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IÑLIS DILINIÑ AMALY
GRAMMATIKASY
(okuw gollanma)

**TÜRKMENISTANYŇ BILIM MINISTRIGI
SEÝITNAZAR SEÝDI ADYNDAKY TÜRKMEN DÖWLET
MUGALLYMÇYLYK INSTITUTY**

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Türkmenistanyň Bilim ministrligi tarapyndan hödürlendi

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İňlis diliniň amaly grammatikasy (okuw gollanma). İňlis dili we edebiyaty hünäri üçin.

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Merhemetli Prezidentimiz Gurbanguly Berdimuhamedow bilim ulgamyny ösdürmeklige ünsi has-da güýçlendirdi. Täze döwrebap kitaplary giňişleýin çap etmeklige uly ýol açdy. Her bir häzirki zaman okuw gollanmasy hem ýaş nesle bilim-terbiýe bermekde uly orun tutar.

İňlis diliniň grammatikasy boýunça bu okuw gollanma iňlis dilinde ilkinji gezek okyjylara hödürlenýär. Bu okuw gollanma iki bölümden ybarat. Gollanmanyň birinji bölümünde iňlis dilini öwrenijiler üçin grammatik düzgünler berilse, ikinji bölümde bolsa sözlem we onuň gurluşy barada umumy düşünje berilýär. Gollanma iňlis dilini öwrenýän türkmen talyplary üçin niýetlenilen.

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PART ONE

M O R P H O L O G Y

PARTS OF SPEECH

According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactic functions, words are divided into certain classes which are called Parts of speech.

The Parts of speech are divided into two kinds: 1) Notional parts of speech, 2) Structural parts of speech. The notional parts of speech are used in the sentence as independent elements and perform such syntactic functions in the sentence as the subject, the predicate, the attribute, the object, the adverbial modifier.

Notional parts of speech are the following:

- 1.The noun
- 2.The adjective
- 3.The pronoun
- 4.The numeral
- 5.The verb
- 6.The adverb
- 7.The words of the category of state
- 8.The modal words
- 9.The interjection

The Structural parts of speech express relations between words or sentences or they are used as independent elements of the sentence. They are not used in any independent syntactic function of the sentence. The structural parts of speech are the following:

- 1.The preposition
- 2.The conjunction
- 3.The particle
- 4.The article

THE NOUN

Nouns are words expressing names of things, names of living beings, abstract notions etc.

Nouns are divided into **two** groups:

- 1) **Proper** nouns (Has atlar)
- 2) **Common** nouns (Jyns atlar)

Proper nouns

Proper nouns are names of persons, geographical names, names of months, weeks, names of magazines etc. Proper nouns are always written with the capital letter.

Example: Mr. Smith, Oraz, Jeren, the Caspian Sea , England, Sunday, Monday, “New Times”

Common nouns

Common nouns are names of things and living beings. English common nouns are divided into the following parts:

Class nouns, collective nouns, abstract nouns and material nouns.

Class nouns denote persons or things belonging to a certain class. They are countable nouns. For example. a pen, a book, a boy, a dog, etc.

Collective nouns denote a collection of things or persons.

For example , foliage, police, people, cattle.

Abstract nouns denote some quality, state, action or idea.

For example. kindness, beauty, heroism, flight.

Material nouns denote materials.

For example. water, coffee, paper, iron.

In English nouns have two grammatical categories: the category of number and the category of case.

The category of number of nouns

Nouns have two numbers: singular and plural numbers. In the singular form nouns do not have number endings: a book, a dog, a man, a box.

The plural form of nouns is formed in the following three ways:

- 1) with the help of endings
- 2) with the help of sound interchanges
- 3) without any change

1. Most of the nouns in English form their plural number with the help of the plural ending. -s or -es

For example.

Singular number

a book
a dog
a pen
a dress

Plural number

books
dogs
pens
dresses

The noun “ox” forms its plural with the help of the ending “en” (oxen) and the noun “child” with the ending “ren” (children)

2. A few nouns form their plural number with the help of sound interchanges.

Singular

man
foot
woman
tooth
goose
mouse

Plural

men
feet
women
teeth
geese
mice

3. Some nouns form their plural number without changing the form of nouns.

Singular

sheep
deer
swine
fish

Plural

sheep
deer
swine
fish

4. In the compound nouns the plural is formed in different ways. For example.

| Singular | Plural |
|-----------------|-------------------------|
| sister-in-law | sisters <u>in</u> -law |
| looker- on | lookers <u>in</u> - on |
| lady-bird | lady-bird <u>s</u> |
| Merry-go-round | merry-go-round <u>s</u> |

5. Some nouns do not have **singular forms**. E.g. trousers, spectacles, barracks.

These nouns agree with the predicate verb only in the plural. For example:
My trousers are bigger for me.

But the nouns “news, physics, politics, phonetics” etc. are usually treated as singulars. E.g. *Phonetics* is my favourite subject.

6. The nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek keep their original plural forms. E. g.

Datum – data, phenomenon – phenomena

The category of case of nouns

In English nouns have two cases:

- 1) The Common case
- 2) The Possessive case

In the common case nouns do not have any case ending. E.g.

a book
a pencil
children
pupils

The possessive case of nouns is formed in two ways:

- 1) With the help of the apostrophe “s” (“ s) E.g.

Jeren’s book
the girl’s toy
children’s toy
men’s hat

After the plural form of nouns ending in “s” only apostrophe (‘) is used in the possessive case. E.g.

boys’ toys

pupils' bags

2) The possessive case of nouns can also be expressed with the help of the preposition "of". The preposition "of" can be used to form the possessive case of any nouns. E.g.

The book of the student

The bag of the pupils

The leg of the table

Note! Nouns ending in "s" form the possessive case in two ways (Dickens' novel, Dickens's novel), both of them are pronounced [ɪz].

THE ARTICLE

Article is a part of speech used only with nouns. In modern English there are two articles: the definite article (the) and the indefinite article (a, an).

The definite article.

"The" is the definite article. It is used before the nouns in the singular and plural forms. It is used when the noun is definite for the speaker.

"The" is pronounced in two ways: [ðə] and [ði]. It is pronounced [ðə] before the words beginning with a consonant letter (the book, the good idea), it is pronounced [ði] before the words beginning with a vowel letter (the apple, the Earth).

The use of the definite article.

The definite article is used:

1. When the nouns are definite for the speaker either from the situation or in general. E.g. I have a book. *The book* is interesting.

2. When the noun is single either in the situation or in the world. E.g. *The sun, the moon, the North. Turn off the TV.*

3. Before the names of mountains, rivers, seas, oceans, names of newspapers, magazines etc. *The Caspian Sea* is in Turkmenistan. *The Amu-derýa*, the Murgap River, the Tejen are all in Turkmenistan.

4. Before the substantivized adjectives and also before the superlative degree of adjectives the definite article is always used. E.g. the poor, the rich, the youngest student, the richest man.

5. The definite article is used after the expressions “some of, many of, most of”. Some of the books, none of the books etc.

6. The definite article is used when the noun is modified by such words as “same, right, wrong and very”. E. g.

I have got *the same* book. We entered *the wrong room*

7. The definite article is used before the names of persons when they express the whole family. E.g.

The Petrovs and the Greens are neighbours.

The indefinite article.

The indefinite article has two forms: a (an). The indefinite article “a” is used before the nouns beginning with a consonant letter. (a book, a desk) and the form “an” is used before the nouns beginning with a vowel letter (an apple, an idea).

The use of indefinite article.

1. The indefinite article is always used before the nouns in the singular to show that the noun belongs to a certain class. E.g.

This is *a pen*. I have *a dog*.

2. The indefinite article is used in the meaning of “one”. E.g.

He came home *a week ago*.

I shall return in *a month*.

3. The indefinite article is used to express the meanings “some, every, any”.

A man is waiting for you.

A drowning man catches at a straw.

4. The indefinite article is used in set expressions as:

In a hurry, to be at a loss, as a result, it is a shame, it is a pity, in a low voice etc.

THE ADJECTIVE

The Adjective is a part of speech expressing quality of things. According to the structure adjectives may be *simple*, *derivative* and *compound*. Simple adjectives do not have any endings. E.g. good, red, black, big.

Derivative adjectives have derivative elements, suffixes or prefixes: beautiful, foolish, hopeless, unkind.

Compound adjectives consist of two stems: snow-white, cold-hearted, life-giving etc.

Degrees of comparison of adjectives

The adjective has three degrees of comparison: the *positive* degree, the *comparative* degree and the *superlative* degree.

In English there are different ways of forming the degrees of adjectives:

1. Monosyllabic adjectives and the adjectives of two syllables which end in “y, ow, er, le” form their degrees with the help of endings “er” and “est”. The ending “er” forms the comparative degree and the ending “est” is used to form the superlative degree. E.g.

| Positive degree | Comparative degree | Superlative degree |
|--|--|--|
| cold – sowuk strong – güyçli big – uly happy – bagtly narrow – dar | colder – sowugrak stronger – güyçliräk bigger – ulurak happier – bagtlyrak narrower – darrak | the coldest – has sowuk the strongest – has güyçli the biggest – has uly the happiest – has bagtly the narrowest – has dar |

2. Polysyllabic adjectives form their degrees of comparison with help of the words “more” and “most”

“More” is used to form the comparative degree and “most” forms the superlative degree. E.g.

| Positive degree | Comparative degree | Superlative degree |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| interesting– gyzykly | more interesting–gyzyklyrak | the most interesting – iň gyzykly |
| important– möhüm | more important –möhümräk | the most important – has möhüm |
| beautiful– owadan | more beautiful – owadanrak | the most beautiful – iň owadan |
| comfortable – oňayly | more comfortable – oňaylyrak | the most comfortable |

| | | |
|--|--|--------------|
| | | – has oňayly |
|--|--|--------------|

3. Some adjectives have irregular forms of degrees of comparison. E.g.

| Positive degree | Comparative degree | Superlative degree |
|--|---|---|
| good – gowy bad – erbet little – az much(many)– köp | better – gowurak worse – erbeträk less – azrak more – köpräk | the best – has gowy the worst – has erbet the least –has az the most – has köp |

4. Some adjectives have two forms of comparison. E.g.

| Positive degree | Comparatives degree | Superlative degree |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Far- uzak | farther- uzakrak further- uzakrak | the farthest- has uzak the furthest- iň uzak |
| Old- garry | older- garryrak elder- ulurak | the oldest- has garry the eldest- iň uly |

Notes on the use:

1).In the comparative degree the word “than” is used to compare two unequal things. E.g.

She is taller than her sister.

The book is more interesting than that book.

2).In the superlative degree the definite article is always used. E.g.

It is the most interesting book.

This is the coldest room in the house.

3). In the comparison of two equal things the construction “as ...as” (in the affirmative sentence) and “not as ...as... “or “not so... as”

(in the negative sentence) is used. E.g.

My flat is as large as yours.

My flat is not as large as yours.

My flat is not so large as yours.

THE PRONOUN

Pronouns are words which change the names of persons and things.

I (the teacher, Orazow ...); you (the teacher, Orazow); he (the teacher, Orazow.); it (a book, a pencil...) she (Jeren, Dursun.); they(the students, the books ...) we (the students) etc.

Classification of pronouns

1. Personal pronouns: I, you, he, she, it, we, they.
2. Possessive pronouns: my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs.
3. Reflexive pronouns: myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself, (yourselves) themselves.
4. Demonstrative pronouns: this (these), that (those), such, the same.
5. Reciprocal pronouns: each other, one other.
6. Interrogative pronouns: who, whose, what, which.
7. Relative pronouns: who, whose, which, that, as.
8. Conjunctive pronouns: who, whose, which, what.
9. Indefinite pronouns: some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, one.
10. Defining pronouns: each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another.
11. Negative pronouns: no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing.

Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns are: I, you, he, she, it, we, they.

The personal pronouns have the grammatical category of person (1-st, 2-nd, 3-rd), category of case (nominative and objective), category of number (singular, plural). In the third person singular we can distinguish gender (he, she, it).

| | | | |
|--------|--------|------------|----------------|
| Number | Person | Nominative | Objective case |
|--------|--------|------------|----------------|

| | | | |
|----------|---|------------|--------------------|
| Singular | 1 | I – men | me –maña, meni |
| | 2 | You – sen | you –saña, seni |
| | 3 | He – ol | him –oña, ony |
| Plural | 1 | We – biz | us– bize, bizi |
| | 2 | You – siz | you– size, sizi |
| | 3 | They –olar | them– olara, olary |

Notes on the use:

1). Personal pronouns of the third person singular distinguish gender (masculine he, feminine she, neuter it).

2). In the sentence personal pronouns may have the syntactic functions. Common case pronouns are usually used as the subject of the sentence; the objective case forms are used as objects. E.g.

I asked him a question.

He told me a story.

They asked you to help them.

It (the book) is very interesting.

I put it on the table.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are: my, your, his, her, its, our, their. They have such distinctions as category of person, number and gender.

Possessive pronouns have two forms: conjoint and absolute. They are also named as dependent (or conjoint) and independent (absolute).

| Number | Person | Conjoint form | Absolute form |
|----------|--------|----------------------------------|---|
| Singular | 1 | my–meniñ | mine–meniñki |
| | 2 | your–seniñ | yours–seniñki |
| | 3 | his–onuñ her–onuñ its–onuñ | his–onuñky hers–onuñky its–onuñky |
| Plural | 1 | our– biziñ | ours–biziñki |
| | 2 | your–siziñ | yours–siziñki |
| | 3 | their–olaryñ | theirs–olaryñky |

Notes on the use:

1. Conjoint possessive pronouns usually modify nouns and are put before the nouns they modify. E.g.

This is my book. That is your book.

2. Absolute forms of possessive pronouns are always used independently and they are usually used as a predicative, subject or object of the sentence. E.g.

Here is a book. It is yours. Where is mine? These books are theirs. Yours are on the table.

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves and themselves. They have the categories of person, number, gender in the third person singular.

| Persons | Singular | Plural |
|---------|------------------------------|------------|
| 1 | myself | ourselves |
| 2 | yourself | yourselves |
| 3 | himself herself itself | themselves |

Notes on the use:

Reflexive pronouns are used to indicate that the action performed by the doer of the action passes back to him. Eg.

He did the work himself. – Ol bu işi özi etdi.

I wrote the letter myself. – Men haty özüm yazdym.

2. Reflexive pronouns are also used emphatically. E.g.

Soames himself disliked the idea.

He himself was against it.

Demonstrative pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns are: this, that, such, (the) same. Demonstrative pronouns this and that have two numbers: this–these; that–those.

The singular form– this – bu, the plural–these– bular; singular that – ol, the plural–those–olar.

“This” is used to show something which is nearer in time or place; “that” points at what is farther away in time or place.

The pronoun “such” (şeyle) is used as subject, predicative, attribute, and object. E.g.

Don't speak about such things. (Attribute)

If such has its power... (Subject)

The pronoun “same” is always used with the definite article (the same – şol bir, şonuñ ýaly etc.). E.g.

We were in the same classes. – Biz şol bir synpdadyk.

She was the same as before. – Ol şol öñküsi ýalydy.

Interrogative pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns are: who, whose, which, what.

Interrogative pronouns are used in special questions. E.g.

Who is here? – Bu ýerde kim bar?

What is your name? – Seniñ adyñ näme?

Whose pencil is this? – Bu kimiñ galamy?

Which book is yours? – Siziñ kitabyňyz haysysy?

The pronoun “Who?” has two case forms: nominative case (who) and objective case (whom).

It is necessary to distinguish between “who “and” what” in the following sentences.

Who is he? – Ol kim? (Onuñ ady nämr?)

What is he? – Ol kim? (käri boýunça)

e.g.

Who is this man? – He is Orazow Kemal

Who is she? – She is Jemal Ýazowa.

What is she? – She is a teacher.

What is he? – He is an engineer.

The indefinite and negative pronouns.

The indefinite pronouns are: some, any, somebody, anybody, someone, anyone, something, anything and one. The negative pronouns are: no, nobody and no one.

Some is mainly used in affirmative sentences while any is used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional sentences. E.g.

I have some books and some copy books.

I don't have any books and any copybooks.

Have you any books and copy– books?

Pronouns “somebody, some one, anybody, anyone, nobody, no one, and one” have two cases: nominative and possessive cases:

Nominative case

Possessive case

| | | |
|----------|---|-------------------|
| Somebody | – | somebody's (book) |
| Someone | – | someone's (idea) |
| Anybody | – | anybody's (tea) |
| Anyone | – | anyone's (coffee) |
| Nobody | – | nobody's (pen) |
| No one | – | no one's (book) |
| One | – | one's (book) |

Negative pronouns are always used to form negative sentences. E.g.

I have no book.

Nobody came with me.

THE NUMERAL

The numeral is a part of speech which shows the cardinal or ordinal number.

The numerals are divided into two kinds:

1. The Cardinal numerals (Mukdar san)
2. The Ordinal numerals (Tertip san)

Cardinal numerals .

The Cardinal numerals are used in counting, as one, two, three, four etc. The Cardinal numerals from 1 to 12 and 100,1000,1000 000 are simple words, they have no endings. For example, one, two, three, hundred, thousand etc. The cardinal numerals from 13 to 19 are derivative numerals which are formed with the help of the suffix “teen”. For example, thirteen, fourteen, nineteen etc. The numerals indicating the ten numbers beginning from 20 have the ending “ty” , as for example , twenty, thirty, forty, fifty etc. Between the ten numbers are the composite words which

consist of two numbers together. For example. Twenty- two , twenty – three , fifty –one , fifty –two , ninety – one , ninety –two etc.

The Cardinal numerals “ hundred , thousand, million” may be used with articles (a hundred, a thousand , a million), they may be used with the plural ending (hundreds, thousands , millions). But when they come together with other numerals, they don’t take the plural ending (two thousand, three hundred, thirty thousand years). In this case the word “million” may be used with “s” (two millions).

Ordinal numerals .

The ordinal numerals show the order of persons or things. Most ordinal numerals are formed with the help of the ending “th” except “first , second , third”. E.g. fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh etc.

The ordinal numerals are usually used with the definite article: the first, the second, the third etc.

In ordinal groups the last member of the group takes the ending : thirty –fifth, two hundred and second.

Chronological dates are read in the following way:

1900-nineteen hundred;

1968-nineteen sixty-eight;

2001-twenty o one (twenty 0 [ou] one)

Note: Pay attention to the use of numbers with the words : Chapter 1, the first chapter, page twenty, July 15th , the fifteenth of July.

THE VERB

The verb is a part of speech which denotes an action.

The verb has the following grammatical categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood.

According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into:

- a) Simple verbs (go, ask, open, bring).
- b) Derivative verbs (characterize, modify, rewrite, dislike)
- c) Compound verbs (fulfil, whitewash,)
- d) Composite verbs (sit down, go away)

In Modern English verbs have **four** basic forms: The infinitive (to speak), the Past Indefinite (spoke), Participle II (spoken) and Participle I (speaking).

According to the way the verbs form the past indefinite and participle II, verbs are divided into *three* groups: regular verbs, irregular verbs and mixed verbs.

1. Regular verbs. The regular verbs form the Past Indefinite and Participle II by adding the ending “ed” to the stem of verbs. E.g.

to ask – asked to stop – stopped
to open – opened to reply – replied

2. Irregular verbs: The irregular verbs are verbs which form their Past Indefinite and Participle II by changing the root vowel or by different other ways. E.g.

to sing – sang – sung
to speak – spoke – spoken
to bring – brought – brought
to send – sent – sent
to have – had – had
to put – put – put
to go – went – gone
to be – was, were – been
can – could, may – might

Mixed verbs: Mixed verbs form the Past Tense by the ending – “ed” and Participle II by irregular type. E.g.

to show – showed – shown
to sow – sowed – sown

According to their syntactic function the verbs in Modern English are divided into: notional verbs, auxiliary verbs and link verbs

1. Notional verbs are verbs with full lexical meaning and can be used as a predicate independently. E.g.

to read, to write, to speak, to know, to ask etc.

2. Auxiliary verbs are verbs which have lost their lexical meaning. They help to form different analytical forms of verbs. That is why they are also called help words. They help to form the interrogative, negative and future forms of the sentence, and also they form continuous and perfect forms and the analytical forms of the subjunctive mood. In English we have such auxiliary verbs as “to do, to have, to be, shall, will, should, would.” Eg.

Does he know English?

He doesn't speak French.

We shall arrive in time.

She is reading a book.

They have forgotten about it.

3. Link verbs are those verbs which are used in compound nominal predicate. They do not have full lexical meaning. In Modern English there are such groups of link verbs as: link verbs of being (to be), link verbs of seeming (seem, appear, look, feel), link verbs of becoming (to become, to grow, to get, to turn, to go and to fall) and link verbs of remaining (remain, keep, continue and stay).

The verbs stand, sit, lie may also be as link verbs with predicative (He stood still) and they may be used as notional verbs(He stood there.). E.g.

She seems ill today.

He stood still.

He becomes angry.

She kept silent.

She remained silent.

They lay awake.

Tense Forms in the Active Voice

In Modern English there are the following tense forms in the active voice:

1. The Indefinite Tense Forms
2. The Continuous Tense Forms
3. The Perfect Tense Forms
4. The Perfect Continuous Tense Forms

The Indefinite Tense Forms

There are *four* Indefinite Tense forms in Modern English:

1. The Present Indefinite Tense
2. The Past Indefinite Tense
3. The Future Indefinite Tense
4. The Future Indefinite in the Past Tense.

The Present Indefinite Tense

The Formation of the Present Indefinite: The Present Indefinite is formed from the infinitive without the particle “to”. In the third person singular the ending “-s” or “-es” is added. E.g.

Singular form

1. I work.

Plural form

We work.

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| 2. You work . | You work. |
| 3 He works . | They work. |
| She works. | |
| It works. | |

The interrogative form of the Present Indefinite is formed by putting the auxiliary verb “do” before the subject of the sentence. In the third person singular the form “does” is used. E.g.

- | <u>Singular form</u> | <u>Plural form</u> |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Do I work? | Do we work? |
| 2. Do you work? | Do you work? |
| 3. Does he work? | Do they work? |
| Does she work? | |
| Does it work? | |

The short answers to the questions are “Yes, I do. “ No, I do not.(don’t)

Does he work? ”Yes,he does. No, he does not (doesn't)”

The negative form of the Present Indefinite is formed by putting the negative particle “not” after the auxiliary verb “do” (does in the third person singular). E.g.

- | <u>Singular form</u> | <u>Plural form</u> |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1.I do not work. | We do not work. |
| 2.You do not work. | You do not work. |
| 3.He does not work. | They do not work. |
| She does not work. | |
| It does not work. | |

The use of the Present Indefinite:

1. The Present Indefinite is used to denote a repeated customary action. The repeated character of the action is often shown by such adverbials as every day, often, sometimes, usually etc.E.g.

I go to the Institute every day.

He often comes to see me.

We usually meet at the station.

2. With the verbs of motion such as to go, to come, to leave the Present Indefinite can denote a future action. E.g.

We go to Ashgabat tomorrow.

The train leaves in an hour.

3. The Present Indefinite Tense is also used to express a future action in adverbial clauses of time and condition. Eg.

I shall help you if I am free tomorrow.

We shall go home after he finishes his work.

The same use is characteristic of the Turkmen language. E.g.

Biz teatra geljek hepde gidýäris.

Otly ene-de iki sagatdan ugraýar.

The Present Indefinite of the verb “to be”:

In the Present Indefinite the verb “to be” has different forms in different persons: am, are, is.

Singular

1. I am a pupil.

2. You are a pupil.

3. He (she, it) is a pupil.

Plural

We are pupils.

You are pupils.

They are pupils.

In the interrogative form the forms of the verb “to be” are placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Am I a pupil?

2. Are you a pupil?

3. Is he (she, it) a pupil?

Plural

Are we pupils?

Are you pupils?

Are they pupils?

The short answers to the questions:

Affirmative answer: Yes, I am.

Negative answer: No, he is not. (No, he isn't)

The negative form is formed by putting the particle “not” after the forms of the verb “to be”. E.g.

Singular

1. I am not a pupil.

2. You are not a pupil.

3. He (she, it) is not a pupil.

Plural

We are not pupils

You are not pupils.

They are not pupils.

Notes on the use of the verb “to be”

1. In the sentence the verb “to be” is the indicator of tense and person.

2. The verb “to be” may be used: as a notional verb (He is in the room.), link verb (He is a student.), modal verb (He is to go home) and auxiliary verb (He is invited to the party.)

The Present Indefinite of the verb “to have”:

In the Present Indefinite the verb “to have” has two forms: “has” for the third person singular and “have” for all other persons. E.g.

Singular

1. I have a book
2. You have a book.
3. He (she, it) has a book.

Plural

- We have books.
You have books.
They have books.

In the interrogative form the verb “have” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Have I a book?
2. Have you a book?
3. Has he (she, it) a book?

Plural

- Have we books?
Have you books?
Have they books?

The interrogative form can also be formed by putting the auxiliary “do” before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Do I have a book?
2. Do you have a book?
3. Does he (she, it) have a book?

Plural

- Do we have books?
Do you have books?
Do they have books?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the verb “have”. E.g.

Singular

- 1 I have not (haven’t) a book.
2. You have not a book.
3. He (she, it) has not a book.

Plural

- We have not books.
You have not books.
They have not books.

Notes on the use:

1. In oral speech the verb “to have” is often changed by “have got”. E.g.
I have got a book. He has got some free time.

The Construction “ There is/are” in the Present Indefinite .

In sentences with the construction there is / are, the verb “to be” is always used with the word “there”. They together form the construction, which is translated into Turkmen as “bar”. E.g.

There is a book on the table. (Stoluň üstünde kitap bar)

The sentence with the construction “there is/are” must consist of three parts:

1). The Construction; 2). The Subject; 3).The adverbial modifier of place. The Construction fulfils the function of the predicate of the sentence and always stands at the beginning of the sentence.

The subject follows the predicate and the words denoting the place usually stand at the end of the sentence. E,g,

1. There are six chairs in the classroom.
2. There is a newspaper on the table.

In the interrogative form the verb “to be “is placed before the word “there”. E.g.

Is there a book on the table? Yes, there is.

Are there many pupils in the classroom? No, there are not.

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the verb ‘to be”. E.g.

There is not a book on the table.

There are not many pupils in the classroom.

Notes on the use:

1. When there are two or more subjects in the sentence the predicate agrees with the first subject of the sentence. E.g.

There is a pen and two pencils in my bag.

There are two pencils and a pen in my bag.

2. The short answers to the questions are” Yes, there is (howa bar) , No, there is not (yok)

3. The construction “there is/are“is a synonym with the verb “to have”. Both of them are translated into Turkmen as “bar”, “yok” (negative). The only difference is that the verb “to have” is generally used with the words denoting persons or living beings.

4. You must be able to distinguish the use of similar sentences with the construction:

“Kitap stoluň üstünde” and “Stoluň üstünde kitap bar”.

These sentences have different translations. E.g.

The book is on the table (Kitap stoluñ üstünde);

There is a book on the table (Stoluñ üstünde kitap bar).

The Past Indefinite Tense.

The formation of The Past Indefinite: The Past Indefinite Tense is formed by adding “ed” or “d” to the stem of regular verbs, or by changing the root vowel or in some other ways of irregular verbs. E.g.

Singular

1. I worked (wrote)
2. You worked (wrote)
3. He (she, it) worked (wrote)

Plural

- We worked (wrote).
- You worked (wrote).
- They worked (wrote).

The interrogative form of the Past Indefinite is formed by putting the past form of the auxiliary verb “to do” (did) before the subject of the sentence and the infinitive without the particle “to”. E.g.

Singular

1. Did I work (write)?
2. Did you work (write)?
3. Did he (she, it) work (write)?

Plural

- Did we work (write)?
- Did you work (write)?
- Did they work (write)?

In the negative form of the Past Indefinite the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary “did” and the infinitive without the particle “to”. E.g.

Singular

1. I did not work (write).
2. You did not work (write).
3. He (she, it) did not work (write).

Plural

- We did not work (write).
- You did not work (write).
- They did not work (write).

The use of the Past Indefinite.

1. The Past Indefinite Tense is used to denote an action which took place in the past. The past action is cut off from the present. The time of the past action may be indicated by such adverbials of time as “yesterday, a week ago, last year, in 1999 etc”.

2. The verb “to be” has two forms in the past Indefinite “was” and “were”. “Was” is used for the first and third persons singular and “were” for all persons in the plural and for the second person singular.

The Past Indefinite Tense of the verb ”to be ”

The verb “to be” has two forms in the Past Indefinite “was” and “were”. “Was” is used for the first and third persons singular and “were” for all persons in the plural and for the second person singular.

Singular

1. I was_a pupil.

2. You were_a pupil.

3. He (she, it) was a pupil.

Plural

We were pupils.

You were_pupils.

They were_pupils.

In the interrogative form the forms of the verb “to be” are placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Was I a pupil?

2. Were you a pupil?

3. Was he (she, it) a pupil?

Plural

Were we pupils?

Were you pupils?

Were they pupils?

The short answers to the questions:

Affirmative answer: Yes, I was.

Negative answer: No, he was not. (No, he wasn't)

The negative form is formed by putting the particle “not” after the forms of the verb “to be”. E.g.

Singular

1. I was not a pupil.

2 You were not a pupil

3. He (she, it) was not a pupil. They were not pupils.

Plural

We were not pupils

You were not pupils.

Notes on the use of the verb “to be”

1. In the sentence the verb “to be” is the indicator of tense and person.

2. The verb “to be” may be used: as a notional verb (He was in the room.), link verb (He was a student.), modal verb (He was to go home) and auxiliary verb (He was invited to the party.)

The Past Indefinite of the verb “to have”.

In the Past Indefinite the verb “to have” has the form “had” for all persons. E.g.

Singular

1. I had a book.
2. You had a book.
3. He (she, it) had a book.

Plural

- We had books.
- You had books.
- They had books.

In the interrogative form the past tense of the auxiliary verb “do”(did) is put before the subject of the sentence and the infinitive form of the verb “to have” without the particle “to”. E.g.

Singular

1. Did I have a book?
2. Did you have a book
3. Did he (she, it) have a book?

Plural

- Did we have books?
- Did you have books?
- Did they have books?

The negative form is formed by putting the negative particle “not” after the auxiliary verb ‘did’. E.g.

Singular

1. I did not have a book.
2. You did not have a book.
3. He (she, it) did not have a book.

Plural

- We did not have books.
- You did not have books.
- They did not have books.

Notes on the use:

1. The verb “to have” in the past Indefinite is translated into Turkmen as “bardy”. E.g.

I had an interesting book. (Mende gyzykly kitap bardy)

Oraz had a sister. (Orazyň gyz dogany bardy)

2. In modern English the verb “to have” can be used in two functions:

In the Indefinite Tense forms it is used as a notional verb with full lexical meaning. In the perfect tense forms the verb “to have” functions as an auxiliary verb.

The Future Indefinite Tense.

The formation of the Future Indefinite.

The Future Indefinite is formed by means of the auxiliary verbs “shall/will” and the infinitive without the particle “to”. “Shall” is used for

the first person singular and plural and “will” for all other persons in the singular and plural. E.g.

Singular

1. I shall work.
2. You will work.
3. He (she, it) will work.

Plural

- We shall work.
You will work.
They will work.

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Shall I work?
2. Will you work?
3. Will he (she, it) work?

Plural

- Shall we work?
Will you work?
Will they work?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I shall not work.
2. You will not work.
3. He (she, it) will not work.

Plural

- We shall not work.
You will not work.
They will not work.

The contracted forms:

Affirmative: I’ll work. He’ll work.

Negative: I shan’t work. He won’t work.

Notes on the use:

1) The Future Indefinite is used to denote a future action. The Future Indefinite is used with the adverbials of future as “tomorrow, next week, in an hour, in two years, next year” etc. E.g.

We shall go home tomorrow.

Next year I shall be fifteen.

2) The meaning of the auxiliary verb “shall/will” is given in Turkmen with the help of the endings “-jak / -jek”, “-ar/-er”. E.g

I shall go home tomorrow. (Men öýe ertir getjek)

He will learn English well. (Ol iňlis dilini gowy öwrener)

3) To denote a future action such word combinations as “to be going to, to be about to” are often used. Their present tense has a future meaning. E.g.

I am going home tomorrow.
The train is about to start.

The Future Indefinite in the Past.

The formation of the Future Indefinite in the Past.

The Future Indefinite in the Past is formed by means of the auxiliary verbs “should” and “would” and the infinitive without the particle “to” of the notional verb. “Should” is used in the first person singular and plural, “would” is used for the second and third persons singular and plural. E.g.

Singular

1. I should work.
2. You would work.
3. He (she, it) would work.

Plural

- We should work.
You would work.
They would work.

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject. E.g.

Singular

1. Should I work?
2. Would you work?
3. Would he (she, it) work?

Plural

- Should we work?
Would you work?
Would they work?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I should not work.
2. You would not work.
3. He (she, it) would not work.

Plural

- We should not work.
You would not work.
They would not work.

The use of Future Indefinite in the Past

The Future Indefinite in the Past denotes an action which was future from the point of view of the past. E.g.

He said he would come soon. (Ol tiz geljek diydi)

Continuous Tense forms of the verb

In Modern English there are the following Continuous tense forms of the verb:

- 1) The Present Continuous tense.
- 2) The Past Continuous tense.
- 3) The Future Continuous tense.

The Present Continuous Tense

The formation of the Present Continuous Tense:

The Present Continuous Tense is formed by means of the Present Indefinite of the auxiliary verb “to be” and Participle I of the notional verb.

E.g.

To be + Participle I

Singular

1. I am reading.
2. You are reading.
3. He (she, it) is reading.

Plural

- We are reading.
You are reading.
They are reading.

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb” to be” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Am I reading?
2. Are you reading?
3. Is he (she, it) reading

Plural

- Are we reading?
Are you reading?
Are they reading?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I am not reading.
2. You are not reading.
3. He (she, it) is not reading.

Plural

- We are not reading.
You are not reading.
They are not reading.

The use of the Present Continuous

1) The Present Continuous is used to denote an action going on at the present moment. E.g.

I am reading a book now. (Mən hazır kitab okap otyryn)

The teacher is explaining a new grammar rule.

(Mugallym täze grammatik düzgünü düşündirip dur)

2) The verb in the Present Continuous has contracted forms: I'm reading. She's reading. We're reading. She isn't reading. We aren't reading.

3) The Present Continuous is used to denote a future action with such words as "to go, to come, to leave. E.g

He is coming to us tomorrow.

I am leaving tonight.

4) Such verbs as "to be, to feel, to live, to teach, to see, to know, to understand, to remember, to think, to like, to love, to want" etc. are not used with the Present Continuous.

The Past Continuous Tense

The formation of the Past Continuous Tense:

The Past Continuous Tense is formed by means of the Past Indefinite of the auxiliary verb "to be"(was/were) and Participle I of the notional verb. E.g.

Singular

I was working.

You were working.

He (she, it) was working.

Plural

We were working.

You were working.

They were working.

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Was I working?

2. Were you working?

3. Was he (she, it) working?

Plural

Were we working?

Were you working?

Were they working?

In the negative form the negative particle "not" is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I was not working.

2. You were not working.

3. He (she, it) was not working.

Plural

We were not working.

You were not working.

They were not working.

The use of the Past Continuous Tense.

1). The Past Continuous is used to denote an action which was going on at a definite moment in the past. The definite moment in the past is indicated either by another past action or by definite time denoting words.

E.g.

When we came he was working in the garden.

At this moment yesterday we were sitting at home.

The Future Continuous Tense

The Formation of the Future Continuous Tense

The Future Continuous is formed by means of the Future Indefinite of the auxiliary verb “to be” and Participle I of the notional verb (shall be/will be).

| |
|-----------------------------------|
| Shall be / will be + Participle I |
|-----------------------------------|

E.g.

Singular

Plural

1. I shall be reading.

We shall be reading.

2. You will be reading.

You will be reading.

3. He (she, it) will be reading.

They will be reading.

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb (shall or will) is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g

Singular

Plural

1. Shall I be writing?

Shall we be writing?

2. Will you be writing?

Will you be writing?

3. Will he (she, it) be writing?

Will they be writing?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

Plural

1. I shall not be writing.

We shall not be writing.

2. You will not be writing.

You will not be writing.

3. He (she, it) will not be writing.

They will not be writing.

The use of the Future Continuous:

1). The Future Continuous is used to denote an action which will be going on at a definite moment in the future. The definite moment is indicated either by another future action or by an adverbial of time. E.g

I shall be working when you return.

At five o'clock I shall be waiting for you.

The Future Continuous in the Past

The formation: The Future Continuous in the Past is formed by means of the Future Indefinite in the past tense of the auxiliary verb "to be" and Participle I of the notional verb.

| |
|----------------------------------|
| Should / would be + Participle I |
|----------------------------------|

E.g.

| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I should be reading. | We should be reading. |
| 2. You would be reading. | You would be reading. |
| 3. He (she, it) would be reading. | They would be reading. |

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject. E.g.

| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Should I be reading? | Should we be reading? |
| 2. Would you be reading? | Would you be reading? |
| 3. Would he (she, it) be reading? | Would they be reading? |

In the negative form the negative particle "not" is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I should not be reading. | We should not be reading. |
| 2. You would not be reading. | You would not be reading. |
| 3. He (she, it) would not be reading. | They would not be reading. |

Contracted forms:

I'd be reading. He wouldn't be reading.

The use of the Future Continuous in the Past:

The Future Continuous in the Past is used to denote an action going on at a definite moment which was future from the point of view of the past.

E.g.

He knew they would be reading when she came.

He said he would be waiting for me at 5 o'clock yesterday.

The Present Perfect Tense

The formation of the Present Perfect:

The Present Perfect is formed by means of the Present Indefinite of the auxiliary verb “to have” and Participle II of the notional verb.

| |
|-------------------------|
| To have + Participle II |
|-------------------------|

| | | |
|------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| E.g. | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | I have worked. | We have worked. |
| 2. | You have worked. | You have worked. |
| 3. | He (she, it) has worked. | They have worked. |

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb “to have” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

| | | |
|----|--------------------------|-------------------|
| | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | Have I worked? | Have we worked? |
| 2. | Have you worked? | Have you worked? |
| 3. | Has he (she, it) worked? | Have they worked? |

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

| | | |
|----|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | I have not worked. | We have not worked. |
| 2. | You have not worked. | You have not worked. |
| 3. | He (she, it) has not worked. | They have not worked. |

The contracted forms:

| | | |
|----|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. | I've worked. | We've worked. |
| 2. | He's worked. | You've worked. |
| 3. | He hasn't worked. | You haven't worked. |

The use of the Present Perfect:

1. The Present Perfect is used to denote a completed action connected with the present moment. Present Perfect is often used with the adverbs “just, yet, already, of late”. etc. E.g.

I have just returned from work.

He hasn't finished his work yet.

2. The Present Perfect is also used to denote an action which began in the past, has been going on up to the present moment and is still going on.

In this use the preposition “for” is used to show the whole period of the action and “since” shows the beginning of the action. E.g.

I have worked here for five years.
We have known him since childhood.

The Past Perfect Tense.

The formation of the Past Perfect Tense. The Past Perfect Tense is formed with the help of the Past Indefinite of the auxiliary verb “to have”(had) and Participle II of the notional verb. E.g.

Had + Participle II

Singular

1. I had worked.
2. You had worked.
3. He (she, it) had worked.

Plural

- We had worked.
- You had worked.
- They had worked.

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb “to have” (had) is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Had I worked?
2. Had you worked?
3. Had he (she, it) worked ?

Plural

- Had we worked?
- Had you worked?
- Had they worked?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I had not worked.
2. You had not worked.
3. He (she, it) had not worked.

Plural

- We had not worked.
- You had not worked.
- They had not worked.

The use of the Past Perfect:

1. The Past Perfect is used to denote an action completed before a certain moment in the past. The certain moment may be indicated by another past action or by time denoting words. E.g.

I had finished my work by 5 o'clock yesterday. (or by the time you came).
When Montanelli awoke the next morning, Arthur had disappeared.

2. The Past Perfect is also used to denote an action which began before a definite moment in the past, continued up to that moment and was still going on at that moment. This use is called Past Perfect Inclusive. The preposition “for” is used to show the whole period of the action, but the preposition “since” denotes the beginning of the action. .E.g.

They had not spoken to each other for three days.
He had not written a line since he arrived.

The Future Perfect Tense

The formation of the Future Perfect.

The Future Perfect is formed by means of the Future Indefinite of the auxiliary verb “to have” and Participle II of the notional verb. E.g.

Shall / will have + Participle II

Singular

1. I shall have worked.
2. You will have worked.
3. He (she, it) will have worked.

Plural

- We shall have worked.
You will have worked.
They will have worked.

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject of the sentence.

Singular

1. Shall I have worked?
2. Will you have worked?
3. Will he (she, it) have worked?

Plural

- Shall we have worked?
Will you have worked?
Will they have worked?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I shall not have worked.
2. You will not have worked.
3. He (she, it) will not have worked.

Plural

- We shall not have worked.
You shall not have worked.
They will not have worked.

Contracted forms:

I'll have worked. He'll have worked. I shan't have worked.
He won't have worked.

The use of the Future Perfect:

1. The Future Perfect is used to denote an action completed before a definite moment in the future. E.g.

I shall have written the letter by the time you come back.

He'll have finished his work by 5 o'clock.

2. The Future Perfect is also used to denote an action which will begin before a definite moment in the future, will go on up to that moment and will still be going on at that moment. E.g.

I shall have been a teacher for 20 years by next May.

The Future Perfect in the Past

The formation of the Future Perfect in the Past: The Future Perfect in the Past is formed by means of the Future Indefinite in the Past of the auxiliary verb “to have” (should,would) and Participle II of the notional verb. E.g.

Should/would+Participle II

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I should have worked. | We should have worked. |
| 2. You would have worked. | You would have worked. |
| 3. He (she, it) would have worked. | They would have worked. |

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb “should/would” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Should I have worked? | Should we have worked? |
| 2. Would you have worked? | Would you have worked? |
| 3. Would he (she, it) have worked? | Would they have worked? |

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------|
| 1. I should not have worked. | We should not have worked. |
| 2. You would not have worked. | You would not have worked. |
| 3. He (she, it) would not have worked. | They would not have worked. |

The use of the Future Perfect in the Past:

The Future Perfect in the Past is used to denote an action completed before a definite moment which was future from the point of view of the past. E.g.

We should have come to the place by five o'clock yesterday.

The Present Perfect Continuous

The formation of the Present Perfect Continuous: The Present Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the Present Perfect of the auxiliary verb “to be” (have been) and Participle I of the notional verb.

To have been + Participle I

| | | |
|------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| E.g. | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | I have been working. | We have been working. |
| 2. | You have been working. | You have been working. |
| 3. | He (she, it) has been working. | They have been working. |

In the

interrogative form the first auxiliary verb (have) is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

| | | |
|----|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | Have I been working? | Have we been working? |
| 2. | Have you been working? | Have you been working? |
| 3. | Has he (she, it) been working? | Have they been working? |

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

| | | |
|----|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. | I have not been working. | We have not been working. |
| 2. | You have not been working. | You have not been working. |
| 3. | He (she, it) has not been working. | They have not been working. |

The

contracted forms:

I've been working. You've been working.
 He's been working. He hasn't been working.

The use of the Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The use of the Present Perfect Continuous is divided into two kinds:

- 1) Present Perfect Continuous Exclusive
- 2) Present Perfect Continuous Inclusive

Present Perfect Continuous Exclusive is used to denote an action which was recently in progress but is no longer going on at the present moment. E.g.

I have been getting letters from him.
 You look tired, have you been working very hard?

The Present Perfect Continuous Inclusive is used to denote an action which began in the past, has been going up to the present moment and is still going on. E.g.

He has been working at this factory for fifteen years.

I have been teaching at this school for 20 years.

The Past Perfect Continuous

The formation of the Past Perfect Continuous: The Past Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the Past Perfect of the auxiliary verb “to be” (had been) and Participle I of the notional verb. E.g.

| |
|-------------------------|
| Had been + Participle I |
|-------------------------|

Singular

1. I had been reading.
2. You had been reading.
3. He (she, it) had been reading.

Plural

- We had been reading.
- You had been reading.
- They had been reading.

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb “had” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

1. Had I been reading?
2. Had you been reading?
3. Had he (she, it) been reading?

Plural

- Had we been reading?
- Had you been reading?
- Had they been reading?

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

1. I had not been reading.
2. You had not been reading.
3. He (she, it) had not been reading.

Plural

- We had not been reading.
- You had not been reading.
- They had not been reading.

Contracted form:

I'd been reading. I hadn't been reading.
She'd been reading. We hadn't been reading.

The use of the Past Perfect Continuous:

We distinguish two uses of Past Perfect Continuous: Past Perfect Continuous Inclusive and Past Perfect Continuous Exclusive.

1). The Past Perfect Continuous Inclusive denotes an action which began before a definite moment in the Past, continued up to that moment and was still going at that moment. The preposition “for” is used to denote whole period of the action and “since” is used to show the starting point of the action. E.g.

It had been raining for two hours already, and we could not go out.

We could not go out because it had been raining since morning. (It was still raining)

2). The Past Perfect Continuous Exclusive denotes an action which began before a given moment in the past, continued up to that moment and was no longer going on at a definite moment in the past. E.g.

I had been looking for you for an hour when we met.

The Future Perfect Continuous

The formation of the Future Perfect Continuous: The Future Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the Future Perfect of the auxiliary verb “to be” (shall/will have been) and Participle I of the notional verb. E.g.

Shall/ will have been + Participle I

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been working. | We shall have been working. |
| 2. You will have been working. | You will have been working |
| 3. He (she, it) will have be working. | They will have been working. |

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb (shall/will) is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| 1. Shall I have been working? | Shall we have been working? |
| 2. Will you have been working? | Will you have been working? |
| 3. Will he (she, it) have been working? | Will they have been working? |

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the first auxiliary verb. E.g.

Singular

Plural

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. I shall not have been working. | We shall not have been working. |
| 2. You will not have been working. | You will not have been working |
| 3. He (she, it) will not have been working. | They will not have been working. |

The use of the Future Perfect Continuous:

The Future Perfect Continuous is used to denote an action which will begin before a definite moment in the future, will continue up to that moment and will be going on at that moment. E.g. I shall have been working here for a month when you return back.

THE PASSIVE VOICE

The formation: The passive voice of the verb is formed by means of the auxiliary verb “to be” and Participle II of the notional verb.

To be + Participle II

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| E.g. <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. I am invited. | We are invited. |
| 2. You are invited. | You are invited. |
| 3. He (she) is invited. | They are invited. |

In the interrogative form the verb “to be” is placed before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. Am I invited? | Are we invited? |
| 2. Are you invited? | Are you invited? |
| 3. Is he (she) invited? | Are they invited? |

In the negative form the negative particle “not” is placed after the verb “to be”. E.g.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
| 1. I am not invited. | We are not invited. |
| 2. You are not invited. | You are not invited. |
| 3. He (she) is not invited. | They are not invited. |

The category of voice in English

There are two voices in English:

The active voice and the passive voice

The active voice shows that the action is performed by the subject, and subject is the doer of the action.

In the passive voice the subject of the sentence is the receiver of the action, the action is performed by somebody else:

| Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|---|---|
| 1.The Present Indefinite | 1.The Present Indefinite |
| The students ask questions . Aman writes a letter. | The students are asked questions. The letter is written by Aman. |

| | |
|---|--|
| 2.The Past Indefinite | 2.The Past Indefinite |
| The students asked questions. Aman wrote a letter. | The students were asked questions. The letter was written by Aman. |
| 3.The Future Indefinite | 3.The Future Indefinite |
| The students will ask questions. Aman will write a letter. | The students will be asked questions. The letter will be written by Aman. |
| 4.The Present Perfect | 4.The Present Perfect |
| The students have asked questions. Aman has written a letter. | The students have been asked questions. The letter has been written by Aman. |
| 5.The Past Perfect | 5.The Past Perfect |
| The students had asked questions. Aman had written a letter. | The students had been asked questions. The letter had been written by Aman. |
| 6.The Future Perfect | 6.The Future Perfect |
| The students will have asked questions. Aman will have written a letter. | The students will have been asked questions. The letter will have been written by Aman. |
| 7.The Present Continuous | 7.The Present Continuous |
| The students are asking questions. Aman is writing a letter | The students are being asked questions. The letter is being written by Aman |
| 8.The Past Continuous | 8.The Past Continuous |
| The students were asking questions Aman was writing a letter | The students were being asked questions The letter was being written by Aman |
| 9.The Future Continuous | 9.The Future Continuous |
| The students will be asking questions. Aman will be writing a letter. | The students will be being asked questions. The letter will be being written by Aman. |

Modal Verbs in English

In Modern English there are ten modal verbs. They are: *can (could), may (might), must, should, ought to, shall, will, would, need and dare*. These verbs are called defective verbs. They are defective, because they don't have some morphological forms. Modal verbs do not have the Future Tense forms, they can not form the Participle and Gerund forms. Besides, they do not take "s" in the third person singular.

Modal verbs have some specific peculiarities in their use:

1).Modal verbs are always used together with the infinitive without the particle "to" (except ought). E.g.

Can speak, may go, must stay, (but ought to speak).

2).Modal verbs function in the sentence like auxiliary verbs. They can form the interrogative and negative forms of the sentence. E.g.

Can you help me?

Must I stay here?

3).Modal verbs express different modal meanings, such as possibility, permission and obligation,necessity etc.

The modal verb “can”

The modal verb “can” has two tense forms:

“Can” for the Present Tense and “could” for the Past Tense. The expression “to be able to” is used in the same meaning with “can”.

The modal verb “can” has the following modal meanings: *ability, capability, possibility, doubt* and *astonishment*.

1 The modal verb. “can” expresses physical or mental ability. In this meaning it is used with the indefinite infinitive. E.g.

He can speak English well.

I can ride a bicycle.

2 The modal verb “can” expresses “possibility”. In this meaning the verb “can” is used only with the indefinite infinitive. E.g.

Now you can go home. (It is possible for you to go home now.)

You can come at any time.

3. The modal verb “can” has its equivalent “to be able to” which has the same meaning with the modal verb “can”. E.g.

I can’t help you , soon I shall be able to help you.

4.The modal verb “can” expresses “doubt” or “astonishment” In this meaning “can” is usually used in the negative or interrogative sentences. E.g.

She cannot be waiting for us.

Could she have said this?

The modal verb “may”

The modal verb “may” has two tense forms: “may” for the Present and “might” for the Past Tense.

The modal verb “may” has the following modal meanings: *permission, uncertainty, possibility* and *reproach*.

1. The verb “may” expresses “permission”. In this meaning it is used only with the indefinite infinitive. E.g.

You may go home. May I come in?

2. The modal verb “may” expresses “uncertainty or possibility”. “May” denoting uncertainty is used with all forms of the Infinitive. E.g.

She may be waiting there for us.

He may come yet, let’s wait a little.

3. The modal verb “may” expresses reproach. In this meaning only the past form “might” is used. E.g.

You might come earlier. (Siz irräk gelseñiz boljak)

You might tell me about it then. (Siz bu barada şol wagt aýtsañyz boljak ekeni.

The modal verb “must”

The verb “must” has only one form. The expressions “to have to, “to be obliged to” are used to change the modal verb “must”. These expressions have the same meanings with the verb “must”.

The modal verb “must” has such modal meaning as “*obligation*”, *necessity*, *command*, *prohibition* and *supposition*.

1. The modal verb “must” expresses **obligation** and **necessity**. The absence of necessity is expressed by “need not”. E.g.

Must I go there tomorrow? – No, you need not (needn’t).

2. The modal verb “must” expresses a command, request or prohibition. E.g. You must leave the room at once! (Command)

We must go to see him every day (request).

You must not see him again (prohibition).

3. The modal verb “must” expresses probability or supposition. In this meaning “must” is used with all forms of the infinitive. E.g:

He must be ill otherwise he would have come already.

Ol kesselländir, bolmasa ol eÿyam gelderdi.

There is no light in the room. He must have gone to the shop.

Öÿde çyra ÿanmaÿar. Megerem, ol dükana gidendir.

4. The modal expression “to have + Infinitive” also expresses “obligation or necessity” arising out of circumstances. Its meaning is very

close to the meaning of the expression “to be obliged to”. In Turkmen their meaning is expressed by “-maly/meli bolmak”. E.g.

You will have to wait a little, as I haven't finished my work yet.

Siz azajyk garaşmaly bolarsyňyz, sebäbi entek men işimi gutarmadym.

5. The expression “to be +Infinitive” also expresses obligation or necessity. But it differs from the expression “to have + Infinitive”. The expression “to have to” is used to express necessity arising out of circumstances while “to be to” expresses necessity as a part of an arrangement. Compare the differences:

As it was late at night I had to wait for the bus for a long time yesterday.

Giç agşam bolany üçin düýn men awtobusa köp garaşmaly boldym.

We are to meet at 5 o'clock at the station.

Biz sagat başde wozzalda duşmaly (oňden planlaşdyryşymyz boýunça)

The modal verbs “ought to, should”

The modal verb “ought to” and “should” are very close to each other in their meanings. The only difference is in their morphological form. The verb “ought” is always followed by the infinitive with the particle “to” while “should” is used with the Infinitive without “to”. E.g.

You ought to buy that coat.

You should buy that coat.

(Siz şol paltony satyn almalydyňyz.)

The verb “ought” and “should” distinguish such modal meanings as “obligation”, “necessity” and “advice”. The modal verb “should” can also express “supposition” “surprise” and “disappointment”. E.g.

You ought to be at home before dark.

Sen garanky düşmäkä öýde bolmaly.

You ought to go to the seaside every summer.

Her tomusda siz deňiziň kenaryna gitmeli.

The weather should be fine tomorrow.

Megerem howa ertir gowy bolar.

He shouldn't have said so.

Onuň şeýle diýmegi mümkin däl.

The modal verbs “shall, will and would”

The modal verbs “shall/will” are not purely modal verbs. They combine the modal meanings with auxiliary verbs.

1) The verb “shall” has such modal meanings as **compulsion** or **order**, **threat** or **warning** and **promise**. E.g.

You shall do nothing like that. (Compulsion)

You shall never see me again. (Warning)

You shall do what you like. (Promise)

2) The verb “will” is used with all the persons but mostly with the first person. As a modal verb it expresses **volition**, **intention** or **persistence**.

E.g. I will not answer her letter. (Intention)

I tried several times, but it will not open. (Persistence)

3) The verb “would” is the past tense form of “will”. It also expresses “volition” and persistence”. E.g.

She was going away and would not say where she was going. (Volition)

I asked her not to cry, but she would not listen. (Persistence)

The modal verbs “need” and “dare”

The modal verb “need” expresses “necessity”. It is mostly used in negative and interrogative sentences. E.g.

You needn't worry about it.

The verb “need” is often used as a normal verb. E.g.

He needs a book. We need some help.

The modal verb “dare” has the meaning “to have courage to do something” (in Turkmen “milt edip bilmek”). E.g.

You dare address me like that!

How dare you ask such a question?

(Nädip şeýle sorag soramaga milt edip bildiňiz?)

The verb “dare” can also be used as a normal verb. As normal verb it forms its interrogative and negative forms with auxiliary verb “do”. E.g.

Did he dare to strike you? He did not dare to meet me.

The Category of Mood in English

In modern English there are three moods:

1. The Indicative Mood.
2. The Imperative Mood.
3. The Subjunctive Mood.

1. The Indicative Mood of the Verb

The Indicative Mood shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a real fact. All the tense forms in the Present, Past and Future tenses are in the indicative mood. Eg.

She lives in Ashgabat.

I was going home when you met me.

Altyn has just graduated from the Institute.

2. The Imperative Mood of the verb

The Imperative Mood is formed from the Infinitive without the particle “to”. E.g.

| <u>Infinitive</u> | <u>Imperative mood</u> |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| To come home (Öýe gelmek) | Come home!(Öýe gel!) |
| To go home (Öýe gitmek) | Go home!(Öýe git!) |

The negative form of the Imperative Mood is formed with the help of the auxiliary verb “do” with particle “not”. E.g.

Don't be angry!

Don't make a noise!

In order to make the request or order more emphatic the auxiliary verb “do” or the subject “you” is used. Eg.

Do sing again to us.

You sleep a while.

The Imperative Mood with the verb”Let”

A command addressed to the third person singular and plural is expressed with the help of the verb “Let”. The verb “Let” is always used together with the Infinitive without the particle “to”. In Turkmen it has the meaning “geliň”, “rugsat edin”. E.g.

Let's go home. (Geling öýe gideliň)

Let me help you. (Size kömek etmege rugsat ediň)

The verb “Let” is usually combined with the noun in the common case or with the pronoun in the objective case. E.g.

Let the children play a little.

Let us wait a little.

Let him help you.

3. The Subjunctive Mood of the verb

The Subjunctive Mood is used to express an unreal action or it expresses an action as something imaginary or desired.

In modern English there are two forms of the subjunctive mood:

- 1) The synthetic subjunctive mood.
- 2) The analytical subjunctive mood.

We must be able to distinguish the synthetic form of the subjunctive mood from the analytical subjunctive. The synthetic subjunctive mood is formed without auxiliary verb. (e.g. Be it so, If I were at home...), the analytical subjunctive mood is always formed with help of mood auxiliaries (e.g. He would do, I should go ... etc.)

I. The Synthetic Subjunctive Mood

Synthetic Subjunctive has two forms:

- 1) The Present Subjunctive.
- 2) The Past Subjunctive.

The Present Subjunctive mood

The Present Subjunctive is formed from the Infinitive without the particle "to". The same form of the verb is used for all persons.

| Persons | To be | To ask | To go | To say |
|----------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| I | be | ask | go | say |
| You | be | ask | go | say |
| He (she) | be | ask | go | say |
| We | be | ask | go | say |
| You | be | ask | go | say |
| They | be | ask | go | say |

e.g. Be it so! Goŷ ol ŷeŷle bolsun.

Long live friendship. Ŷaŷasyn dostluk.

Success attend you. Ŭstŷnlik hemraņyz bolsun.

Far be it from me. Ol menden bir uzagrakda bolsun.

Note. The present subjunctive mood is used very seldom in Modern English. It may be found in poetry, official documents and archaisms.

The Past Subjunctive Mood:

In the Past Subjunctive the verb “to be” has the form “were” for all persons singular and plural. The Past Subjunctive of the verbs coincides with the Indicative form of the verb. E.g.

| Persons | To be | To ask | To go | To say |
|----------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| I | were | asked | went | Said |
| You | were | asked | went | said |
| He (she) | were | asked | went | said |
| We | were | asked | went | said |
| You | were | asked | went | said |
| They | were | asked | went | said |

The form of the Past Subjunctive coincides with the Past Indefinite, but it expresses an action belonging to the present or to the future. E.g.

I wish I were at home. (Men häzir öyde bolsamdym)

I wish we went there tomorrow. (Biz ol yerik ertir gitsekdik.)

The form of the Past Subjunctive may coincide with the Past Perfect. The form of the Past Subjunctive with the Past Perfect is used to express a past action. E.g.

If I had been at home yesterday...

Eger men düyn öyde bolan bolsadym...

II) The analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood

The analytical form of the Subjunctive mood is formed with the help of mood auxiliaries “should”, “would”, “may”, “might” and the infinitive without the particle “to”

| Persons | To be | To go | To ask |
|----------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| I | Should be | Should go | Should ask |
| You | Would be | Would go | Would ask |
| He (she) | Would be | Would go | Would ask |
| We | Would be | Would go | Would ask |
| You | Would be | Would go | Would ask |

| | | | |
|------|----------|----------|-----------|
| They | Would be | Would go | Would ask |
|------|----------|----------|-----------|

In Modern English the analytical subjunctive has two forms:

- 1). The Conditional Mood.
- 2). The Suppositional Mood.

The Conditional Mood

The Conditional Mood is formed with the help of the mood auxiliaries “should” or “would” and the Infinitive without the particle “to”. Should is used for the first person singular and plural (I should, we should) and would for all other persons singular and plural (you, he, she, they would).

The Conditional Mood is mostly used in conditional sentences to express an unreal condition. The conditional mood is mainly used in the principal clause of the complex sentence. E.g.

If he were here he would help us.
I should see her if she came soon.

The Suppositional Mood

Suppositional Mood is formed with the help of the mood auxiliary should and the infinitive without the particle “to”. The auxiliary “should” is used for all persons singular and plural. E.g.

| <u>Singular</u> | <u>Plural</u> |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I should go. | We should go |
| 2. You should go. | You should go. |
| 3. He (she) should go. | They should go. |

Suppositional Mood is used to denote an action as problematic, but not contradicting to reality. E.g.

Should you meet him tomorrow, tell him about it.

Bardy – geldi sen oña ertir düşaysañ, bu barada oña aýt.

Note: We must distinguish the analytical subjunctive mood from modal phrases. In the analytical subjunctive mood the verbs “should” and “would” are mood auxiliary verbs. But in modal phrases the verbs “should” and “would” are modal verbs, they are not auxiliaries. E.g.

If I were in your place I should go there now. (“Should go” is analytical subjunctive mood.)

You should consult a doctor. (“Should” a modal verb).

Tense forms of the Oblique Moods

There are two tenses of the Oblique Moods: the present tense and the past tense.

The present tense oblique mood expresses a simultaneous action belonging to the present, past or future.

a) In the present

You look as if you were ill.

It is strange that he *should think* so.

b) In the past

You looked as if you were ill.

It was strange that he *should think* so.

c) In the future

You will look as if you were ill.

It will be strange that he *should think* so.

The past tense oblique mood expresses a prior action. The past tense of the oblique moods is expressed by the past perfect (in synthetic moods) and by the perfect infinitive (in the analytical moods). E.g.

You look as if you had been ill.

It is strange that he *should have thought* so.

The use of the subjunctive moods

1) The use of the subjunctive mood in simple sentences:

In simple sentences Subjunctive I and Subjunctive II are mainly used. E.g.

Long live peace! (Subjunctive I)

Success attend you! (Subjunctive I)

If he were free! (Subjunctive II)

Oh, those storms were over! (Subjunctive II)

In simple sentences the conditional mood is also used. E.g.

I shouldn't worry now in your place.

But for the bees we should have no honey.

2) The use of the Subjunctive Mood in complex sentences:

a) In subject clauses introduced by the anticipatory “it” (it is necessary, it is important, it is strange etc.) we find the suppositional mood with mood auxiliary “should”. E.g.

It is (was) necessary
It is (was) important
It is (was) obligatory } that he should come.

b) In object clauses we find different forms of the subjunctive mood:

1). After the verb “wish” the past subjunctive is widely used. The verb “wish” is used in the main clause, the past subjunctive in the subordinate clause. E.g.

I wish I were free to day.

I wish I hadn't done it.

2). The Subjunctive Mood is used in object clauses introduced by the conjunction “lest”. In the principal clause we find the verbs denoting fear: tremble, fear, be afraid, dread etc.. in the subordinate clause the suppositional mood with the mood auxiliary “should” for all persons is used. E.g.

He feared lest he should be blamed.

He trembled lest his secret should be discovered.

3) The Subjunctive Mood is used in object clauses after the principle clause expressed by the words of order, suggest, demand, desire, insist etc. in the subordinate clause the suppositional mood with the auxiliary “should” for all persons is used. E.g.

He ordered
He suggested
He demanded
He insisted } that everything should be ready

3. Subjunctive Mood in adverbial clauses of condition.

In conditional sentences we find the use of the past subjunctive and the conditional mood. Past subjunctive is used in the subordinate clause after the conjunction “if” and in the principle clause we use the conditional mood with mood auxiliaries “should” or “would”. E.g

I should have a walking holiday if I were young.

If you were more attentive you would find the answer.

4. Subjunctive Mood in the adverbial clauses of purpose, adverbial clauses of time and place. In these adverbial clauses the subjunctive mood with “may” or “might” is used.

E.g. She opened the window so that she might get fresh air (adverbial clause of purpose)

Whenever you might come you are welcome. (Adverbial clause of time)

Wherever he might sit she would see him. (Adverbial clause of place)

5. Subjunctive mood in adverbial clauses of comparison. In these sentences the Past subjunctive mood is usually used. E.g.

She speaks about him as if she knew him well.

6. Subjunctive mood in predicative clauses. In predicative clauses the past subjunctive mood is always used after the conjunction “as if” or “as though”.

E.g.

I feel as if I were with her.

He looked as if he knew everything.

7. Subjunctive mood in attributive clauses. In attributive clauses the past subjunctive is usually used after the principal clause “it is time”, “it is high time”. E.g.

It is time we went home.

It is high time you learned the grammar rule.

THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB: (THE VERBALS).

In Modern English the verb has Finite and Non-finite forms. The verbs used in all tense forms expressing person, number, tense are finite forms of the verb (He reads. She spoke. They will have finished, etc.). The non-finite verb forms do not express person, number, and mood and cannot be used as the predicate of the sentence. They are also called verbals.

In Modern English there are three verbals: the Participle, the Gerund, and the Infinitive.

In Turkmen we also have three non-finite forms of the verb, but they do not fully coincide with those in the English language (Işligiň nämälim formasy, ortak işlik, hal işlik).

The characteristic features of the verbals:

1). The verbals have double nature: nominal and verbal. The Participle has the characteristics of the verb and the adjective, the gerund and the infinitive combine the characteristics of the verb with the noun.

2). The tense distinctions of the verbals are not absolute, but relative, because they cannot denote tense directly. They denote tense with the help of the finite verb in the sentence.

3). All the verbals can form predicative constructions in which the verbal stands in predicate relation with the noun or pronoun. (E.g. The door being open I entered the room.)

THE INFINITIVE

The Infinitive has developed from the verbal noun. In the course of time it became verbalized. But still it has some nominal properties. In Modern English the Infinitive has verbal and nominal properties.

The nominal character of the Infinitive is found in its syntactic functions. Like nouns the infinitive can be used in the functions of the subject, object and predicative. E.g.

To go on like this is difficult (subject).

We learned to read and write (object).

My aim is to study (predicative).

The verbal characteristics of the infinitive:

a) Like verbs the Infinitive has tense, aspect and voice distinctions.

| | Active voice | Passive voice |
|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Indefinite | To write | To be written |
| Continuous | To be writing | To be being written |
| Perfect | To have written | To have been |
| Perfect continuous | To have been writing | written _____ |

b) Like verbs the Infinitive can be modified by an adverb. E.g.

I can speak quickly.

c) Like verbs the Infinitive can take a direct object. E.g.

He began to read the book.

The Use of the Infinitive without the Particle “to” (Bare infinitive)

In Modern English the Infinitive is mainly used with the particle “to”. There are also cases when the Infinitive is used without the particle “to”. The Infinitive is used without the particle “to” in the following cases:

1) After auxiliary verbs.

You will stay here.

I do not know him.

2) After the modal verbs except (ought).

You must know this rule.

He can stay here.

3) After the verb “let”.

Let's go home.

Let him take your pen.

4) After the verbs of perception (see, hear, feel etc).

I saw him go home.

Did you hear him sing?

Note: In the passive voice of verbs of perception the infinitive is used with the particle “to”. E.g.

He was seen to go home.

5) After the expressions “had better” “would rather” “would sooner” “nothing but” “cannot but” etc.

I had better go alone.

I cannot but think so.

6) In sentences of special type beginning with “why” the Infinitive is used without the particle “to”. The sentence is called infinitive sentences.

E.g.

Why not go and talk with him? (Näme için gidip onuñ bilen gürleşmeli däl?).

7) After the verbs “to watch, to make, to bid, to notice, to observe” the infinitive is used without the particle “to”. E.g.

I watched the children play.

Andrew observed her hurry off.

Tense distinctions of the Infinitive

The infinitive does not show by its form exact tense directly, but it denotes tense (past, present, future). That is why we say that tense

distinctions of the infinitive are not direct but relative. It means that its tense distinctions depend on the finite verb in the sentence. When the predicate-verb denotes the present action the infinitive also denotes a present action and when the predicate denotes past tense, the infinitive also denotes the past tense and so on. E.g.

I am glad to meet you (Present tense)

I was glad to meet you (Past tense)

I shall be glad to meet you (Future tense)

As seen from the examples the same form of the infinitive (to meet) expresses relative present, past, future tenses.

1) The use of the Indefinite Infinitive:

The Indefinite Infinitive expresses an action simultaneous with the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

She learns to write correctly. (The process of writing takes place at the same time with learning.)

2) The use of the Continuous Infinitive:

The Continuous Infinitive (to be +P1) also denotes a simultaneous action with the action of the predicate verb, but it is an action in progress. E.g.

He seemed to be reading a newspaper.

3) The use of the Perfect infinitive:

The Perfect Infinitive denotes an action prior to the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

I am glad to have seen you.

4) The use of the Perfect Continuous Infinitive:

The Perfect Continuous Infinitive denotes an action which lasted some time before the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

They seemed to have been working since morning.

Olar ertirden bəri işləp oturan yaly görünyardiler.

Infinitive Constructions:

The Infinitive can form predicative Infinitive Constructions. In Modern English we find the following Predicative Infinitive Constructions:

- 1) Subjective Infinitive Constructions
- 2) Objective Infinitive Constructions
- 3) For-to Infinitive Constructions

1) Subjective Infinitive Constructions:

The Subjective Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the Infinitive is in predicate relation with the noun in the common case or with the pronoun in the nominative case. E.g.

He is sure to come.

They seemed to have forgotten of it.

Subjective Infinitive Constructions are used with the following groups of verbs in the Passive Voice:

- a) With the verbs of sense perception: to see, to hear, to feel, etc. E.g.

He was seen to talk with him.

She was heard to laugh loudly.

- b) With the verbs “to make” “to say” etc

.E.g.

The child was made to jump.

He is said to be a clever man.

- c) With the word groups “to be sure”, “to be certain” “to be likely”. E.g.

But she is sure to marry him.

He is likely to come soon.

- d) With the verbs “to seem, to turn out, to happen, to appear, to prove” etc.

E.g.

He seems to be a good man.

She appeared to be fit to him.

- e) With the verbs denoting mental activity: to think, to consider, to know, to expect, to suppose, to believe. E.g.

He was thought to be honest and kindly.

2) Objective Infinitive Constructions:

The Objective Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation with the noun in the common case or the pronoun in the objective case. E.g.

I did not see him enter the room.

Everybody expected her to marry Pete.

a) Objective Infinitive Constructions are used after the verbs denoting sense perception, such as to hear, to see, to watch, to feel, to notice etc. E.g.

I heard some man call me.

b) After the verbs denoting mental activity, such as to know, to think, to consider, to suppose, to expect, to imagine, to find etc. E.g.

I know you to be a good man.

c) After the verbs denoting wish and intention, such as to want, to wish, to desire, to mean, to intend, to choose etc. E.g.

I want you to come every day.

d) After the verbs denoting feeling and emotion: to like, to dislike, to love, to hate, cannot bear etc. E.g.

I dislike you to talk like that.

e) After the verb denoting order and permission: to order, to allow, to suffer, to have etc. E.g.

The officer ordered the soldiers to be ready.

f) After the verbs denoting compulsion: to make, to cause, to get, to rely on (up on). E.g.

The teacher made the student repeat the sentence.

I rely on you to come in time.

3) For- to- Infinitive Constructions:

For-to-Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun or pronoun preceded by the preposition “for”. Such constructions can be used in the sentence as a subject, a predicative, a complex object, an attribute and adverbial modifier. E.g.

It is a shame for you to spend so much money.

She waited for him to speak.

He stepped aside for me to pass.

THE PARTICIPLE

The Participle is a non-finite form of the verb which has a verbal and adjectival or an adverbial character.

The Participle is divided into Participle I and Participle II (also called Present Participle and Past Participle)

In the Modern English Participle I has the following forms:

| | Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Indefinite | Writing | Being written |
| Perfect | Having written | Having been written |

Participle I is formed by adding the ending “ing” to the stem of the verb.
E.g.

Ask — asking speak — speaking
Go — going run — running

Note: the following changes take place in spelling rules: give— giving, forget- forgetting, travel-travelling, die-dying, comply-complying and deny-denying.

Participle I Indefinite active and passive usually denotes an action simultaneous with the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

While going home I met my friend. (Past tense)

While going home I usually meet my friend. (Present tense)

Participle I Perfect active and passive denotes an action prior to the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

Having finished my work I went home.

Syntactic functions of Participle I in the sentence.

Participle I is used in the following syntactic functions in the sentence:

1) The Participle I is used as an attribute, as an adverbial modifier and as a predicative. E.g.

The boy helping you is my brother. (Attribute)

Being busy I couldn't meet you. (Adv. Modifier)

The effect of his words was terrifying. (Predicative)

2) Participle I is also used as a part of a complex object and a part of a compound verbal predicate. E.g.

I saw them standing there.

They were seen crossing the street.

Note: Participle I is widely used to form the Continuous forms, present, past and future continuous (She is reading, He was speaking, They will be working). In these tense forms Participle I fulfils the syntactic function of a part of the simple predicate.

Syntactic functions of Participle II.

Participle II is used in the following syntactic functions in the sentence:

- 1) Participle II as an attribute E.g.
He looked through the locked door.
- 2) Participle II as an adverbial modifier.
 - a) Adverbial modifier of time. E.g.
When asked you must answer.
 - b) Adverbial modifier of condition, comparison, concession. E.g.
You may answer their question if asked.
It looks like written in pencil.
We'll have to go though tired.
- a) Participle II as a predicative. E.g.
The door of the room seemed locked.
- b) Participle II as a part of complex object. E.g.
I have found her changed.

Predicative Constructions with the Participle:

- 1) The Objective Participial Constructions.
I heard her singing this song.
He saw his friend coming.
She couldn't have her hair waved.
I had my coat altered.
- 2) The Subjective Participial Construction.
They were heard talking together.
The horse was seen descending the hill.
- 3) Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.
The door and window of the room being open, we looked in.
His duty completed, he went home.
- 4) The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.
They stood still, with their eyes fixed on him.
He went down the hill, with all these dogs following him.

THE GERUND

Gerund developed from the verbal noun with the ending “ing” and in the course of time became verbalized, but still it has some nominal features.

Like nouns gerund can be used in the sentence as subject, object and predicative. E.g.

Dancing has not begun yet.

He likes reading books.

Gerund has some other characteristics of nouns, as for example, gerund can be used with prepositions (for reading, of speaking), it can be modified by possessive pronouns and by nouns in the possessive case (my understanding, his reading, Jenet’s speaking).

In Modern English gerund has the following morphological forms:

| | Active Voice | Passive Voice |
|------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Indefinite | Writing | Being written |
| Perfect | Having written | Having been written |

In Turkmen there is no gerund and the English gerund is translated into Turkmen in different ways:

1) By a noun. E.g.

This hall is for dancing. (Bu zal tans için.)

2) By a verb. e.g.

He likes swimming. (Ol ýüzmegi gowy görýär.)

3) By a verbal adverb. E.g.

The train began moving. (Otly ýöräp başlady)

Tense distinctions of the Gerund.

1) The indefinite gerund active and passive denotes an action simultaneous with the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

She walked on without turning his head.

2) The perfect gerund denotes an action prior to the action of the predicate verb. E.g.

He objects having spoken with him.

The use of the gerund:

In Modern English the gerund is widely used after the verbs and verbal phrases, such as, to avoid, to burst out, to deny, to enjoy, to excuse, to

fancy, to finish, to forgive, to give up, to go on, to keep on, to postpone, to put off, cannot help and others. E.g.

They all burst out laughing.

She gave up singing.

Do you mind my asking a question?

Gerund is also often used after such verbs and verbal phrases with prepositions: to accuse of, to agree to, to approve of, to complain of, to depend on, to feel like, to insist on, to look like, to object to, to persist in, to prevent from, to rely on, to speak of, to succeed in, to suspect of, to thank for, to think of, to give up, to look forward to, not to like the idea of, to miss an opportunity of and others.

E.g.

It looks like raining.

I object to his going there now.

We think of discussing this problem.

The Gerund and the Verbal Noun:

Gerund and Verbal Nouns have the same suffix-ing, but they are different in their use. We find the following differences between Gerund and Verbal Nouns:

| <u>The Gerund</u> | <u>The Verbal Noun</u> |
|--|---|
| 1) Gerund has verbal and nominal characters. | 1) Verbal Noun has only nominal characters. |
| 2) Gerund is not used with articles. | 2) Verbal Noun may be used with articles (<u>the reading</u> of the book) |
| 3) Gerund has no plural form | 3) Verbal Noun may be used in the plural (<u>our likings</u>). |
| 4) Gerund can take a direct object. (Give up <u>reading the book</u>) | 4) Verbal Noun cannot take a direct object, it takes a prepositional object (<u>the reading</u> of the book) |
| 5) Gerund may be modified by an adverb (Speaking <u>correctly</u>) | 5) Verbal Noun may be modified by an adjective (a <u>good</u> reading). |

THE ADVERB

The Adverb is a part of speech which expresses characteristic features of an action or a quality.

According to their structure adverbs are divided into:

- 1) Simple adverbs (long, enough, then, there etc.)

- 2) Derivative adverbs (slowly, likewise, forward).
- 3) Compound adverbs (anyhow, sometimes, nowhere).
- 4) Composite adverbs (at once, at least etc).

Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs:

Adverbs distinguish three degrees: the positive degree, the comparative degree and the superlative degree.

In the positive degree adverbs do not have any ending. The comparative and the superlative degrees of one syllable adverbs are formed with the help of the endings “er” (for comparative degree) and “est” (for the superlative degree). E.g.

| <u>Positive degree</u> | <u>Comparative degree</u> | <u>Superlative degree</u> |
|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Fast | faster | fastest |
| Hard | harder | hardest |

Adverbs ending in –ly form the comparative by means of more and the superlative by means of most.

| <u>Positive degree</u> | <u>Comparative degree</u> | <u>Superlative degree</u> |
|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Wisely | more wisely | most wisely |
| Beautifully | more beautifully | most beautifully |

Some adverbs have irregular forms of degrees of comparison:

| <u>Positive degree</u> | <u>Comparative degree</u> | <u>Superlative degree</u> |
|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Well | better | best |
| Badly | worse | worst |
| Much | more | most |
| Little | less | least |

According to their meaning adverbs fall under several groups:

- 1) adverbs of time (to-day, tomorrow, soon)
- 2) adverbs of repetition or frequency (often, seldom, ever, never, sometimes)
- 3) Adverbs of place and direction (inside, outside, here, there, backward, upstairs).
- 4) Adverbs of reason and consequence (therefore, consequently, accordingly).
- 5) Adverbs of manner (kindly, quickly, hard)

6) Adverbs of degree, measure and quantity (very, enough, half, too, nearly, almost, much, little, hardly, rather, exceedingly, quite, once, twice, firstly, secondly etc.)

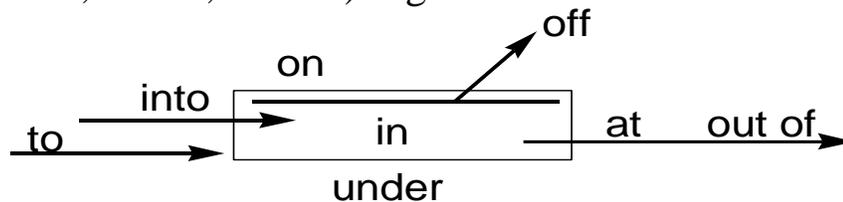
7) Interrogative adverbs (where, when, why, how) they are used in special questions.

THE PREPOSITION

The Preposition is a part speech denoting the relations between words in the sentence.

According to their meaning prepositions are divided into the following semantic groups:

1) Prepositions of *place* and *direction* (in, on, under, at, between, out of, into, of, to, above, below, far etc.) E.g/



2) Prepositions of *time* (after, at, before, in, on (on Monday), till, etc).

3) Prepositions *denoting relations* between words (of, by, with, about, for etc).

Some prepositions such as “after, before” are homonymous with adverbs and conjunctions. For instance, the preposition “after” is a homonym to adverb “after”. E.g.

After a moment she came in (preposition).

She came on Monday and went back three days after (adverb).

Some prepositions may belong to different classes of prepositions. It depends of the word it is used with. For instance, the preposition “in, at, on” etc. may denote place and also with the words of time they may belong to prepositions of time.

Compare their use:

We are in the room. (Place)

I'll come in an hour. (Time)

The book is on the table. (Place)

She returned on Monday. (Time)

A preposition may denote relations of different words in the sentence:

1) Relation of a noun to a noun (or pronoun).

The pages of the book

2) Relation of a noun to an adjective.

She is fond of flowers

3) Relation of a noun to a verb.

I rely on his promise.

4) Relation of a whole clause to another clause.

She moved across to where the fire was burning.

The Conjunction.

The conjunction is a part of speech which denotes the connections between words and sentences . According to their morphological structure conjunctions may be simple (and ,or, but, till ,after, so, where, when), derivative conjunctions (until, unless), compound conjunctions (however, whereas, wherever), composite conjunctions (as well as, in case, as long as, both...and, either...or, neither...nor etc).

According to their function in the sentence conjunctions are divided into:

1. Coordinating conjunctions

2. Subordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions join the coordinate clauses in a compound sentence. There are four different kinds of coordinating conjunctions:

1. Copulative coordinating conjunctions: and, nor, as well as, both...and , not only ...but, neither... nor. E.g.

The weather was good and the sky was clean. The room was not only clean but also it was light.

2. Disjunctive coordinating conjunctions: or, either... or, or else, else . E.g. Either she comes to us or we shall go to her.

3. Adversative coordinating conjunctions: so, for.

E.g. They did not finish the work in the garden, so we had to finish it.

Subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce subject clauses, object clauses, predicative clauses, adverbial clauses and attributive clauses. The subordinating conjunctions are “that , if, as if, which, as though, though, when, who etc. E.g.

What I mean is that he is not here. If he came in time, everything would be all right.

Modal Words.

Modal words are words expressing the attitude of the speaker to reality or they express probability or possibility. Modal words are divided into the following groups:

1. Modal words expressing certainty:
certainly, surely, of course, no doubt etc.
2. Modal words expressing supposition:
perhaps, maybe, possibly, probably.
3. Modal words expressing desirability or undesirability: happily, unhappily, luckily-unluckily, fortunately-unfortunately.

In the sentence modal words are usually used parenthetically, at the beginning of the sentence. E.g.

Certainly, you must do it.

Will you go? Of course, I shall.

The Interjection.

The interjection is a part of speech which expresses emotions of the speaker, such as surprise, anger, pleasure etc.

According to their meaning interjections are divided into two kinds:

- 1) Emotional interjections such as „oh, ah, alas, dear me etc. E.g.
Oh, you are already here.
Alas! The house was empty.
- 2). Imperative interjections, such as, here, well, now, hush etc. The speaker uses these interjections to attract the listener's attention.

Imperative interjections are usually elliptical sentences and in this case they lose their notional meaning and serve to express one's emotions or feelings.

E.g. Here!, Come!, Look!, Help!

The Particle

The Particle is a part of speech which gives emotional emphasis to other words in the sentence. The main function of the particle is to join one part of the sentence to another.

According to their meaning particles are divided into the following groups:

1. Limiting particles: only, just, but, alone, merely, barely etc.

The only wanted to see you.

2. Intensifying particles: simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, even etc.

We didn't even think of it.

3. Connecting particles: too, also.

He also took part in the competition.

4. Negative particles: not, never.

She was not afraid of it.

PART TWO SYNTAX

The Simple Sentence

The sentence is the smallest unit of speech which expresses a complete thought. The sentence has a definite grammatical structure and certain intonation.

Kinds of the simple sentences:

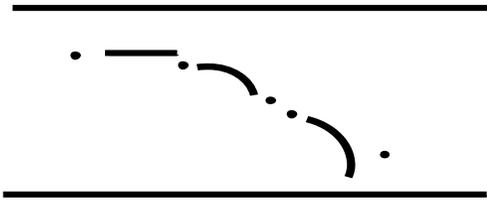
The simple sentence is divided into several kinds: the declarative sentence, the interrogative sentence, the imperative sentence and the exclamatory sentence.

According to their structure the simple sentence may be divided into two member sentences and one member sentences, extended and unextended sentences.

1) The declarative sentence:

A declarative sentence states a fact in the affirmative or negative forms. In a declarative sentence the subject stands before the predicate of the sentence. It is usually pronounced with a falling intonation. E.g.

I want a ticket for London.



2) The interrogative sentence:

In Modern English interrogative sentences are questions which are divided into four kinds:

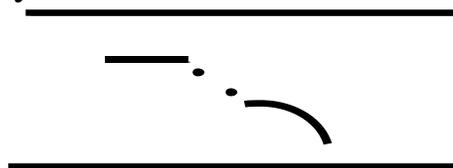
a) General questions. General questions require a short answer “Yes” or “No” and are pronounced with the rising intonation. They are formed by placing the auxiliary or modal verbs before the subject of the sentence. E.g.

Do you speak English? yes, I do
 Can you speak German? No, I can't.

b) Special questions.

Special questions begin with the interrogative word (who, what, which, when, where etc.) and are pronounced with the falling intonation. They require a full answer. E.g.

Where do you live?
 I live in Mary.



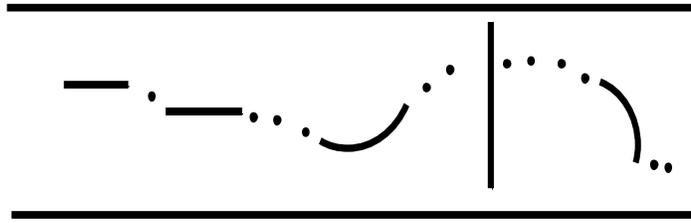
When the interrogative word is the subject of the sentence or an attribute to it, the order of the words in special questions is direct. E.g.

Who lives in this room?
 Whose book is on the table?

c) Alternative questions.

Alternative questions indicate a choice and have the rising intonation in the first part and a falling intonation in the second part. E.g.

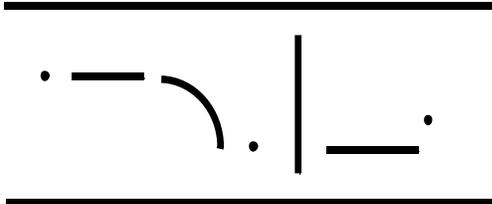
Do you study at the Institute or at the University?
 I study at the Institute.



d) Disjunctive questions.

Disjunctive questions consist of two parts. The first part is a declarative sentence and the second part is a short question. These two parts are divided by a comma. The first part is pronounced with the falling intonation and the second part with a rising tone. E.g.

You speak English, don't you?



Notes on the use:

a) In the use of disjunctive questions we have the general rule. If the first part is in the affirmative form, the second question part is in the negative form and on the contrary, if the first part is in the negative, the second part is in the affirmative form. If it is necessary any form is possible.

E.g. He is a student, isn't he?
 He is not a student, is he?
 It is hot today. Is it?

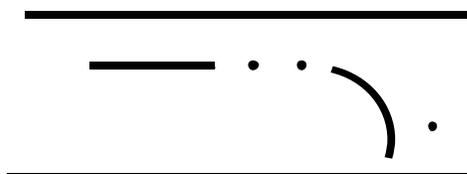
b) Disjunctive questions require a short answer "Yes" or "No". E.g.
 You speak English, don't you? Yes, I do. (No, I don't).

3) The Imperative sentence.

An imperative sentence serves to make somebody do some action, so it expresses a command, a request, an invitation etc.

Commands are pronounced with a falling tone.

Come to the blackboard.



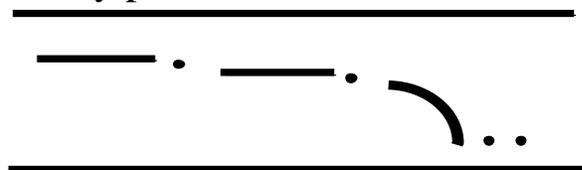
Request and an invitation are pronounced with a rising intonation.

Help me, please.

4) The exclamatory sentence.

Exclamatory sentences express some kind of emotion or feeling. They usually begin with interrogative words “what” and “how”. They are pronounced with a falling intonation. E.g.

What a lovely place it is!



How beautiful!

Structural types of the simple sentence

According to the structure simple sentences are divided into *two-member* sentences and *one-member* sentences. The two-member sentences are also divided into extended and unextended simple sentences.

a) Two-member simple sentences

The two-member simple sentences have two members –subject and predicate. E.g. Harry likes apples. He is at home now.

Two-member sentences may be complete and incomplete (or elliptical). It is complete when it has subject and predicate. E.g.

They come home early.

It is incomplete when one member or both of the principal parts are missing, but can easily be understood from the contents. E.g.

Where are you going? Home (elliptical)

Best not to speak to him (elliptical, incomplete)

b) One-member simple sentence

One-member sentence is a sentence which has only one member. That member is neither the subject nor the predicate. They are usually used in descriptions. When the main part of the one member sentence is expressed by a noun, the sentence is called nominal (at sözlemi). E.g.

In blossom, flowers, trees, the river.

The simple sentence is also divided into extended and unextended sentences. It is extended when the sentence consists of the subject, predicate and one or more secondary parts. E.g.

Some people were wandering in the forest.

When the simple sentence consists of only subject and predicate, it is called unextended. E.g.

She is a teacher.

Birds fly.

Winter!

The Parts of the Sentence:

The Parts of the sentence are divided into *principal* parts and *secondary* parts of the sentence. There may be also independent elements. The principal parts of the sentence are the *subject* and *predicate*. The secondary parts are the *attribute*, *the object* and *the adverbial modifier*.

1) The Principal parts of the sentence.

a) The **subject** is a principal part of the sentence and grammatically is independent of the other parts of the sentence.

Subject can be expressed by a noun, a pronoun and substantivized adjective, numeral, the gerund, the infinitive and any part of speech as a quotation. E.g.

Spring is a pleasant season.

We all like the spring months.

The wounded were looked after.

To live is to work.

On is a preposition.

b) The **predicate** is the second principal part of the sentence which is grammatically dependent on the subject. The predicate is divided into two types: the simple predicate and the compound predicate.

The simple predicate may be expressed by a single verb, by a combination of the verbs or by nominal parts of speech and by combination of words. E.g.

He speaks English.

I have finished my work.

The compound predicate:

The compound predicate has two types: the *compound nominal predicate* and the *compound verbal predicate*.

The compound nominal predicate consists of *a link verb* and *a predicative*. E.g.

She is a student.

Soon we became tired.

The compound verbal predicate is divided into two types:

- 1) Compound verbal modal predicate.
- 2) Compound verbal aspect predicate.

The compound verbal modal predicate consists of a modal verb and the infinitive. E.g.

They had to go very early.

You must stay here till tomorrow.

The compound verbal aspect predicate expresses the duration, repetition or accessation of the action. E.g.

His bones ceased to ache

He kept speaking

In Modern English there are also mixed types of predicate such as compound modal nominal predicate, compound aspect nominal predicate and compound modal aspect predicate. .e.g.

We began to feel hungry.

I don't mean to be unkind.

He must begin working as a teacher.

The secondary parts of the sentence:

There are the following three secondary parts of the sentence: object, *attribute*, *adverbial modifier*.

The **object** is a secondary part of the sentence which completes the meaning of the verb. In the sentence object usually stands after the verb. It may be expressed by nouns, pronouns, substantivized adjectives, by the infinitive, gerund and prepositional phrases. E.g.

John opened the window.

Mother helped her with her homework.

Do you remember going to Moscow?

The object has the following kinds: the direct object, indirect object, complex object and the cognate object.

The direct object is used after the transitive verbs. It is used without prepositions. After some transitive verbs two direct objects are possible. E.g.

I asked his name.

I asked him his name.

The indirect object denotes a living being to whom the action is directed. E.g.

The teacher gave her a book.

If we change the places of the objects, the indirect object becomes a prepositional object. E.g.

The teacher gave a book to her.

The complex object:

The *complex object* consists of two elements. These two elements have a predicate relation with each other. It means that the complex object taken separately may form a separate sentence. E.g.

We saw Jeren turn pale. (We saw Jeren. Jeren turned pale.)

I want you to come in time.

The cognate object:

The *cognate object* is a special kind of the object. It is usually used with intransitive verbs. The cognate object is a kind of repetition of the predicate verb in the form of the noun. That is why we find the cognate object in such combinations as “to live a happy life”, “to smile a sad smile”. “to laugh a bitter laugh” etc.

E.g. They live a happy life together.

And they died a dreadful death.

The attribute:

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which qualifies other words in the sentence. In English the attribute can stand before or after the word it qualifies. E.g.

I have an interesting book to read.

The man standing there is our teacher.

The attribute is usually expressed by an adjective, a pronoun, a noun, a verb or by prepositional phrases. E.g.

A village panther (noun), his book (pronoun), a voice inside (post position) etc.

The adverbial modifier:

The **adverbial modifier** is a secondary part of the adverbial sentence which modifies the verb. There are the following types of the adverbial modifiers:

1) adverbial modifier of time

He returned home yesterday.

2) adverbial modifier of place.

There are books on the table.

3) adverbial modifier of frequency.

We often go to the cinema.

4) adverbial modifier of reason.

We couldn't go to the forest because of rain.

5) adverbial modifier of purpose.

We gathered here to discuss the question.

6) adverbial modifier of manner.

They spent the night without sleeping.

7) adverbial modifier of result.

She was too weak to move.

8) adverbial modifier of condition.

In case of your absence I shall leave a note.

9) adverbial modifier of degree.

She was completely happy.

10) adverbial modifier of concession.

In spite of this we'll go there.

The Compound Sentence

The *compound sentence* is a sentence which consists of two or more equal clauses. The clauses in the compound sentences are connected with the help of conjunctions “ and , but ,however, yet, still, therefore” (syndetically) or without conjunctions (asyndetically). E.g.

We helped them and they helped us.

The month was April, the weather was fine.

Both parts of the compound sentence are pronounced with a falling intonation.

There are different types of co-ordination connecting the clauses of the compound sentence:

a) Copulative co-ordination expressed by the copulative conjunctions: and, not only...but, neither...nor. E.g.

The day was bright and the weather was warm.

b) Disjunctive co-ordination expressed by the disjunctive conjunctions :or, otherwise, else, either...or. E.g.

Either you join to us or we shall do it.

c) Adversative co-ordination expressed by adversative conjunctions: but, yet, still, nevertheless, however. E.g.

The river was deep, nevertheless we managed to pass.

d) Causative-consecuative co-ordination expressed by the conjunctions: for, so ,therefore, accordingly, hence, consequently. E.g.

The windows were closed, for the weather was cold.

The Complex Sentence:

The complex sentence consists of the *principal clause* and the *subordinate clause*. The principal clause is connected with the subordinate clause either syndetically (with the help of conjunction) or asyndetically (without conjunctions). E.g.

He said that he will help us (syndetically).

I wish you had come earlier (asyndetically).

According to the grammatical function subordinate clauses are divided into subject clauses, object clauses, predicative clauses, attributive clauses and adverbial clauses.

Subject clauses fulfil the function of the subject to the predicate verb of the principal clause.E.g.

What he likes best is to play football.

What was done could not be undone.

It was possible that he might have said it.

Object clauses perform the function of an object to the predicate verb of the principal clause. E.g.

I do not know what he said.

He will do what he said.

Predicative clauses perform the function of a predicative to the verb in the principal clause. E.g.

This is what he said.

She looks as if she knows everything.

Attributive clauses serve as an attributive to a noun in the principal clause.

The man who is standing there is our teacher.

The book which you gave me is interesting.

Adverbial clauses fulfil the function of an adverbial modifier. There are the following kinds of adverbial clauses:

Adverbial clauses of *time*, adverbial clauses of *place*, adverbial clauses of *reason*, adverbial clauses of *purpose*, adverbial clauses of *condition*, adverbial clauses of *concession*, adverbial clauses of *result*, adverbial clauses of *manner* and adverbial clauses of *comparison*.

Adverbial clause of time shows the time of the action of the verb in the principal clause and they are introduced by the conjunctions when, while, whenever, before, till, until, as soon as, after, as, now that etc. e.g.

I went to school when I was seven.

We waited for him till he came back.

Adverbial clause of place shows the place of the action of the verb in the principal clause. They are introduced by the conjunction “where”, “whenever”. E.g.

She waited where I told her to wait.

Adverbial clauses of reason show the reason of the action of the verb in the principal clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions “as”, “because”, “since”, “for fear that”, “on the ground that”, “for the reason that”. E.g.

We could not go to the country because it was very cold yesterday.

Adverbial clause of purpose shows the purpose of the action of the verb in the principal clause. They are introduced by the conjunctions that, in order that, so that, lest. E.g.

The teacher stood aside so that we could see the sentences on the blackboard.

Adverbial clauses of condition express the condition of the action in the principal clause and are introduced by the conjunctions if, unless, suppose, in case, on condition that, provided etc. E.g.

I shall go there if you stay here.

Adverbial clauses of concession denote the presence of some obstacle in the action and are introduced by the conjunctions though, although, however, whoever, whatever, whichever. E.g.

Though you are too tired you must do this work.

Adverbial clauses of result denote the result of the action expressed in the principal clause and are introduced by the conjunctions that, so that, such etc. E.g.

The text was so difficult that we could not translate it.

Adverbial clauses of manner show the manner of the action expressed in the main clause. E.g.

She left the room as she entered.

Adverbial clauses of comparison denote an action compared with the action in the principal clause and are introduced by the conjunctions than, as, as...as, not so... so, as if, as though". E.g.

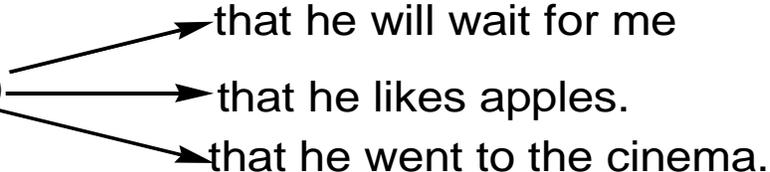
They worked as hard as they could.

The Sequence of Tenses

In complex sentences tenses in the main and subordinate clauses must agree with each other. The following rule of agreement of tenses must be observed in complex sentences:

1) If the predicate verb in the principal clause is in the present or future tense, we can use any tense we need in the subordinate clause.

E.g.

He says (will say) 

2) If the predicate verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, there must be only past tense in the subordinate clause:

a) If the action in the subordinate clause is simultaneous with the action in the principal clause, the past Indefinite or the Past Continuous is used in the subordinate clause. E.g.

He asked me what I did yesterday.

He asked me where I was going at that time.

b) If the action in the subordinate clause is prior to the action in the principal clause, the Past perfect is used in the subordinate clause. E.g.,

She said she had returned by 5 yesterday.

c) If the action in the subordinate clause is posterior to the action in the principal clause, the future in the past tense is used in the subordinate clause. E.g.

He was sure that they would finish the work in time.

Indirect Speech:

We distinguish direct speech and indirect speech in the language.

The speaker's exact words are called direct speech. E.g.

I am a student. We often go to the cinema.

In indirect speech the speaker reports somebody else's words. For example: He says he is a student. They say they often go to the cinema.

When the direct speech is converted into indirect speech the following changes take place:

1) The quotation marks, interrogative marks and the comma are omitted.

2) The pronoun of the first person is replaced by the 3rd person; the pronoun of the 2nd person is replaced by the 1st or 3rd. E.g.

I said, "I am ready". (Direct speech)

He said he was ready. (Indirect speech)

If the speaker reports his own words, the pronouns are not changed.

E.g.

I said "I am ready". I said I was ready.

3) In indirect speech with verb in the past tense, the demonstrative pronouns and adverbials of nearness are replaced by the words expressing distance:

Here is replaced by there.
This by that.
These by those.
Now by then.
Yesterday by the day before.
Last night by the previous night.

Examples with the indirect statements:

| <u>Direct speech</u> | <u>Indirect speech</u> |
|---|---|
| She said "I live <u>here</u> ". | She said she lived <u>there</u> |
| She said "These are books". | She said that <u>those were books</u> . |
| She said "I met her <u>yesterday</u> ". | She said that she had met her the <u>day before</u> . |

Questions in indirect speech:

General questions are changed into indirect speech with the help of the conjunction "if" or "whether". The verb "say" is replaced by "ask". E.g.

I said to him, "Do you speak English?"

I asked him if he spoke English.

Special questions are changed into indirect speech with the help of interrogative words what, who etc. E.g.

I said to her, "Where do you live?"

I asked her where she lived.

Indirect orders and requests:

In indirect order or request the infinitive is used with the particle "to". In the negative form the particle "not" is placed before the infinitive. The verb say is replaced by ask. E.g.

He said, "Open the door"

He asked to open the door.

She said to her, "Don't go out"

She asked her not to go out.

A LIST OF BIBLIOGRAPHY

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