у мене немає її адреси. (одночасність дії)	He looks (looked) as if (as though) he had been ill. Він виглядає (виглядав) так, як ніби він хворів (був хворий). I wish I had known about it earlier. Як шкода, що я не знав про це раніше. If only I had had her address then. Як шкода, що у мене не було тоді її адреси. (передування дії)
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**Note 1.** У сучасній розмовній мові є тенденція вживати Past Indefinite від дієслова to be was для 1 і 3 особи однини замість форми Subjunctive were.

**Note 2.** Для вираження передування дії в додаткових реченнях після дієслова wish, сполучника as if (as though), а також в окличних реченнях, що починаються зі слів if only, вживається Past Perfect у значенні умовного способу.

**Note 3.** Для вираження бажання чи жалю, що відносяться до теперішнього або майбутнього часу, після дієслова wish і слів if only вживаються модальні дієслова could або would.

If only you could help me! Якби тільки ви могли мені допомогти! (Як шкода, що ви не можете мені допомогти.)

I wish the rain would stop. Швидше би дощ перестав. (Як мені хочеться, щоб дощ перестав.)

Let us touch upon the question of the relation to the tenses. It seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less universally acceptable conclusion because of the scarcity of forms and inflexions. On the face of it is the question of neutralization of formal contrasts semantic and functional. One of the points of view is that Preterit and Perfect are homonymous forms and should/would; may/might+ inf. - analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood. But they still do not form a regular paradigm: One and the same forms render different meanings; and one and the same meaning can makes them either real or unreal . The most common classification of the forms of mood is according to A. Smirtitsky: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive I (If he be...; I suggest that he go...), Subjunctive II (If it were...; If he had known,...), Suppositional (. . .you should meet him), Conditional (If I saw Helen tomorrow I should speak to her. If I had seen Hellen I should have spoken to her).

E.Gordon and L.Krylova divide all the forms expressing unreality into:

1. Structurally dependent use of forms expressing unreality;
2. Free use of forms expressing unreality;
3. Traditional use of forms expressing unreality.

## **Лекція 12. Non-finite verbs. The ing-form problem.**

The verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle) make up a part of the English verb system. They have some features in common with the finite

forms & some peculiarities of their own due to their origin (noun, verbal noun, adjective). All of them have the category of correlation & voice; the infinitive in addition has the category of aspect. None of the verbals has the category of tense, mood, person & number. But they have oppositions through aspect, voice, and time-correlation.

The infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of a process.

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb, which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of a process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive. The origin of the gerund roots in: Verbal noun – **ung** > **-ing**, Participle I – **ende** > **-inde** > **ing**

It came into being in the XV<sup>th</sup> century. The general combinability of the gerund, like that of the infinitive, is dual, sharing some features with the verb, & some features with the noun.

The verb-type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining with:

- nouns, expressing the object of the action;
- modifying adverbs;
- certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal.

The noun-type combinability is displayed in its combining: with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; with finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various functions.

The present participle is the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective & adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name.

The forms of the present participle are wholly homonymous with the gerund, ending in the suffix **-ing** & distinguishing the same grammatical categories of retrospective time-coordination & voice.

The present participle, similar to the infinitive, can build up semi-predicative complexes of objective & subjective types. The two groups of complexes with the infinitive & participle I, may exist in parallel, when used with some verbs of physical perception.

The rules of lexical combinability should be observed when used with other verb, as some of them prefer to be used with the infinitive, the other with the participle.

A peculiar use of present participle is seen an absolute participial constructions of various types, forming complexes of detached semi-predication.

Suddenly a telephone was heard to buzz;

The telephone was heard buzzing;

The messenger waiting in the hall, we had only a couple of minutes to make a decision.

### Compare:

Infinitive	Gerund
I propose to start tomorrow.	I propose starting tomorrow.
Я припускаю відправитися завтра.	Я пропоную відправитися завтра.
He stopped to smoke. Він зупинився покурити.	He stopped smoking. Він перестав курити.
It's time you stopped to think about it. Пора вам задуматися над цим.	It's time you stopped thinking about it. Пора вже перестати думати про це.

Після дієслів, що вимагають непрямого доповнення, наприклад, to invite, to compel (змушувати), to allow, to permit, to instruct, to warn, to encourage, to forbid, to remind і деяких інших. I warn you not to take any rash steps.

Дієслова to tell, to ask, to teach, to instruct, to show, to know, to explain і деякі інші вживаються з інфінітивом, якому можуть передувати слова how, what, who, whom, which, where, when, whether.

Show me how to operate this recorder, please.

Tell me whether to turn right or left.

I never know where to put my umbrella.

Після поєднань to be delighted, happy, sorry, astonished, relieved, etc., it is lovely (dreadful, awful, etc.), а також find (think) it hard (easy, difficult, interesting,



amusing, etc.) і деяких інших. I am delighted to have seen you. It is lovely to walk in Central Park early in the morning. He thought it amusing to hear her talk like that.

Після прикметників або прислівників too або enough.

It's (yet) too soon (for us) to draw a conclusion. He speaks too naturally to be taken for a foreigner. You are old enough to know better.

Після виразів It is (was, will be) nice (kind, good (un)wise, honest, characteristic, typical, selfish, silly, careless, clever, etc.) of smb. It will be very good of her to help you. It was clever of Mr Brown to make this proposition.

**Note 2.** Інфінітив у функції визначення слід після обумовленого іменника або слів the first, the second, the last, the only.

He will be the man to talk to. Це той самий чоловік, з яким потрібно поговорити.

Here are the books (for you) to read. Ось книги, які ви повинні (можете) прочитати.

It is the best play to be staged this season. Це найкраща п'єса для постановки в цьому сезоні. She is always the last to come. Вона завжди приходиться останньою.

**Note 3.** Після безособових зворотів типу It is (was, will be) important, necessary, natural, better, advisable, essential, obligatory та ін вживається інфінітивний зворот з прийменником for (for-phrase).

It is essential for him to get a scholarship this year. Для нього важливо отримати цього року стипендію.

**Note 4.** Інфінітив дієслів to learn, to find, to see, to hear, to be told та деяких інших у певному контексті може виступати у функції супутньої обставини чи слідства, причому якщо інфінітиву дієслова передуює прислівник only, то він набуває негативний відтінок (висловлює розчарування).

**Note 5.** Після виразів would rather (sooner), had better, rather (sooner) ... than, а також в деяких питаннях з why (навіщо) вживається інфінітив без to. You'd (had) better send the letter by air mail. Вам краще надіслати цього листа авіапоштою.

I'd (would) rather (sooner) go by train. Я б вважав за краще їхати поїздом.

Rather (sooner) than go by car, I'd take a walk. Чим їхати на машині, я краще піду пішки.

Why worry? Навіщо турбуватися?

### Compare:

He came to his hometown to see his relatives. Він приїхав в рідне місто побачитися зі своїми родичами. (мета)	He came to this hometown to see all his relatives gone. Він приїхав в рідне місто і виявив, що всі його родичі поїхали. He hurried to the house only to find it was empty. Він поспішив до будинку, але знайшов його порожнім, (супутній елемент чи наслідок)
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### GERUND

No parking.	Стоянка заборонена.
Seeing is believing. ( <i>prov.</i> )	Поки не побачу - не повірю.
Her acting was wonderful.	Її гра була чудовою.
Miss Thomas enjoys Tom's singing.	Міс Томас подобається спів Тома.
He gave up smoking.	Він кинув курити.
Thank you for coming.	Спасибі за те, що ви прийшли.
Before leaving turn off the light. It's worth going there.	Йдучи, гасить світло. Варто туди піти.

**Note 1.** Герундій не має артикля і форми множини.

**Note 2.** У сучасній розмовній англійській мові герундій вживається:

a) після дієслів finish, stop, go, go on, enjoy, like, hate, excuse, keep, give up, need (потребувати), want (потребувати), remember, suggest, demand, propose, mind та ін

Наприклад:

This car needs repairing (fixing). Ця машина потребує лагодження.

I'm sorry I kept you waiting. Вибачте, я змусив вас чекати.

### Compare:

Do you mind my opening the window? (Do you mind if I open the window?) Ви не заперечуєте, якщо я відкрию вікно? (вічливе питання)	Would you mind opening the window? Відкрийте вікно, будь ласка. (ввічливе прохання)
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Після дієслів і деяких висловів із прийменниками: thank for, think of, prevent from, succeed in, rely on, agree to, be fond of, be sure of, be pleased at (with), be surprised at, be interested in, look forward to (чекати чого-л. із задоволенням, з нетерпінням), be used to, be accustomed to та ін

Наприклад:

I am fond of skating. Я люблю кататися на ковзанах.

I look forward to meeting him. Я з нетерпінням чекаю зустрічі з ним.

Після виразів: can't help, it's no good, it's (there's) no use, It's worth, do you mind та ін., наприклад :

She can't help loving him. Вона не може не любити його.

It's no good denying it. Марно заперечувати це.

Після прийменників: after, before, on, by, without, instead of, in spite of та ін.

Наприклад:

Learn to swim by swimming. Вчіться плавати, плаваючи.

Think twice before speaking. Подумайте двічі, перш ніж говорити.

Після іменників із прийменниками of, for і деякими іншими. наприклад:

I don't like his way of speaking. Мені не подобається його манера говорити.

John has a great talent for drawing. У Джона великі здібності до малювання.

## PARTICIPLE I (PRESENT PARTICIPLE)

	The man	standing there (стоїть, стояв)	is (was) our manager.	
Looking up (Подивившись наверх).	he		saw a wooden box.	<i>(formal or written style)</i>
	He		came in	smiling. (улыба ясь)
Not knowing him well (Не знаючи)	I		didn't nod.	<i>(formal or written style )</i>

**Note.** Present Participle виражає одночасність з дією дієслова-присудка і перекладається на українську мову дієприкметником дійсного способу теперішнього або минулого часу або дієсловом.

### Compare:

Gerund	Present Participle
Paul left without closing the door. Павло пішов, не закривши двері, (супутня обставина)	Not having her address I couldn't find her. <i>(formal or written style)</i> Не маючи її адреси, я не зміг

## PARTICIPLE II (PAST PARTICIPLE)

The letters	received (одержувані)by the Peace Committee	come from different organizations and individuals. <i>(formal or written style)</i>
The letters	received (отримані)today	must be answered immediately. <i>(formal or written style)</i>

**Note!** Past Participle перекладається на українську мову дієприкметником пасивного стану теперішнього або минулого часу.

**Note 2.** Past Participle утворює особливий оборот з дієсловами have і get, який вживається для вираження дії, що здійснюється не підметом речення, а якоюсь-небудь іншою особою для нього.

**Compare:**

I had (got) my watch fixed. Мені полагодили годинник, (хтось інший)	I fixed my watch. Я полагодив годинник. (я сам)
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**The past participle** is the non-finite form, which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. The past participle is the single form, having no paradigm of its own. By way of the paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly to the categorial meaning of the perfect & the passive.

Within the gerund-participle correlation the question arises, whether they constitute two different verbids or present one & the same form with a somewhat broader range of functions than either of the two taken separately.

The ground for raising this problem is quite substantial since their forms are identical.

The school of Descriptive Linguistics & the American linguistic tradition consider the two forms as one integral, (v-ing) which in different contexts acquires different shades of meaning & performs different syntactical functions.

- Do you mind my smoking? (gerund)
- Do you mind me smoking? (participle)

## Inversion and Emphasis

emphasis	<p>However hard I try (tried),          Whatever faults he may have (have had),          No matter (It does not matter) how hard he works (worked),          Even if he did say so,          Should you change your plans,          Had I only known about all this,</p> <p>1. However hard I try (tried),          5. Talented as he is,</p>	<p>I cannot (could not) find the answer.          greediness is (was) not one of them.          he will never make it.          I am not sure he was telling the truth.          we cannot help noticing his weak points.</p>	<p>Скільки я не намагаюся (намагався), я не можу (не міг) знайти відповіді.          Які б недоліки у нього не були, жадібність не входить до їх числа.          Скільки б він не працював, йому ніколи не вдасться (не вдалось б) домогтися свого.          Навіть якщо він і сказав це, я не впевнений, що він говорив правду.          Як би він не був талановитий, ми не можемо не помічати його слабких сторін.</p>	<p>Clauses of concession          (Допустові підрядні речення)</p>
inversion	<p>Should you change your plans,          Had I only known about all this,</p>	<p>let us know, please.          I would not have gone there.</p>	<p>Якщо ваші плани зміняться, повідомте нам, будь ласка.          Якби я тільки знав все це, я б туди не поїхав (пішов).</p>	<p>Clauses of condition          (Умовні підрядні речення          безсполучникові)</p>

## Compare:

Inversion	Emphasis		Regular word order
Miserable as he is, he never shows it. Незважаючи на те, що він так нещасливий, він ніколи цього не показує. <i>(very formal or written)</i>	However miserable he may be, he doesn't show it. Як би він не був нещасливий, він ніколи цього не показує. <i>(formal or written)</i>	No matter how miserable he is, he never shows it. Як би він не був нещасливий, він ніколи цього не показує. <i>(less formal)</i>	Though he is miserable, he never shows it. Хоча він нещасливий, він ніколи цього не показує. (informal)

**Note 1.** Інверсія (зворотний порядок слів) вживається в реченнях, що починаються з прислівників *hardly, scarcely, no sooner*, а також зі слів *never, ever, nowhere, nothing, little, (not) only, in no circumstances, on no account, so* (так, також), *neither, nor* та деяких інших.

У цих реченнях перед підметом стоїть допоміжне дієслово, що входить до складу присудка, або дієслово-присудок; при цьому всі речення підкреслюють емоційний характер вираженої в ньому думки.

*Never in my life have I seen such a beauty.*

*Only by doing it this way can you expect to have good results.*

*On no account must the electric switch be left on.*

*So deeply does he sleep that even a cannon wouldn't wake him.*

*know you worked hard but so did the others.*

*"I like this dish very much." "So do I."*

*"I don't like this dish very much." "Nor (neither) do I."*

**Note 2.** Інверсія вживається також в реченнях, що починаються з *here, there* (ось), а також з емоційно виділеного прийменника або якого-небудь другорядного члена речення, якщо підмет виражено іменником.

*Here comes the bus.*

*In went the sun and down came the rain,*

*There, at the summit» stood the castle in its medieval splendour.*

**Note 3.** Засобом емоційного виділення члена речення або цілого підрядного запропоновано також оборот з вступним *it*.

It was in September (that) I first noticed it. Саме (якраз) у вересні я вперше це помітив.

It must have been his brother that you met. Повинно бути, той, кого ви зустріли, і був його брат.

It is because he is not well (that) we decided to return. Тільки тому, що він хворий, ми вирішили повернутися. Was it for this that we suffered? І заради цього ми страждали?

Who was it-that interviewed you? Хто це був, хто брав у вас інтерв'ю?

It was he who was the first to help me. Не хто інший, як він, першим прийшов мені на допомогу.

**Note 4.** У стверджувальних реченнях, в яких присудок виражено дієсловом у Present Indefinite або Past Indefinite, засобом його емоційного виділення може служити вживання допоміжного дієслова do (did).

You do look nice. Ви дійсно добре виглядаєте. (Як ви добре виглядаєте!)

I know that you didn't expect me to go there, but I did go. Я знаю, що ви не очікували, що я піду туди, але я все ж пішов.

### Compare:

Inverted word order	Non-inverted word order
There is the entrance.	There it is.
Out rushed the man.	Out he rushed.
Terribly cold was the morning when we started off.	Terribly cold it was when we started off. (присудок слід за підметом, вираженим

### Compare:

It is ten years since I saw him last. Ось уже минуло десять років відтоді, як я його бачив востаннє. It was not (un) til (l) late at night that he came home. Тільки пізно вночі він прийшов додому.	I have not seen him for ten years. Я його не бачив десять років, Чи he did not come home till late at night. Він прийшов додому тільки пізно вночі.
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V.Ilyish states that the difference between the gerund & the participle is basically this: the gerund, along with its verbal qualities, has substantival qualities as well; the participle, along with its verbal qualities, has objective qualities, also. This brings about



the corresponding difference in their syntactical functions: the gerund may be the subject or an object in a sentence, & only rarely an attribute, whereas the participle is an attribute first & foremost.

We may say, in terms, of modern linguistics, that the opposition between them is neutralized & we may speak in general way of nominal qualities of both.

### **Лекция 13. Word-order. Actual division of the sentence.**

The words in an English sentence are arranged in a certain order, which is fixed for every type of the sentence, and is therefore meaningful. We find several principles determining word-order in a sentence. Word-order fulfils several functions – grammatical, emphatic or communicative, and linking. These functions are manifested in different arrangements of the parts of the sentence.

**The grammatical function of word-order.** The main function of word-order is to express grammatical relations and determine the grammatical status of a word by fixing its position in the sentence. There exist two ways of arranging words - direct word order and inverted word-order.

**Direct word order** .The most common pattern for the arrangement of the main parts in a declarative sentence is S - P - O; which is called direct word order. Direct word-order is also employed in pronominal question to the subject or to its attribute.

There are only few variations in the fixed pattern:

S - P- Indirect Obj.+Direct Obj. ;      *The boy gave me no answer.*

S - P- Direct Obj.+Preposit.Obj.;      *The boy gave no answer to me.*

B.Ilysh: It is well known that the usual place of the object is after the predicate, and if there are two objects in a sentence, their order is fixed: if they are both non-prepositional, the indirect object comes first and the direct object next; if one of the object is prepositional, it comes after the non-prepositional. The tendency to place the object immediately after the predicate verb should not however be taken as an absolute law. Some other part of the sentence often does come in between the predicate verb and its object.

As to the secondary parts of the sentence, their position is less fixed. Their mobility is accounted to their varied reference to different parts of the sentence. The

position of **adverbial modifier** is comparatively more free than that of other secondary parts. When referring to a verb adverbials may be placed

in front position: *Again he was late*

contact position: *He occasionally sees them. They are never in time*

interposition: *He was never seen her*

end position: *Are you married yet?*

The more usual position is outside the group "S - P - O" but it may come or within the predicate.

The usual place of **a preposition** is between the words the relation of which it denotes. However in some cases it may be placed at the end of the sentence.

1) When the prepositional object /a word or clause/ is in front position:

*This I can dispense with. What he says you can rely on.*

2. When the prepos. object is made the subject of a passive construction:

*He was much laughed at. The bed has not been slept in.*

3. In questions and exclamations: *Who are you speaking to? What a nice girl she has grown into?*

4. In contact attributive clauses in which the object to the predicate belongs to the main clause. *It is the very thing I've always dreamed of.*

**Attributes** either premodify or post modify their headwords: *the happiest man alive, the same familiar to us.*

The position of an attribute before or after its headword largely depends on its morphological type. An attribute consisting of a prepositional phrase can only come after its headword. *Darkness impenetrable and immovable filled the room.*

The position of **direct address** and **parentheses** is more free than that of all other parts. Thus a direct address can come in almost anywhere in a sentence. Much the same can be said about the parentheses.

**Inverted word-order.** Another pattern of word-order is the inverted one. We distinguish

1) full inversion: *Here comes the lady* ( Where the predicate precedes the subject);

2) partial inversion: *Happy may you be*

( Where only part of the predicate precedes the subject);

3) double inversion: *Hanging on the wall was a picture.* (Where parts of the predicate are placed separately before the subject);

In some cases inversion may be taken as a normal order of words in constructions with special communicative value.

I. Inversion is used to distinguish between the communicative types of sentences.

With this function it is employed in:

1) general questions: *Is it really true?*

polite requests : *Won 't you have a cup of tea?*

tag questions: *You are glad to see me, aren't you?*

2) pronominal questions, except questions to the subject and its attribute, where direct word-order is used. *What are the police after?*

3) The sentences with the introductory 'there' followed by one of the verbs denoting existence and others: *There has been an accident. There occurred a sudden revolution in public taste.*

4) Exclamatory sentences expressing a wish, despair, indignation or other strong emotions: *Come what may!*

5) Exclamatory sentences which are negative in form but positive in meaning: *Have I not watched them? = / have watched them.*

6) Negative Imperative sentences: *Don't you do it.*

Inverted word order manifests itself among other things in the fact that grammatical order may limit the possibilities of functional sentence perspective which divides the sentence into two sections:

1) one of them containing that which is the starting point of the statement and the

2) other - the new information for whose sake the sentence has been uttered or written. The actual division of the sentence in fact exposes its informative perspective. The main component of the actual division of the sentence are the theme and the rheme.

*The term "theme " and "rheme " are both derived from Greek root "the"= to set, to establish, and means "that which is set or established. The term "rheme" is derived*

*from the root "rhe"= to say, to tell and means "that which is said or told/about that which was set or established beforehand/.*

In Modern grammar **the theme** express the starting point of communication, it denotes the object about which something is reported.

**The rheme** expresses the basis informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre.

**Blokh:** 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".

Historically the theory of actual division of the sentence is connected with the logical analysis of the proposition. The principal parts of the proposition are the logical subject and logical predicate. These logical categories are prototypes of the linguistic categories of theme and rheme. But while the logic analyses deals with forms of thinking, linguistics analyses deals with rendering the informative content of communication.

The term "theme" and "rheme" came into use easily, particularly in the works of several linguists who have specially studied the problem with reference to the English language, both from the modern and from the historical point of view /J.Mathesius J.Pirbas/

Thus in a language with a widely developed morphological system and free word order word-order can be extensively used to show the difference between theme and rheme. It is impossible in Middle English.

Among the formal means of expressing the distinction between the theme and rheme investigators name such structural elements of language as: word order patterns, intonation contours / in oral speech only/; constructions there is '... it is'; 'not for...' 'but/than' syntactic patterns of contrastive complexes; constructions with articles and other determiners -the,this,that; constructions with intensifying particles -even,only. They are the mechanism of actual division in English.

## Лекция 14. Transition from the simple sentence to the composite one.

In the sphere of syntax some types of the sentences have the peculiarities which make them transitional between the simple and the composite sentences: 1) sentences with homogeneous parts; 2) sentences with a dependent appendix; 3) sentences with secondary predication.

By homogeneous parts of a sentence we mean parts of the same category (subjects, predicates, objects) standing in the same relation to other parts of sentence. According to the older terminology, such sentences used to be termed “contracted sentences”, as if they had been “contracted” out of two simple sentences: *I met my relatives and friends. I only came to thank you and return the coat you lent me.*

Another type of transition from simple to complex sentence constitute the sentences with secondary predication. In Modern English there are several ways of expressing secondary predication by the use of so-called complex parts of a sentence: complex object, complex subject, etc. They are syntactical units intermediate between a phrase and a clause: *He saw many objects.* (a phrasal object). *He saw many people dancing in the hall.* (a complex object)

From the one hand, a predicative complex differs from a phrase in that it contains two words which are in predicate relation to each other. From the other hand, a predicative complex differs from a clause in that the predicate relations within it are not grammatically explicit. The first part – nominal – of the predicative complex may be either a noun or a noun-pronoun. The second part – predicate – may be an infinitive, a participle, a gerund, an adjective, a stative, an adverb or a noun. The sentences with predicative complex can be easily transformed into complex sentence with a clause: *I heard him cry.* – *I heard that he cried.* *I think him clever.* – *I think that he is clever.*

Predicative complexes that function as objects only are objective constructions. Nominal part is expressed by a noun in Common case or a pronoun in Objective case and verbal part, expressed by an Infinitive, a Participle I, II, an adjective, a noun. *I saw him walk up to the door. I never called her clever.* Predicative complexes that function as adverbials only are absolute constructions. Nominative part is expressed by a noun or pronoun function as a part of the sentence only with the second predicate component of

the construction. Verbal parts and its verbal by an infinitive verbials a Participle, a Gerund, an adjective, an adverb, a stative, a pronoun. *I walked up the street, the dog running behind. It being late, he went home. He marched out of the room, his head high up. Dinner over, everybody rose.*

There are non-prepositional absolute constructions, which are also called the absolute nominative constructions. *It being cold, he bolted the window.*

Prepositional absolute constructions are those which are used with preposition: *She hurriedly left the room, with her eyes red. He turned back, with his hands still up.*

Both of them express accompanying circumstances, something that happens alongside of the main action. The secondary action may be the cause of the main action, or its condition, etc., but these relations are not indicated by any grammatical means.

The stylistic colouring of the predicative constructions differs also. Objective predicative constructions may occur in any sort of style. The absolute constructions are basically a feature of literary style and infinitival constructions are also typical for colloquial speech. This syntactical phenomena occupies a place somewhere between the simple and the composite sentence.

These are two different causes of the existence of the semi-composite sentences in language: the first cause is the tendency of speech to be economical, the second cause is that, apart from being economical, the semicomposite sentences fulfill their own function, different from the function of the composite sentence proper.

## Reported speech and sequence of tenses

### I. Statements

Direct Speech				Reported Speech			
He said,	“I go	there	every year.”	He said  (that)	he went	there	every year.
	“I am going	there	next week.”		he was going	there	the following week.
	“They have gone	there.”			they had gone	there.	
	“I went	there	last year.”		he had gone	there	the previous year.
He said to us,	“We were	there	when you met	He told us (that)	they had been	there	when we met
	going		us.”		going		them.
	“I’ll go	there	if the day is		he’d (would)	there	if the day w <sup>r</sup> as
	“I’ll be going	there	fine.”		go		fine.
	“I may go	there	in some days.”		he’d be going	there	some days
	“I can go	there	this summer.”		he might go	there	later.
	“I have to go	there	tomorrow.”		he could go	there	that summer.
	“I must go		today.”		he had to go	there	the next day.
			now.”		he must go		that day.
							then.
<b>Compare:</b>							
1. He said (that) he lived in New York.				Він сказав, що він живе в Нью-Йорку.			
2. Peter told me he wasn’t feeling well.				Петро сказав мені, що він відчуває себе погано.			

При міні прямої мови в непряму зазвичай має місце наступна заміна прислівників і займенників, якщо дієслово головного речення стоїть в одному з минулих часів.

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
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this	that
these	those
now	then
here	there
today	that day
tomorrow	the next day, the following day
yesterday	the day before, the previous day
next week	the following week
last week	the previous week
ago	before

**Note.** Заміни прислівників і займенників, а також форми дієслова не відбувається, якщо час і місце дії прямої і непрямой мови збігаються.

### Compare:

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Hetty said, "It's cold today."	Betty said (that) it was cold that day. ( <i>час не співпадає</i> ) Betty said (that) it's cold today. ( <i>час збігається</i> )

При зверненні прямої мови в непряму дієслово в підрядних додаткових реченнях не змінюється: якщо дієслово в прямій мові стоїть в одному зі теперішніх або майбутніх часів, а також в Past Perfect Past Perfect Continuous або є одним з модальних дієслів: must, could, might, should, would, та якщо в прямій мові вказується точний час вчинення дії або загальновідомий факт.

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
"They will come to Moscow soon."	We have learned (that) they will come to Moscow soon.
"We had finished our work by six o'clock."	They informed their chief (that) they had finished their work by six o'clock.

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
"I was in England in 1982." The sun rises in the East.	He said he was in England in 1982.' The teacher explained to the children (that) the sun rises in the East.



## 2. Special Questions

Зверніть увагу на те, що:

а) при перекладі з прямої мови в непряму спеціальних питань до підмета або групи підмета порядок слів не змінюється.

б) при перекладі з прямої мови в непряму спеціальних питань до інших членів речення порядок слів змінюється: після питального слова ставиться підмет, потім - присудок у відповідному часі за узгодженням часів і інші члени речення, тобто за схемою порядку слів розповідного речення.

Direct Speech	She said, She said to them,	“Who “Which of you “What “How many people	is has seen was on will come	the first to speak?” this film?” at the Covent Garden yesterday?” to the party?”
Reported Speech.	She asked She asked them She wondered She inquired (formal)	who which of them what how many people	was had seen had been or would come	the first to speak, that film. at the Covent Garden the day before, to the party.

Direct Speech	Tom said, Doris:	“Why “Where “Who(m) “Which cinema	are do have shall	you you you we	usually have lunch?” been talking to, go to,	late?” Peter?” Jane?”
Reported Speech	Tom asked Tom wondered Doris wanted to know Doris asked Jane	why where who(m) which cinema		he he Peter they	was usually had lunch, had been talking to. would go to.	late.

### 3. General Questions

Direct Speech	Mr Black said,  Mr Black:	“Are “Do “Have “Did “Will “Can “May	you you you he you your wife I	leaving know ever stayed enjoy go out drive, park	next week?” Mr Frost?” at the Embassy Hotel, George?” the party yesterday?” if it rains?” George?” my car here, officer?”
Reported Speech	Mr Black asked Mr Black asked Mr Black wondered  Mr Black asked George Mr Black inquired the of- ficer	whether  if	we I George he  he his wife  he	were leaving knew had ever stayed had enjoyed  would go out could drive.  might park	the next- week. Mr Frost. at the Embassy Hotel. the party the day before.  if it rained.   his car there.

### 4. Short Answers

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Mm "Do you like this picture?" Ami "Yes, I do." <b>Nick I don't.</b>	John asked Ann and Nick whether they liked that picture. Ann said (that) she did, but Nick said he didn't. (Ann answered in the affirmative, but Nick answered in the negative.)

**Note.** Залежно від змісту короткі відповіді в непрямій мові можуть замінюватися також словами: agree, accept (smth), refuse, deny (smth) та ін

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Peter: "Will you come with us?" Mary: 1. "Yes." 2. "No."	Peter asked Mary whether she would go with them. 1. Mary agreed. 2. Mary refused.

## 5. Commands and Requests

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Mr Brown said to the man: "Come in, please." "Will (would) you come in, please."	Mr Brown asked the man to come in.
Mrs Brown said to her son: "Don't go out now."	Mrs Brown told her son not to go out then.

**Note.** Залежно від змісту прохання в непрямій мові може також передаватися за допомогою дієслів *beg, request* (офіційна прохання), наказ - за допомогою дієслів *order, command*.

## Complex Sentence

### I. Relative Clauses

#### Restrictive relative clauses

1.	The people who sent me the invitation are my old friends.
2.	All who/that heard him were delighted with his speech.
3.	The committee who are (which is) responsible for the resolution met last week.
4.	The picture which/that you admire is a Turner.
5.	This is the baby which/that needs urgent treatment.
6.	Is that the ship which is bound for London tomorrow?
7.	The lecturer whom/who/that you praised was professor Blake.
8.	The man from whom I got this information (who I got this information from) refused to give me any further details.
9.	This is the time at which he normally arrives (which he normally arrives at).
10.	The woman whose daughter you met at the reception is Mrs Brown.
11.	The house whose roof was damaged has now been repaired.

**Note 1.** Обмежувальне визначальне речення тісно пов'язано з тим членом речення, до якого воно відноситься, і не може бути опущено без порушення сенсу головного речення. Обмежувальне визначальне речення не відділяється комою від головного речення.

**Note 2.** У сучасній розмовній англійській мові відносні займенники *who* і *which* можуть замінюватися займенником *that*. Відносний займенник *whose* може вживатися після неживого іменника замість *of which*.

### Compare:

There are only two words in this paragraph the spelling of which may cause trouble. There are only two words in this paragraph of which the spelling may cause trouble, (written documentary style) ( <i>formal</i> )	There are only two words in' this paragraph whose spelling may cause trouble. ( <i>less formal</i> )
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**Note 3.** Якщо підрядне речення визначає підмет головного, виражене особовим займенником чи словами *people*, *those*, *anyone*, то відносний займенник *who* зазвичай не замінюється *that*.

It is you who are to blame.

People who live in glass houses should not throw stones, (*prov.*)

Will those who are in favour raise their hands, please?

Anyone who wants to leave early may do so.

**Note 4.** Обмежувальне визначальне речення, визначальне місце, час або причина, може вводитися також відносними прислівниками *where*, *when* і *why*.

I wanted to visit the place where I was born.

He remembered the time when he lived there with his family.

That is the reason why she spoke point-blank.

**Note 5.** Обмежувальні означальні речення можуть приєднуватися до головного без союзу в тих випадках, коли той член речення, до якого відноситься визначальне речення, висловлює об'єкт дії дієслова-присудка додаткового речення. Прийменник в такому випадку зазвичай ставиться після дієслова або наприкінці визначального речення.

### Compare:

<i>Formal</i>	<i>Less formal</i>	<i>Informal</i>
This is the man whom I met yesterday. Here is the book about which I was telling you. The place at which he works is quite near.	This is the man that I met yesterday. Here is the book which/that I was telling you about. The place which he works at is quite near.	This is the man I met yesterday. Here's the book I was telling you about. The place where he works is quite near.  or: The place he works at is quite near.

1. Yesterday he met John, who invited him to a party.
2. Mr Green, who(m) I mentioned to you the other day, is my colleague.
3. The man, with whom I just spoke, is my neighbour.
4. Henri Rousseau, whose paintings are world-famous, was a Customs officer by profession.
5. "Richard III", which you are going to see tomorrow, was written by W. Shakespeare.
6. The dictionary, for which I paid \$ 30 (which I paid \$ 30 for), proved to be very useful.
7. The encyclopaedia, of which the second volume (the second volume of which) is missing, is there on the upper shelf.

### Non-restrictive relative clauses

**Note 1.** Описове визначальне речення зазвичай відділяється від головного комою і без шкоди для змісту головного речення може бути опущено.

**Note 2.** У описових означальних реченнях займенник *that* не вживається, і відносні займенники не можуть бути опущені.

**Note 3.** Описові означальні речення можуть ставитися не до одного члену речення, а до всього головного речення; в цьому випадку вони вводяться

відносним займенником *which* що і обов'язково відокремлюються від головного комою.

The floods destroyed several bridges, which made it impossible to reach the town by road. Повінь зруйнувала кілька мостів, що унеможливило наземне сполучення з містом.

**Note 4.** У сучасній розмовній англійській мові описові означальні речення зазвичай замінюються самостійними або складносурядними реченнями, а також обставинними підрядними реченнями.

### Compare:

<i>Formal (written)</i>	<i>Informal (spoken)</i>
Here is Bob Miller, who(m) I mentioned to you the other day.	Here's Bob; Miller, I mentioned him to you the other day.
She met her friend, who invited her to the theatre.	She met her friend and he invited her to the theatre.
The document, of which two paragraphs we have not discussed yet is with Mr Brown now.	The document is with Mr Brown now but we haven't yet discussed two paragraphs of it.
He admires modern art, which surprises me.	He admires modern art and this surprises me.
He got lost on the road, which was enveloped in fog.	He got lost on the road when it was enveloped in fog.

## II. Clauses of Purpose and Result

She takes (will take, took) Peter	to the Tate Gallery	so that (in order that)	be	can (could) may (might) will (would) be able to shall (should)	see the best collection of Turner.	(purpose )	вона веде (поведе, повела) Петра	в галерею Тейт,	щоб він подивився (міг подивитися) кращу колекцію картин Тернера.
He pulled	his hat down	so that (in order that)	he	could not might not would not should not	be recognised	(purpose )	він насунув	капелюх на обличчя,	щоб його не дізналися (не могли дізнатися).
She never lets (let)	her child go to the river alone	in case (lest) in case	he	should	fall into the water. fell into the water.	(purpose , preventi on)	Вона ніколи не дозволяє (не дозволяла)	своїй дитині ходити на річку одній.	боячись, що він впаде у воду.
We planted	many rose bushes in our garden	so (that)	it		soon looked very beautiful.	(result)	ми посадили	багато трояндих кущів в нашому саду,	тому (так що) він скоро став виглядати дуже красивим.

**Note 1.** У обставинних реченнях мети, що вводяться союзами *in case, lest* щоб не, негативна форма дієслова не вживається.

**Compare:**

<p>I put down your address so that I shouldn't (wouldn't, might not) forget it.</p>	<p>I put down your address in case/lest I should forget it.  or: I put down your address in case I forgot it.</p>
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**Compare:**

<p>He didn't give me the keys to the car so that I couldn't drive it. (clause of purpose) Він не дав мені ключі від машини, щоб я не зміг на ній їхати.</p>	<p>He didn't give me the keys to the car so I couldn't drive it. (clause of result) Він не дав мені ключі від машини, тому (так що) я не зміг на ній їхати.</p>
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**Note 2.** У сучасній англійській розмовній мові в обставинних підрядних реченнях мети, вводяться союзом *so that*, перевага віддається дієсловам *can / could i will / would*. They wrote notices in several languages so that tourists could (would be able to) understand them.

**Note 3.** У обставинних підрядних реченнях наслідку, що містять дієслово *can / could*, союз *so that* не вживається, а вживається тільки його скорочена форма *so*.



## Complex object

1.

1. He wants 1.	you	to invite	Prof. Blake	to the con- ference.	Він хоче, щоб ви запросили професора Блейка на конференцію.
2. He wants	Prof. Blake	to be invited		to the con- ference.	Він хоче, щоб професор Блейк був запрошений на конференцію.
3. We wish	him	to be happy.			
4. I should (would) like	them	not to be late		for dinner.	Ми бажаємо йому щастя (щоб він був щасливий).
5. The guests would like	her	to sing	for them.		Я б хотів, щоб вони не спізнувалися до обіду.
6. The manager expects	us	to do	this work	properly.	Гості хотіли б, щоб вона їм заспівала.
7. The manager expected	this work	to be done		properly.	Керуючий очікує (сподівається), що ми зробимо цю роботу добре.
8. We are waiting for	the guests	to arrive.			Керуючий очікував (сподівався), що ця робота буде зроблена добре. Ми чекаємо прибуття гостей (коли прибудуть гості).

2.

1. He saw	a man	run	across the street.	Він побачив, що (як) людина перебігла вулицю.
2. I have heard	them	talk	about it.	Я чув, як вони говорили про це.
3. The nurse felt	him	tremble	with cold.	Медсестра відчула, як він тремтить від холоду. Вони помітили, як вона виходила з дому.
4. They noticed	her	leave	the house.	Ми стежили за тим, як корабель підходив до берега.
5. We were watching	the boat	come up	to the shore.	Вони змусили мене зробити це.
6. They made	me	do	it.	Ми не можемо дозволити вам піти так рано.
7. We can't let	you	go	so early.	

**Note.** Після дієслів hear, see, feel, watch, notice може вживатися також Complex Object з дієприкметником і замість інфінітива дієслова без частки to.

### Compare:

I saw the man cross the road. Я бачив, що людина перейшла вулицю. (констатація факту)	I saw the man crossing the road. Я бачив, як людина переходила вулицю. (підкреслюється тривалість дії)
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Після дієслів hear у значенні «впізнати», see у значенні «розуміти» і feel в значенні «рахувати» Complex Object не вживається, а вживається підрядне додаткове речення.

### Compare:

I heard him speak French with Mr Brown yesterday. Я чув, як він говорив учора по-французьки з паном Брауном.	I hear that he spoke French well in his childhood. Я чув (дізнався), що він у дитинстві добре говорив по-французьки.
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У сучасній англійській мові Complex Object з дієсловами know, believe, think, consider, find, suppose, understand, prove, report, guess і деякими іншими вживається тільки в негативному стилі мови, причому інфінітив дієслова-зв'язки be часто опускається.

### Compare:

Formal Style	Informal Style
<p>1. Do you think him (to be) a good musician?</p> <p>2. <i>We believe it to have been a new discovery,</i> (<i>просте речення</i>)</p>	<p>1. Do you think (that) he's a good musician?</p> <p>2. We believe (that) it was a new discovery, (<i>складнопідрядне речення з підрядним додатковим</i>)</p>

### COMPLEX OBJECT

1. We all	seem	to like	this play,	Здається, нам усім подобається ця
2. I	don't	to	you.	п'єса.
3. I	seem	understand	you	Мабуть, я вас не розумію.
4. This	don't	to have	correctly,	Мені здається, я вас неправильно
5. Do you	seem	understood	the only way	зрозумів.
6. She	appears	to be	out.	Мабуть, це єдиний вихід.
7. She	happen	to know	Jane Crooks?	Ви, випадково, не знаєте Джейн
8. He	proved	to be	right after	Крукс?
9. He	proved	to have	all.	Виявилось, що вона все ж права.
10. He	turned out	been	right after	Виявилось, що вона все ж була
11. The	<i>is likely</i>	to be	all.	права.
students	is	to return	a good	Він виявився (став) хорошим
	unlikely	to return	doctor,	лікарем.
	are sure	to attend	soon,	Ймовірно, він скоро повернеться.
			soon.	Малоймовірно (наряд чи), що він
			this lecture.	скоро повернеться.
				Студенти безсумнівно (безумовно)
				будуть (бути присутнім) на цій
				лекції.

**Note.** Complex Subject вживається також з тими ж дієсловами, з якими вживається Complex Object, за винятком *should like, would like, let*. При вживанні

Complex Subject ці дієслова мають форму пасивного стану, а перед інфінітивом дієслова ставиться частка to, в тому числі і після таких дієслів, як hear, see, make та ін.

He is expected to manage this business well.

I was made to do it. That man has never been seen to smile. He has never been known to tell a lie.

### **1.3.2. Поточний контроль**

Завдання для проведення поточного контролю розроблені відповідно мети та змісту навчання з теоретичної граматики англійської мови. До уваги брались особливості навчання з даної дисципліни. Поточний контроль реалізується під час виконання студентами практичних завдань, як усно, так і письмово обговорення теоретичних проблем, аргументування точки зору з приводу спірних питань. Під час виконання поточних контрольних завдань студент повинен показати зв'язок теоретичного курсу з практичним курсом англійської мови, опанувати певні взаємовідношення різного ступеня складності, володіти сучасними методами лінгвістичного дослідження і давати інтерпретації проблемних явищ.

#### **Модуль 1 Теоретичні проблеми іменних частин мови і дієслова**

##### **Practical Assignments**

##### **Exercise 1 State the morphological composition of the following nouns:**

Snow, sandstone, impossibility widower opinion, exclamation, passer-by, misunderstanding, in activity , snowball, kingdom, anticyclone, mother-of -pearl, immobility , might, warmth, succession, ex-president, nurse , misdeed , wisdom, blackbird, attention, policeman, merry-go-round, girlhood, usefulness, fortune, friendship, statesman, brother-in-law, population, fellow-boarder, smelling-salt.

##### **Exercise 2 Point out the nouns and defined the class which they belong to:**

1. Don't forget, Pettinger, Europe is still the heart of world, and the Germany, the heart of Europe. 2. Pursuing his inquiries, Clennam found that the Gowah family were a very distant ramification of the Barnacles. 3. His face was sick with pain and rage .4. He drank coffee, letting the warmth go through his cold, tired body. 5. But there is only one place I met with the brotherhood of men, and it was the Communist party. 6. The

mysteries of storm and the rain and tide were revealed. 7. Having set the tea, she stood by the table and said slowly: "Tea's ready, Father. I'm going to London".

**Exercise 3 Give the plural of the following nouns:**

Face, portfolio, swine, house, tomato, hearth; mother-in-law, basis, clergyman, ox, cry, key, fox, downfall, looker-on, bus h, leaf, enemy, roof, genius, her o , bunch, sheep, ship, criterion, youth, journey, penknife, man-of-war, loss, datum, goose, deer, pie, Englishwoman, wolf, mouse, formula, bath, volcano, possibility, forget-me-not, foot, handkerchief, thief, crisis, birth, echo, finger-tip, martial, joy, extremity, spy, lie.

**Exercise 4 Translate into Russian:**

1. I am very fond of Helen, there is a great charm about the girl. 2. The man was slowly walking along the street. 3. A man was slowly walking-along the street. 4. We've bought some butter. 5. We've bought the butter in this shop. 6. A girl showed me way to the station 7. I shouldn't like to live there; there's something gloomy about. 8. You had better not attempt to be a governess, as the duties are too severe .

**Exercise 5 Insert articles when it' s necessary:**

1. Love seemed now so little .... thing; seemed to have lost... warmth and ... power.  
2. It was too great shock .... to be born with... calmness, and she immediately left., room.  
3. It's as good... place, I suppose, as you could find. 4. Mrs. Todgers was ... lady, rather bony and hard-featured lady. 5. It was quite ... way down to ... main road and then we walked along ... main road about ... mile and ... half. 6. But he .. gave her so long and so peculiar ... stare from... corner where he was having ... tea, that she knew he had not forgiven her. 7. She seemed to take rather .... fancy to me.

**Exercise 6 Find in the word list a Collective Noun for a number of:**

1/. sheep, 2/. cows or bulls, 3/. dogs or wolves, 4/. flies or other insects, 5/. flowers or keys, 6/. footballers, 7/. men who work a boat or ship, 8/. people chosen to direct some work, 9/. people at a concert or at a lecture, 10/. teachers at a school or officials./Answer: A Collective Noun for a number of sheep is a flock. A Collective Noun for a number of cows or bulls is a .... / Word List: staff, team, flock, crew, committee, pack, bunch, herd, audience, swarm.

**Exercise 7 State whether the italicized noun is used as a collective noun or a noun of multitude and choose the right word:**

1. Our family /is, are/ very large. It consists of nine members.
2. When Peter came down to the cabin the crew /was, were/ all asleep.
3. Our football team /is, are/ the strongest in the district.
4. The 6th army /was, were/ moving in the direction of the town of N.
5. The company /was, were/ leaving the hall through several exits.

**Exercise 8 Insert the definite or the indefinite article wherever necessary:**

1. " \_\_sun had set. \_\_ sky was green and yellow. And against this sky suddenly appeared \_\_very strange little figure. It was \_\_short little man. He wore \_\_cricket cap, \_\_ overcoat and \_\_long stockings".

2. These lines are taken from one of H.G.Wells' best novels.

\_\_title of this novel is " \_\_First Men in Moon." Read novel and you will find it to be one of most interesting stories you ever read.

3. Was there \_\_forest near \_\_village you lived in last year? Yes, there was very good forest

there. There were \_\_ oaks, \_\_pines and \_\_firs in \_\_ forest.

4. Neva is\_\_ very beautiful river. It is in North of our country. Mont Blanc, \_\_ highest mountain of Alps, is-----highest mountain in \_\_Europe. And which is \_\_highest mountain in \_\_ North America? \_\_Mediterranean Sea lies to \_\_ South of Europe and to North of Africa.

"Sedov" sailed on and on in \_\_ Atlantic. \_\_ "Times" is \_\_ bourgeois English newspaper.

5. I don't like to drink \_\_coffee in \_\_ evening. I always drink strong tea. Please, pass me \_\_ tea, or it will get cold. No, \_\_ milk is not needed, \_\_ piece of \_\_ lemon will be much better, lemons you brought from \_\_ Batumi are very good.

6. At sunset Mary sat at \_\_ window looking at \_\_ sky and at \_\_ sea in \_\_ distance. \_\_ picture she saw was really beautiful: \_\_ light white clouds were getting darker, \_\_ sun was growing smaller, white sail was coming nearer and nearer, shining in darkening

... Mary thought of her brother who had gone to... sea and was now on ...\_board  
\_"Maria" sailing in...Pacific.

### **The verb.**

#### **Exercise 9 State, the morphological composition of the verbs:**

To worry, to precipitate, to retire, to forbid, to retell, to do away, to whitewash, to whiten, to ascend, to apologize, to engage, to enfold, to give in, to decompose, to translate, to transport, to browbeat, to subscribe, to subordinate, to run away, to underestimate, to backbite, to mislead, to forget, to succeed, to disobey, to take off, to overrun, to satisfy, to recede, to come in, to resign, to superintend, to descend, to blackmail, to put up, to unbind, to win, to counteract, to go on, to forecast, to befriend, to go away, to lie.

#### **Exercise 10 Point out notional, auxiliary, modal and link verbs:**

She went into the drawing-room and lighted the fire; then, picking up the cushions, one by one, that Mary had disposed so carefully, she threw them back onto the Chairs and the couches. That made all the difference; the room came alive at once. As she was about to throw the last one she surprised herself by suddenly hugging it to her, passionately, /But it did not put on the fire in her bosom. Oh, on the contrary! The windows of the drawing-room opened into a balcony overlooking the garden. At the far end, against the wall, there was a tall slender pear tree in the fullest, richest bloom.

#### **Exercise 11 State whether the verb is transitive and intransitive:**

1. She has spoiled his life, wounded his pride to death, defrauded him of a son.
2. The door opened, and a thick-set heavy-looking young man entered.
3. The paddock was fairly well filled with people and they were walking under the trees behind the grandstand.
4. Fleur did not answer. She stood for a moment looking at him and her mother's
5. After turning the matter over and consulting with Irene, he wrote to his daughter.
6. The soldiers pushed and led them off.
7. Hugson marched him up to a sort of large, desk that was all glass and shining metal.

#### **Exercise 12 Insert the Past Ind., Past Cont, Past Perfect, Past Perf. Cont in**

1. Then she found that the tears...quietly... from her eyes.
2. One day of the new year she... .as usual at her window when Edward came prancing up the drive on horseback.
3. He and I ...friends since our early twenties.
4. I.. out Honour's letter and ..it; and to The post. The fog ...
5. He told me that an American Signore ... there for three months.
6. She stole downstairs and out into the vestibule, opening t he outer door and looking out into the street. The lamps ... already .. in the dark.
7. It was true that we .. one another almost intimately for five and twenty years. (to flow, to sit, to be, to copy, to seal; to go, to return, to flare, to blow, to know)

Insert may (might), can (could), or the contracted negative forms:

1. "There is a man I know, "I said; "you have met him, a man named Longrush".
- 2 He noticed at once that her manner was as natural almost as a frank, manly schoolboy's,... there ... never (he thought) have been a grain of affectation in her.
3. I... neither lie comfortably in bed nor find anything to do with myself if got up.
4. She jumped up when she saw me and said: "Really I think she ... have waited a bit bee fore dismantling the house.
5. I beg the Magistrate's pardon, but... I request a few minutes private conversation with him on a matter of deep importance to himself?
6. "You are a sworn constable?" "I be, sir" "Then pursue the criminal at once, and bring him back here. He was ... have gone far".
7. I said,".... I help you?"

State where the combination to be + Participle 11 is a simple predicate and where it is a compound nominal predicate:

1. Mr.Dorrit's rooms were reached. Candles were lighted. The attendants withdrew.
2. The door was instantly opened.
3. I have been treated and respected as a gentleman universally.
- 4.About soon, I was summoned to dress .
5. My boxes are locked, strapped and labeled; I hate being harried .
6. This brisk little affair was all settled before breakfast.



7. He was like a man who had been separated from one he loved for many years...
8. I stopped at a barber shop and was shaved and went home to the hospital.
9. We shall have time tomorrow, when my packing is finished.
10. Sly wife and daughters were charmed with her.
- 11.... The purchase was completed within a month.
12. You are deceived.
13. The door was opened by a girl.
- 14 . I'll be dressed in a minute.
15. The small room was lit only by a dying fire and one candle with a shade over it.
16. A short bridge over a canal was blown up but we climbed across what was left of the span.
17. The chambermaid curiosity was aroused at once.
18. Was your novel ever published?
19. He has not been well educated up to now.
20. Huckleberry was filled with admiration of Tom's facility in. waiting and the sublimity of his language.
21. The beds, which for years had been neglected now were laid with the abominations of carpet bedding.
22. A whisper goes about the house that Mr. Dombey's hair is curled.
23. He was in the house when the diamond was lost.
24. When at last the notes were finished I types them out...
25. Penn was fascinated and troubled by this suggestion.
26. The big brightly lit stone-flagged kitchen was silent... The shutters were closed and barred.
27. Red carpet was laid down for the occasion; hothouse plants and evergreens were arranged in bowers at the extremities and in every recess of the gallery.

**Exercise 13 Constructions with verbals.**

I. Change the following Object Clauses into constructions with a Complex Object:

1. I heard that she was singing in the garden.

2. Peter's father saw that the picture had fallen down.
3. The girl felt that somebody's hand was touching her cheek.
4. I wish that they would come to see us the day after tomorrow.
5. Look. Do you see how the storm is coming near?
6. They did not like that the children went in the yard barefoot.
7. The boy found that the story was very interesting.
8. We saw how the cars were loaded.
9. The travelers considered that the island was deserted.

II. Change the following Complex Sentences into constructions with a Complex

Subject:

1. It is said that this mountain is the highest in Europe.
2. It is reported that twenty new factories were built last year in our Republic.
3. It is said that this man was very handsome in his youth.
4. It was reported that five ships were missing after the battle,

**Exercise 14. Change the following Complex Sentences into constructions with for -Complexes:**

1. That they should have acted in such a way is strange.
2. They went to look at the house in which they might live in summer.
3. Give me a picture that my little brother could enjoy. .
4. I am telling you all this that you may understand what to do.

IV. Change the Adverbial Clauses into Absolute Nominative Participle Constructions:

1. As our work was finished, we went home.
2. If the letter is posted today, the news will reach them tomorrow.
3. If Mother permits us, we shall go to the theatre.
4. When the working day was over, she went straight home.
5. As a storm was arising, the ship entered the harbour.

**Модуль 2. Рівні синтаксису. Фрази та речення**

**THE SENTENCE**

**Exercise 1 Define the kinds of sentences according to the purpose of the utterance.**

Laura was terribly nervous. Tossing the velvet ribbon over her shoulder, she said to a woman standing by, "Is this Mrs.Scott's house?" and the woman, smiling queerly, said. "It is, my lass." Oh, to be away from this! She actually said, "Help'me God!" as she walked up the tiny path and knocked. To be away these staring eyes, or to be covered up in anything, one of those women's shawls even ! I'll just leave the basket and go, she decided. I shan't even wait for it to be emptied.

Then the door opened. A little woman in black shivered in the gloom.

Laura said, "Are you Mrs. Scott?" But to her horror the woman answered, "Walk in, please, miss", and she was shut in the passage. "No", said Laura, "I don't want to come in. I only want to leave this basket".

The little woman in the gloomy passage seemed not to hear her. "Step this way please, miss", she said in an oily voice, and Laura followed her. (Mansfield)

**Exercise 2 Define the type of question.**

1. "Who is she?" I said. "And why does he sit always alone, with his back to us too?"

2. "Did she have a child?" he asked, his eyes upon the floor.

3. You have Mr. Eden's address, haven't you, Mr. Ends?

4. Is literature less human than the architecture and sculpture of Egypt?

5. We shall be having some sort of celebration for the bride, shan't we Mr. Crawley?

6. "Can I see the manager?" I said, and added politely, "alone".

7. When had the carriage been back from taking Miss June to the station?

**Exercise 3 Point out two-member sentences (say whether they are complete or elliptical) and one-member sentences.**

1. He stared amazed at the calmness of her answer.

2. We must go to meet the bus. Wouldn't do to miss it.

3. Obedient little trees, fulfilling their duty.

4. Lucretius knew very little about what was going on in the world. Lived like a mole in the burrow. Lived on his own fat like a bear in winter.

5. He wants to write a play for me. One act. One man. Decides to commit suicide.
6. A beautiful day, quite warm.
7. What do you want? - Bandages, stuff for wounded.

**Exercise 4 State the nature of IT. Translate into Russian.**

1. It was dusky in the dining-room and quite chilly.
2. The bell rang. It was lean, pale Eddie Warren in a state of acute distress.
3. Oh! Oh! Oh! It was a little house. It was a little pink house.
4. But in her bosom there was still that bright glowing place. It was almost unbearable.
5. She sat up, but she felt quite dizzy, quite drunk. It must have been the spring.
6. It was marvelous to be made love to like that.
7. It is the moon that makes you talk to yourself in that silly way.

**Exercise 5 Point out the predicate and say to what type it belongs.**

1. Presently, she grew tired of that and looked across at her sister.
2. You shall have as many dances as you like. Isn't dance with anyone except you and Maxim.
3. Well, d'you feel any better now?
4. Harry was enjoying his dinner.
5. Alice went on, he ought to stop doing nothing and criticizing everybody.
6. Everything is being taken down and used against you.
7. Her story will only get repeated and exaggerated.

**Exercise 6 Point out the coordinate clauses (mark the elliptical ones) and comment on the way they are joined.**

1. It was high summer, and the hay harvest was almost over.
2. All the rooms were brightly cleaned, but there seemed to be complete silence in the house.
3. One small group was playing cards, another sat about a table and drank, or, tiring of that; adjourned to a large room to dance to the music of the player-piano.
4. His eyes were blood-shot and heavy, his face a deadly white, and his body bent as if with age.

5. He only smiled, however, and there was comfort in his hearty rejoinder, for there seemed to be a whole sensible world behind it.

6. You'll either sail that boat correctly or you'll never go out with my again.

7. Time passed, and she came to no conclusion, nor did any opportunities come her way for making a closer study of Mischa.

**Exercise 7 Define the kinds of subordinate clauses (subject, object and predicative clauses). Translate into Russian.**

1. Miss Casement stopped what she was doing and stared at Rains-borough.

2. What you, saw tonight was an ending.

3. About what was to come she reflected not at all.

4. It's odd how it hurts at these times not to be part of your proper family.

5. The trouble with you, Martin, is that you are always looking for a master.

6. Suddenly realising what had happened, she sprang to her feet.

7. "It looks as though spring will never come", she remarked.

**Exercise 8 Define the kinds of attr. clauses. Translate into Russian.**

1. "Everybody who makes the kind of blunder I did should apologize" he remarked with a pronounced nodding of his head.

2. Rachel had become aware of the fact that she was talking loudly.

3. He took after his blond father, who had been a painter. Rosa took after her dark-haired mothers who had been a Fabian.

4. What we are interested in, as author and reader, is the fact that publishing in England is now an integral part of big business.

5. The first thing Martin did next morning was to go counter both to 3rissendee's advice and command.

6. The invalid whose strength was now sufficiently restored, threw off his coat, and rushed towards the sea with the intention of plunging in and dragging the drowning man ashore.

7. He was suddenly reminded of the crumpled money he had snatched from the table and burned in the sink.

**The principal parts of the Sentence.**

**Exercise 9 In the following extract point out simple unextended sentences and simple extended sentences:**

An hour passed. The pale light of the short, sunless day was beginning to fade. A cry arose. The man in front turned his head. He looked at the man behind. They nodded to each other over the narrow box. A second cry arose. It was a wolf.

Henry looked up. It was dark. He saw a pair of eyes, then a second pair, and a third. The dogs were afraid. Bill could not sleep. He saw the shining eyes quite near.

/After J. London./

**Exercise 10. Change the following simple unextended sentences into simple extended sentences by adding some secondary parts of the sentence**

- |                         |                              |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. She is reading.      | 6. Do you smoke?             |
| 2. Mark has arrived.    | 7. They can skate.           |
| 3. It was growing dark. | 8. We did not talk.          |
| 4. I must leave.        | 9. Tom was restless.         |
| 5. Is he a poet?        | 10. She has become a singer. |

**Exercise 11 Point out what type of sentences there are in the following**

**/Simple Unextended, Simple Extended, Complex, Compound or Contracted/**

The fascist airman was mad with rage. He made more and more attacks on the train. At last he was sure of his mark, the locomotive driver had made his first mistake, but he had no more bombs left.

"The devil." exclaimed the airman. He swooped down and fired his machine-guns straight at that Russian worker whose skill and courage made mock of him and who was driving the train undamaged to its destination. The bullets rattled on the train, they struck the wheels, the lines and the locomotive itself, but still the train rolled on.

The fascist leaned back in his cockpit exhausted. The sky was clear. It was a beautiful mild autumn morning. He had no more ammunition left. The duel was over. The Russian driver below him had won. He felt a cold shiver run down his spine. Once more he drove and full of curiosity and hate flew over the train. He could not see the keen eyes of the driver watching him. The Russian realized that the fascist airman could do him no further harm. "You've lost your sting, you viper" he shouted.

The long goods train, loaded with munitions for the Soviet Army, continued on its way to the front.

**Exercise 12 Underline all the subjects in the following sentences and state by what parts of speech they are expressed:**

1. "Oliver Twist has asked for more". There was a general start. "Do I understand that he asked for more after he had eaten the supper?" said Mr. Limbkins.

"He did, Sir," replied Bumble.

"That boy will be hung," said the gentleman in the white waistcoat.

Nobody contradicted his opinion.

/After Ch. Dickens./

2. The killing of a bear is dangerous. But to kill a mother bear with her cubs is much more dangerous.

3. I said: "Watching you do this is of real use to me."

4. We were fifteen boys. We divided into two groups. Five went to the left to search the forest, and ten remained at the fire to watch the river.

5. I had to give her my overcoat. Hers was wet all through.

6. He said: "I think that will do," and rose wiping his brow. The bicycle also looked disheveled and bleeding. Which had received most punishment was difficult to say. /After Jerome K. Jerome./

7. It was necessary to argue with him on this point.

8. How to decide this question was beyond us.

**Exercise 13 Point out what kind of predicates there are in the following and state how they are expressed.**

1. We were fortunate that Boculy was our elephant guide. I believe he knows more about elephants than anyone in the world.

Boculy is a very important person in his own land. He knows all the languages of the plains and the desert, and in some curious way he can get aid from any of these people when we need it. There is a mystery on his wise old face, and his knowledge of wild animals is indeed remarkable. Elephants are his strong point. He can see things that are invisible for the rest of us. /"The Close Call" by M. **Johnson**.

2. The village is a quarter of a mile away, so it is not difficult for us to go there every day. But it had got quite dark that night when we at last got there.

3. At first we were only two, and it was very difficult to work. But then some other boys began to help us, and everything went on splendidly.

4. We soon lost sight of the Brig which had disappeared in the wideness of the sea. Everything grew quiet. We had to go home and think of the friends who had left us that night.

5. Lizzy took a bath, dried herself with a long towel and could now read her favourite novel.

6. He had been speaking for an hour or so, and everybody seemed charmed by his fiery speech.

7. She couldn't help laughing when she was reading the magazine. In fact she stopped laughing only when she finished the last story.

8. While she continued her work, I continued writing the article.

### **Secondary parts of the sentence.**

**Exercise 14 Point out what objects there are in the following and how they are expressed:**

1. Yesterday the teacher told us a short story. We listened attentively to every word, and when we were sure that we had understood everything, the teacher called on some pupils, and they rose and reproduced the story in their own words.

2. Uncle Alexander brought Oleg a box of chocolate, but Mother put it away and said Oleg would have no chocolate before he ate his dinner.

3. "Grey, I am leaving this ship and I want to say something to you before I leave".

4. On the battlefield the brave girl brought the wounded the water they needed so much.

### **Exercise 15 Point out all the attributes and state how they are expressed:**

1. The voice of the passing young man was cheerful.

2. They wanted an office boy, with a good school record.



3. The tree on top of the small hill was knocked off by an aeroplane which tried to land on the valley below.
4. My cousin brought in a young fellow whom he introduced as a friend of his.
5. The young man with a bandaged arm who is standing in the corner of the room is my best friend.
6. Kitty's silk dress was bought as a birthday present on the first day of this year.
7. There is something strange in her wide-open eyes.
8. The article was printed on the front page.

**Exercise 16. Build up sentences from the following words:**

1. fellow, George, nice, was, young, a.
2. You, heard, interesting, there, anything, have?
3. Good, me, tell, something.
4. Full of flowers, live, a room, they, in.
5. He, a, nose, red, and, had, cheeks, large.
6. Curls, brown, about, all, round,, hung, face, her, little.
7. Brown, her, bare, were thrust, boots, a woman's, legs, into.
8. Friend, little, brought, my, a, me, dog, with, a, tail, short.

**Exercise 17 Point out what kind, of adverbial modifiers you have in the following and how they are expressed:**

1. The boy examined his inkpot carefully and then looked at the ceiling.
2. I got up early. He came half an hour late. I was waiting for him in the garden.
3. Now the sledge was light and the dogs went on fast. But after them ran the wolves. They were very hungry and very thin and they came nearer and nearer. He did not dare to travel after dark. /J. London./
4. After two months the young flier became quite an experienced navigator and could fly in any kind of weather.
5. Before the second act of the play was over, we could scarcely keep our seats for excitement.
6. The traveller wearily climbed up the steps and knocked at the door very loudly in order to be heard above the roar of the storm.

7. The dog howled so furiously that Father tied it to the tree.
8. She went to the Caucasus the next month and I have not seen her since.

### **Complex sentences: Exercises**

#### **Exercise 18 Analyse the following Complex Sentences:**

1. He was slowly moving on when he met his friend Oleg.
2. At nightfall, when hope was about gone, I was picked up by a small brig which was bound for Odessa.
3. The flowers grow where the bridge crosses the stream.
4. Don't you think that Julia looks pretty when she wears a red dress?
5. I shall never forget the day when I met with an accident.
6. She has asked me when I met with an accident.
7. When I met with an accident I was unconscious for two hours.
8. The boys followed the path which ran down the hill.

#### **Exercise 19 Use each of the following subordinate clauses in at least three different ways:**

1/ as an Adverbial Clause; 2/ as an Attributive Clause; 3/ as a Subject, Object or Predicative Clause.

*Example.* When our vacation began.

- 1/ We met in the library when our vacation began.
  - 2/ On the day when our vacation began, we went to the cinema together
  - 3/ Everybody remembers very well when our vacation began.
- Where the aeroplane landed.
  - When peace was declared.
  - If she can go with us.
  - When the poet was born.
  - Where the office is.
  - When they left.

#### **Exercise 20 Combine short sentences into Complex Sentence.**

*Example.*

1. I have lost a book.

I have lost a small red book which my cousin gave me

It was small. to read.

It was red.

My cousin gave me to read.

They are going on the three o'clock train.

They are going to visit their uncle.

Their uncle lives in Leningrad.

2. Bob has lost his dog.

His dog was a fox-terrier.

It was very clever. Bob feels very sorry.

The man is on his way home.

The man missed the car.

He will be late for dinner.

She does not like chemistry.

It is very hard for her.

She -will have to know it well.

### **Exercise 21 Change the following Compound Sentences .**

*Example.* He turned, and the dog started towards him.

1 . He wanted to win and he tried to do his best.

2. There was a terrible storm, and Tommy lost his boat the same night.

3. The soldiers came home, and there was a parade, and we marched in it.

4. The train is usually in time, but it was an hour late today.

5. A great silence fell upon the gathered people, and a tall man stepped forward.

The captain spoke to me, and I couldn't remember his name.

#### **1.3.4. Підсумковий контроль**

Завдання для проведення підсумкового контролю відповідають рекомендаціям Програми і співвідносяться з цілями та змістом навчальної програми з «Теоретична граматики англійської мови». Метою підсумкового контролю є визначення рівня володіння студентами цією дисципліною. Підсумковий контроль характеризується зростаючою складністю і запропонований у формі

комбінованого тесту, який застосовується з метою перевірки сформованості конкретних знань, навичок і вмінь. Студент повинен знати сучасний стан науки, граматичний стан англійської мови як системи, частини якої взаємопов'язані, вміти аналізувати мовний матеріал втілюючи різні підходи.

Мета контролю: перевірити системне, послідовне визначення граматичної структури сучасної англійської мови, дати аналіз англійської граматичної структури у світлі загальних принципів лінгвістики.

### **Структура тесту**

Тест складається з 50 питань. Завдання 1 – 50 на вибір однієї правильної відповіді. Усі тести закритого типу. Завдання розташовуються в логічно-змістовій послідовності навчальної дисципліни. Кожне тестове завдання містить 4 варіанти відповідей, з яких – одна правильна.

### **Варіант I**

#### **Морфологія**

**1. The purpose of the theoretical course of English grammar is to present...**

- a) the analysis of English grammatical structure in the light of general principles of linguistics;
- b) the number of cases;
- c) the systematic study of the grammatical system of Modern English;
- d) the theoretical investigation of the grammatical system of the language.

**2. In what cases two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one units of the plane of expression?**

- a) polysemy;
- b) homonyms;
- c) synonymy;
- d) polysemy and homonyms.

**3. The lowest level of lingual segment is...**

- a) morphemic;
- b) phrasemic;
- c) phonemic;

d) lexemic.

**4. Combinations of two or more notional words belong to....**

a) phrasemic level;

b) lexemic level;

c) phonemic level;

d) morphemic level.

**5. The minimal paradigm consists of...**

a) one form-stage;

b) five form-stages;

c) three form-stages;

d) two form-stages.

**6. The morphological system of language has .... units.**

a) two;

b) one;

c) three;

d) four.

**7. The affixal morphemes include...**

a) suppletive forms;

b) roots;

e) grammatical suffixes;

f) prefixes, suffixes, inflections.

**8. Inner inflexion is used in...**

a) irregular verbs;

b) nouns;

c) regular verbs;

d) plural of the nouns.

**9. What definition of the grammatical opposition is true?**

a) a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed;

b) more specific grammatical category;

- c) the system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning;
- d) the general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena.

**10. What kind the classification of parts of speech is?**

- a) semantic;
- b) lexico-grammatical;
- c) formal;
- d) functional.

**11. What part of speech has the categorial meaning of “substance” or “thingness”?**

- a) verb;
- b) adverb;
- c) noun;
- d) pronoun.

**12. What is the grammatical category of adjective?**

- a) gender;
- b) case;
- c) category of comparison;
- d) number.

**13. Adjectives can combine with...**

- a) nouns;
- b) adjectives;
- c) link-verbs;
- d) modifying adverbs.

**14. In what sentence adjective serves as a part of a compound verbal predicate?**

- a) Do you see the green boat?
- b) I thought him very intelligent.
- c) He stood silent with his back turned to the window.
- d) Her smile was almost professional.

**15. What adjectives are the relative ones?**

- a) an awkward situation;

- b) a wooden hut;
- c) a difficult task;
- d) a historical event.

**16. Part of speech, that indicates number or order of persons or things is...**

- a) numeral;
- b) pronoun;
- c) adverb;
- d) noun.

**17. In what sentence the cardinal numeral is used in the function of adverbial modifier?**

- a) He was only fifty-four.
- b) Now, the other two got out.
- c) At eight the gang sounded for supper.
- d) And again she saw them, but not four, more like forty.

18. Pronouns are divided into .... groups.

- a) 9;
- b) 8;
- c) 5;
- d) 10.

**19. What categories are verbal ones?**

- a) person;
- b) number;
- c) aspect;
- d) comparison.

**20. According to their meaning adverbs are divided into... groups.**

- a) 3;
- b) 4;
- c) 6;
- d) 10

**21. What group do the adverb-*often, seldom, ever, occasionally*- belong to?**

- a) adverbs of direction;
- b) adverbs of manner;
- c) adverbs of time;
- d) adverbs of frequency.

**22. In accord with the word-building structure adverbs may be:**

- a) compound;
- b) simple;
- c) non-productive;
- d) productive.

**23. In what sentence the adverb coincides in form with conjunction?**

- a) He returned before I had time to go away.
- b) I had never seen him before.
- c) When she returns, I shall go to see her.
- d) They have not seen me since that time.

**24. To the basic functional parts of words in English belong ...**

- a) article, noun, verb;
- b) modal word, pronoun, numeral;
- c) interjection, adjective, adverb;
- d) preposition, conjunctive, interjection.

**25. What functional part of speech shows relations between things and phenomena?**

- a) conjunction;
- b) modal words;
- c) interjection;
- d) preposition.

**26. What verbs express the action which is performed by the subject:**

- a) statal verbs;
- b) actional verbs;
- c) notional verbs;



d) modal verbs.

### *Синтаксис*

**27. Who recognizes the tense category, consisting of past, present and future?**

- a) I. Ivanova;
- b) O. Jespersen;
- c) M. Blokh;
- d) B. Ilyish.

**28. What kind of sentence is where one or more word-forms in the principal position are omitted?**

- a) complete;
- b) nominal;
- c) elliptical;
- d) composite.

**29. In the process of communication sentences are divided into....**

- a) declarative;
- b) complete;
- c) elliptical;
- d) non-complete.

**30. What types of derivation are nonproductive?**

- a) the sound replacive type of derivation and stress-replacive type;
- b) expanded and composite;
- c) the sound-replacive type and phrasal;
- d) the composite verb stems.

**31. A new theory of English tenses has been put forward by...**

- a) prof. M.Blokh;
- b) prof. I. Ivanova;
- c) prof. G. Vorontsova;
- d) prof. A. Korsakov.

**32. In what sentence the indirect Passive is used?**

- a) The boy resembled his father.
- b) At night he was carried to the hospital.
- c) I was told some interesting news.
- d) They say there is nothing going on.

**33. The most common classification of the forms of mood is made by...**

- a) O. Jespersen;
- b) M. Barchydarov;
- c) A. Smirnitsky;
- d) I. Ivanova.

**34. The verb – type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining with:**

- a) finite notional verbs as the object of the action;
- b) nouns, expressing the subject of the action;
- c) finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various function;
- d) modifying adverbs.

**35. The main functions of the past participle in the sentence is;**

- a) attribute;
- b) object;
- c) predicat;
- d) subject.

**36. A word or a group of words that informs us of what is happening to the person, object or phenomenon indicated as the subject in the sentence are called....**

- a) predicate;
- b) subject;
- c) object;
- d) attribute.

**37. In what sentence does adverbial modifier express attending circumstances?**

- a) It is very romantic to take a walk by moonlight.
- b) He came here by taxi.

- c) She has music lessons twice a week.
- d) The night was very still.

**38. In what sentence close attributes is used?**

- a) A large cat jumped down the window set.
- b) Happy and carefree, the children ran down the hill.
- c) You behave like a schoolboy afraid of this teacher.
- d) I borrowed two pounds from Jane's brother.

**39. Apposition are usually expressed by....**

- a) verbs;
- b) pronouns;
- c) .numerals;
- d) nouns.

**40. What definition of the ing-complex is true?**

- a) a syntactic construction which is lexically dependent and found after a limited number of verbs in the Active Voice;
- b) syntactic construction which is lexically dependent and found with a limited number of verbs in the Passive Voice;
- c) syntactic construction which consists of a noun in the common case and indefinite pronoun or a personal pronoun in the objective case;
- d) syntactic construction which consists of a possessive pronoun or a personal pronoun in the objective case.

**41. The prepositional Infinitive is used in the sentence...**

- a) He could not approve of Guy's hiding himself away.
- b) He was looking for someone to help him.
- c) Everybody was found in.
- d) I watched her move away from us

**42. What is the generally recognized main part of the sentence?**

- a) subject;
- b) object;
- c) adverbial modifier;

d) attribute.

**43. In what sentence the simple subject is expressed by a single word-form?**

a) To ask him again was impossible.

b) For them to go back would be to admit defeat.

c) Seeing, is Leilving.

d) Who has done this is still to be found out.

**44. In what sentence the introductory subject is expressed by a noun?**

a) There was silence for a moment.

b) There were both of them present.

c) There was no talking that evening.

d) There is what we call a pattern.

**45. The simple verbal predicate is expressed by...**

a) a noun;

b) a verb in synthetic or analytical form;

c) a participial phrase;

d) a verbal phrase.

e)

**46. What definition of the link verb is true?**

a) the notional part of the compound nominal, predicate;

b) the structural element of the predicate;

c) a finite verb which denotes the attitude of the speaker to the content of the sentence;

d) a finite verb which denotes the action which is performed by the subject.

**47. In what sentence the predicate is expressed by a prepositional phrase?**

a) It's nine o'clock already.

b) She is on our side.

c) I was wide awake by this time.

d) He was sixty last year. I'm the first.

**48. In what sentence the object is expressed by a various predicative complexes?**

- a) He thought of what he was to say to all of them.
- b) She was glad to be walking with him.
- c) I want it done at once.
- d) He says he didn't know that.

**49. The predicate in the sentence *I hates being run after* is expressed by**

- a) an infinitive phrase;
- b) a numeral;
- c) a noun-pronoun;
- d) a gerundial phrase.

**50. What definition of the cognate object is true?**

- a) non-prepositional object which is attached to intransitive verb;
- b) non-prepositional object that follows transitive verbs;
- c) the indirect-non-recipient object which is attached to adjectives, adverbs;
- d) the indirect recipient object is generally used with transitive verbs.

## **Варіант II**

### **Морфологія**

**1. The plane of content in grammar comprises...**

- a) the purely semantic elements;
- b) the formal units of language;
- c) the material units of language;
- d) the plane of expression.

**2. Segmental units consist of...**

- a) phonemes;
- b) phonemic strings;
- c) syllables;
- d) words.

**3. What is the elementary meaningful part of the word?**

- a) the phoneme;

- b) the morpheme;
- c) phrase;
- d) word.

**4. Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between....**

- a) elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur;
- b) units in a segmental sequence;
- c) lingual units;
- d) paradigmatic sets.

**5. What is the function of the word as a part of the sentence?**

- a) predicative;
- b) differential;
- c) nominative;
- d) self-sufficient.

**6. In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes are divided into...**

- a) root-morphemes;
- b) affixal morphemes;
- c) affixes;
- d) roots and affixes.

**7. Types of word-form derivation are traditionally divided into...**

- a) analytical;
- b) suppletive;
- c) synthetic;
- d) synthetic and analytical

**8. What definition of the morpheme is true?**

- a) the nominative unit of language; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component;
- b) the most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena;
- c) the most important types of opposition;
- d) the meaningful segmental component of the word; it is formed by the phonemes.

**9. The traditional grammatical classes of word are called...**

- a) lexico-grammatical category;
- b) parts of speech;
- c) parts of sentence;
- d) grammatical forms.

**10. What criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflectional and derivational features of all the lexemes subsets...?**

- a) lexical;
- b) formal;
- c) functional;
- d) semantic.

**11. What are the grammatical categories of noun?**

- a) Gender, case, number;
- b) conversion pattern;
- c) article determination;
- d) tense.

**12. The derivational features of adjectives are...**

- a) suffixes;
- b) roots;
- c) endings;
- d) prefixes.

**13. What is the function of adjective in the sentence *The door was closed tight***

- a) an attribute;
- b) a predicative;
- c) a subjective predicative;
- d) an objective predicative.

**14. What adjectives are the qualitative ones?**

- a) a wooden hut;
- b) a difficult task;
- c) a historical event;
- d) a hearty welcome.

**15.** What adjectives don't admit the comparison?

- a) far;
- b) late;
- c) round;
- d) dead.

**16.** What is the function of the numeral in the sentence ...*the four of them entered the room?*

- a) predicative;
- b) pronoun;
- c) adverb;
- d) noun.

**17.** Pronouns include a miscellaneous group of words, which function in sentence as...

- a) nouns;
- b) verbs;
- c) adjectives;
- d) numerals.

**18.** Choose the pronouns in objective case .

- a) me;
- b) he;
- c) our;
- d) we.

**19.** The adverb is usually defined as a...

- a) word expressing property of an action;
- b) set of formal features determining specific status in the lexical paradigm;
- c) property of another property;
- d) part of speech having the categorial meaning of "substance".

**20.** What adverbs are the adverbs of degree?

- a) here, these, below, inside.
- b) very, awfully, too, so, little.



c) consequently, as a result, for one thing.

d) now, then, soon, when.

**21.** The combinability of the adverbs is with....

a) nouns;

b) verbs;

c) pronouns;

d) adjectives

**22.** In what sentence adverb coincides in form with preposition?

a) I shall speak to you after dinner.

b) I shall speak to you after you finish your dinner.

c) I shall tell you about it after.

d) He returned before sunset.

**23.** What adverbs are quantitative ones?

a) bitterly;

b) rather;

c) surprisingly;

d) plainly.

**24.** What functional part of speech expresses the specific limitation of the substantive function?

a) interjection;

b) modal word;

c) article;

d) particle

**25.** What is the most complex part of speech in English?

a) noun;

b) verb;

c) adjective;

d) numeral

**26.** Verbs of partial nominative value are:

a) notional verbs;

- b) auxiliary verbs;
- c) actional verbs;
- d) semi-notional link-verbs.

### *Синтаксис*

**27.** What are the main units of syntax as part of the grammatical theory?

- a) word;
- b) sentence;
- c) word-combination;
- d) text.

**28.** What is a minimal unit of communication?

- a) word;
- b) sentence;
- c) morpheme;
- d) word-form.

**29.** In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of.....

- a) predicate;
- b) adverbial modifier;
- c) subject;
- d) object.

**30.** What verbs are used with the infinitive as a predicative marker?

- a) auxiliary verbs;
- b) semi-notional introducer verb;
- c) link-verbs;
- d) modal verbs.

**31.** In Indo-European languages transitivity is the lexico-grammatical characteristic of the.....

- a) adverb;
- b) noun;
- c) verb;
- d) pronoun

**32.** What definition of the category of mood is true?

- a) this category expresses the relation between the subject and the action;
- b) this category is used to express any action referring to the future;
- c) this category is used to indicate a future action which is certain to take place according to a timetable;
- d) this category expresses the characters of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality.

**33.** What definition of the infinitive is true?

- a) the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb those of the noun;
- b) the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb those of the adjective;
- c) the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb those of the noun + adverb;
- d) the non-finite form of the verb, which combines the properties of the verb those of the adjective + verb

**34.** The noun-type combinability is displayed in its combining with:

- a) certain semi-functional predicator verbs;
- b) modifying adverbs;
- c) finite notional verbs as the object of the action;
- d) finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various function.

**35.** A word or a group of words which name person, object or phenomenon in the sentence are called...

- a) object;
- b) subject;
- c) attribute;
- d) predicate

**36.** What kind of predicate consists of a link-verb and a predicative, commonly expressed by a noun?

- a) compound nominal predicates;
- b) simple verbal predicates;
- c) nominal predicate;
- d) compound verbal predicates.

**37.** In what sentence does adverbial modifier express attending concession?

- a) He had no choice but to obey the orders.
- b) Though tired, he agreed to show us the garden.
- c) I was too tired to go for a walk.
- d) He said he would do it if necessary.

**38.** In what sentences loose attributes are used?

- a) Painted green, the house was almost invisible on the forest-covered hill.
- b) Happy and carefree, the children ran down the hill.
- c) He is not a man to rely on.
- d) It was no use talking to her.

**39.** A syntactic construction which is lexically dependent and can be found after a limited number of verbs in the Active Voice is called...

- a) the complex object;
- b) the complex subject;
- c) the prepositional Infinitive Phrase;
- d) the ing-complex

**40.** The complex object is used in the sentence ...

- a) The door was painted green.
- b) I watched her move away from us.
- c) He held out the papers for me to see.
- d) That's a risk I just can't think of your taking.

**41.** Adverbial modifier of attending circumstances is expressed in the sentence....

- a) I ought to have realized the possibility of such a thing happening.
- b) At first she hadn't been sure that his coming here had been a good thing.
- c) That's a risk I just can't think of your taking.
- d) Not a day had passed without that young man coming to at least one meal.

- 42.** What kind of English sentence don't have a subject?
- a) one-member;
  - b) declarative;
  - c) imperative;
  - d) compound.
- 43.** In what sentence the subject is expressed by a phrase?
- a) Seeing, is Leilving.
  - b) To ask him again was impossible.
  - c) Who has done this is still to be found out.
  - d) For them to go back would be to admit defeat.
- 44.** In what sentence the introductory subject is expressed by a clause?
- a) There is what we call a pattern.
  - b) There was no talking that evening.
  - c) There was silence for a moment.
  - d) There were both of them present.
- 45.** The compound predicative consists of...parts.
- a) one;
  - b) four;
  - c) two;
  - d) three.
- 46.** In what sentence the predicate is expressed by a gerund?
- a) She was full of enthusiasm.
  - b) It was he. It's me.
  - c) That's what has happened.
  - d) My hobby is dancing.
- 47.** In what sentence the object is expressed by a clause?
- a) He decided to stop.
  - b) I don't know what is was.
  - c) I don't know anybody here.
  - d) He insist on coming.

**48.** The sentence *I saw the boys two hours ago* is expressed by a...

- a) numeral;
- b) clause;
- c) personal pronoun;
- d) noun in the Common case.

**49.** The simple object is expressed by a ...

- a) phrase;
- b) single word-form;
- c) predicate complex;
- d) clause.

**50.** A part of the sentence expressed by a noun or nominal phrase and referring to another noun or nominal phrase is called...

- a) apposition;
- b) adverbial modifier;
- c) attribute;
- d) object.

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